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by

Vivian Barnette

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MAJORITY AND MINORITY SUPERVISEES' PERCEPTIONS
OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Vivian Barnette, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University, 1999

Perceptions of clinical supervision of 175 majority and minority counseling psychology doctoral students selected from a national pool was the study's focal point. Instruments used were the Revised Relational Inventory (RRI; Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Schacht, Howe, & Berman, 1988) and the Supervision Perception Form–Trainee (SPF-T) developed by Heppner and Roehlke (1984). Participants were instructed to based their ratings on their last supervision experience. Data were collected and scored on the five subscales of the RRI (Congruence, Empathetic Understanding, Regard, Unconditionality, and Willingness to be Known) and the two subscales of the SPF-T (Willingness to Learn and Supervisory Impact).

A factor analysis was conducted on each of the two scales using maximum likelihood estimation method. Approximately 80% of the items loaded on their proposed scales, while others were ambiguous. Therefore, the subscales designed by Schacht et al. (1988) for the RRI and Heppner and Roehlke (1984) for the SPF-T were maintained.

All of the hypotheses were concerned with race main effects and each showed statistical differences between minority and majority students' perception on all seven subscales at $p < .05$.

An ANOVA for unequal group sizes or unbalanced design was used to check mean differences between race, age, and experience and the interaction of age,

experience, and race in rating the seven subscales. The univariate and bivariate cross-classification and frequencies provided the basis for inclusion and exclusion of demographic variables. A three-way fully crossed ANOVA was performed to examine the effects of race, age, and experience on supervisory characteristics.

Although majority supervisees rated their supervisors higher than minority supervisees on all seven subscales, these differences significantly interacted with experience and/or age. These significant interactions demonstrated that differences were significant primarily with older and less experienced majority supervisees.

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This dissertation has been a distant light at the end of the tunnel. Although my eyes were fixed on that light, my mind and energy grew weary. Sometimes my travel days were hard and difficult and at other times they were smooth and easy. I learned how to weather the storm and how to prepare for each season. Beyond any shadow of doubt, I know that if it had not been for my faith in God, my completion of the program would have been nearly impossible. Hence, I am thankful for my Aunt Geneva Holland who taught me how to "look unto the hills from whence cometh my help." Her spiritual guidance gave me the confidence not only to believe in God but in myself.

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In closing, I am walking in the light because of each of you, and I am forever thankful to you for helping me obtain my goal. You have made my dream become a reality. Again, thank you!

Vivian Barnette

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The field of psychology has been experiencing a state of rapid change. Similarly, the multicultural movement is having a tremendous impact on the counseling profession. One of the most significant impacts has been the increased number of ethnic-minority student enrollment over the past decade (Williams & Halgin, 1995). Of major interest within the ethnic-minority student enrollment is an understanding of clinical supervision and the supervisory dyad from a multicultural perspective.

Empirical evidence strongly suggests that the importance of clinical supervision in the applied training of professional psychologists is viewed as a central aspect of practice (e.g., Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; Robiner & Schofield, 1990; Romans, Boswell, Carlozzi, & Ferguson, 1995; Stone, 1997). Additionally, Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) state that the training and development of therapists is one of the primary goals of many psychology programs and that clinical supervision itself is regarded as an important and highly valued professional activity.

Newman (1981) considered clinical supervision of students as the most important experience in developing professional proficiency as a psychotherapist. It is within supervision that students acquire a sense of competence, develop their

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counseling skills, and explore and define their theoretical orientations. Supervisors direct students' professional growth by serving as teachers, role models, and mentors. They can also model professional counseling attitudes, high standards of competence, and acceptable behaviors. In successful clinical supervision, the student's self-examination results in integration of counseling skills with counseling theory, heightened self–other awareness, and, finally, identification as psychotherapists (Hess, 1980; Newman, 1981; Stoltenberg, 1981).

Clinical supervision is an integral part of teaching and learning psychotherapy (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). There are many definitions of *clinical supervision*; however, for the purposes of this study, *clinical supervision* refers to the interaction which takes place between two individuals who have agreed to meet on a regular basis to discuss clinical and professional issues for the benefit of the supervisee's professional growth. Tersely, it shall be defined as "an intensive, interpersonally focused, one-to-one relationship in which one person is designated to facilitate the development of therapeutic competence in the other person" (Loganbill et al., 1982, p. 4). This is sometimes referred to as the master-apprentice approach. In this study, the terms *supervision* and *clinical supervision* will be used interchangeably. Clinical supervision is primarily that supervision that is a component of the graduate training of professional psychologists.

Reviews of the clinical supervision literature (Barlett, 1983; Ford, 1979; Hansen, Pound, & Petro, 1976; Hansen, Robinson, & Grimes, 1982; Hess, 1980; Kauderer & Herron, 1990; Leddick & Bernard, 1980) indicate that although supervision has been studied, there is little empirical research on the supervision dyadic relationship and supervisory process related to multicultural factors. Subsequently, little is known about the specific impacts of various multicultural

factors on individual supervision relationships such as race, age, and/or experience. Despite several hundred publications on clinical supervision that have appeared since 1982 (Robiner & Schofield, 1990), there are significant gaps in what is known about the multicultural issues within the clinical supervision relationship, such as open discussion on race and ethnicity related issues.

Although clinical supervision is critical to the training of counseling psychologists, little research has been conducted focusing on the importance of multicultural training within the supervision dyad (McNeil, Hom, & Perez, 1995). The field of psychology has historically given little attention to multicultural issues in clinical supervision.

In this chapter, a background for this problem will be presented by: (a) defining the goals of supervision, (b) discussing the importance of multicultural supervision, (c) defining the supervisory relationship, and (d) outlining the lack of research on multicultural supervision. Finally, the statement of the problem, the purpose, and the questions raised for this study are presented.

Goals of Supervision

Although clinical supervision is an important aspect of the training of counseling psychologists, there appears to be confusion over the term. Some supervisors believe that supervision, as suggested by Mueller and Kell (1972), is the same no matter with whom it is done, where it takes place, or the number of people involved. Others (e.g., Hess, 1980; Ryan, 1978) assume that different types of supervision are required depending on the type of client characteristics the supervisee experiences, the setting in which the therapy takes place, and the overall purpose of supervision.

According to Loganbill et al. (1982), supervision is one of the central activities of the psychological profession. It is an essential element and central training method in psychology. One of the major purposes of supervision is to help counselors-in-training learn to become therapeutic through using appropriate intervention strategies (Barlett, 1993).

Definitions of supervision vary widely from article to article and among specialties within the field. The term *supervision* has been used to refer to widely divergent activities, from purely technical administrative supervision, to beginning skill training, to a more intensive clinical therapeutic process (Loganbill et al., 1982). At other times, authors who write about supervision fail to clarify the type of process to which they are referring. Holloway (1992) believes that supervision is an interpersonal process that typically involves a more experienced clinician with oversight and evaluative responsibility for a less experienced clinician(s) who shares educational and therapeutic goals.

In this intensive interpersonal relationship, the main goal of the supervisor is to train students in the art of therapy. Specifically, this entails supervisors teaching theoretical orientations, application of theories, and counseling skills (Hess, 1980; Thorne & Dryden, 1991). Other supervisory goals include enlarging students' understanding of clients' dynamics and the continuity of counseling (Bordin, 1983; Hess, 1980). Because supervisees impact clients relationally, supervisors also need to facilitate and to encourage supervisees' self-other awareness (Bordin, 1983; Thorne & Dryden, 1991). Meanwhile, supervisors monitor the quality of counseling provided by supervisees to ensure acceptable levels of service (Bordin, 1983; Hess, 1980; Thorne & Dryden, 1991). Supervisees must integrate a large amount of information including ethics, theories, social roles, and technical skills in order to understand the

psychological functioning of a wide range of human beings (Blocher, 1983). As supervisees consolidate these elements, their cognitive schematas and their clinical judgments mature in the direction of greater complexity (Blocher, 1983). Finally, supervisees learn to develop therapeutic strategies and to competently implement interventions into their counseling (Barnat, 1980; Hess, 1980).

The Importance of Multicultural Supervision

Quality clinical supervision provided during the development of therapists is recognized as essential for the applied training of professional psychologists by the American Psychological Association's (APA) Division of Psychotherapy. Therefore, developing supervision competence should be viewed as an ongoing process in which practitioners continually strive to build on the foundational knowledge and skills acquired in preservice training. Clinical supervision is an important aspect of the practitioner's ongoing professional development. Supervisors and supervisees should be in agreement as to the overall goals and purposes of clinical supervision. Bradley (1989) presents three generic goals that are thought to be applicable to most clinical supervision situations: (1) offering an environment and experiences that facilitate the supervisee's personal and professional development, (2) nurturing the development of more effective counseling and consultation skills, and (3) increasing the overall accountability for the quality of professional counseling services that clients receive. Indeed, multicultural supervision embraces these broad supervisory goals and, additionally, it directs particular attention to the ways in which the supervisor's and supervisee's level of ethnic-racial identity impacts the supervision process.

As the United States becomes more ethnically diverse, the supervision dyad will often contain persons of differing racial/ethnic backgrounds (Priest, 1994).

Currently, and perhaps for some time to come, the vast majority of supervisors in this dyad will be White and members of the majority cultures. Therefore, it is imperative that majority supervisors become more aware of, and sensitive to, the needs of ethnic-minority supervisees.

With an increase in the number of minority doctoral candidates in counseling psychology programs, professional psychologists are required to attend to and account for the unique training and supervisory needs of diverse supervisees with respect to race and ethnicity. Therefore, all supervisors have increased responsibility to create a supervisory relationship and environment in which the issues minority trainees face—for example, racism, backlash as a result of "political correctness," and hostile environments—can be openly discussed (McNeil et al., 1995).

While theoretical writings on multicultural counseling and psychotherapy have been popular, there is an absence of literature on multicultural issues within the psychotherapy supervision relationship (Williams & Halgin, 1995). Psychologists must become aware of the ways in which a person's ethnic-racial identity development affects his or her overall psychological functioning within the supervisory dyad. The terms *ethnic identity development* and *racial identity development* refer to the way individuals view themselves as cultural/ethnic/racial beings. From a psychological perspective, these factors represent important considerations that need to be addressed in an open and explicit manner during supervision. The writings of researchers (Hess, 1980; Hunt, 1987; Leong & Wagner, 1994; Worrell & Remer, 1992) persuasively articulate the critical importance of multicultural training in supervision.

The Supervisory Relationship Defined

For the purpose of this study, the basic supervisory relationship consists of two people: the supervisor and the supervisee. In the classical form of supervision, the relationship is one of unequal power (Watkins, 1997) that is manifested in a variety of ways. Generally, supervisors decide the time, place, length, frequency, ground rules regarding what should take place in the session, and the number and type of cases assigned to the supervisee. Holloway, Freund, Gardner, Nelson, and Walker (1989) found that the primary pattern of teacher-learner interaction is that in which supervisors delivered high-power messages that result in low-power messages from supervisees.

Another aspect of supervision is the uneven level of self-disclosure between the two parties. Certainly there is some variation among individuals, but, for the most part, supervisors tend not to reveal personal information about themselves. Supervisees may reveal more than they want to because of a sense that this is what is expected and failure to do so would meet with disapproval from the supervisor. Some supervisees, because of their novice status, may not know where to draw the line between appropriate disclosure for supervisory purposes and the disclosure of material that is better discussed in one's own therapy. Supervisees can also find themselves in very vulnerable positions. The complex interpersonal relationship between supervisor and supervisees complements the didactic experience, but supervisors functioning as evaluators can be intimidating and threatening to supervisees (Blocher, 1983; Hess, 1980; Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983; Newman, 1981; Rioch, 1980).

In theoretical and empirical literature, the supervisor–supervisee relationship is recognized as a crucial factor in successful supervision. A number of counseling theorists have posited that a warm, respectful, genuine, trusting supervisory relationship is necessary for effective supervision (Blocher, 1983; Bordin, 1983; Loganbill et al., 1982; Mearns, 1991; Rogers, 1956). Likewise, from the supervisees' perspective, satisfactory, positive, effective supervision was characterized by supportive interpersonal interactions (Allen, Szollos, & Williams, 1986; Galante, 1987; Hutt, Scott, & King, 1983; Kennard, Stewart, & Gluck, 1987; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979).

A psychologically healthy supervisory relationship facilitates supervisees' self-disclosure, explorations of their beliefs, and assumptions about psychotherapy, and increases self–other awareness. When supervisors create a supportive, accepting, empathic supervisory environment, supervisees are more likely to be trusting and disclosing, so that they examine their thoughts and feelings regarding psychotherapy and insights about their self–other awareness (Mearns, 1991; Shohet & Wilmot, 1991). Supervisees' self-disclosure is necessary if supervisors are to be helpful. Students who feel unreasonably judged and criticized by their supervisors are unlikely to ask for assistance in dealing with difficult clinical problems. Under these conditions, supervisees tend to present in supervision those client cases that they feel relatively competent to handle and seek informal supervision about problematic cases elsewhere (Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983; Rosenblatt & Mayer, 1965).

Feeling safe and comfortable in supervision also allows students to examine their assumptions, beliefs, values, and feelings in regard to the general process of psychotherapeutic change as they work with different clients. Rogers (1951) believed that supervisees' clarification of their theoretical orientation is one of the first steps

necessary for supervisees to begin to learn about counseling. Rogers opposed indoctrinating students in a specific theoretical approach, since he observed when this occurred students became very self-conscious about their performance. He noticed that imposing such an approach caused supervisees to focus on their counseling techniques instead of attending to their interpersonal attitudes. Supervisees' concentration on theoretical orientation distracted them from being genuine, congruent, and empathetic with clients. Rogers (1951, 1957) theorized that these relational attitudes were the most powerful component that facilitated client change.

A positive, communicative supervisory relationship is also invaluable when supervisees' unresolved personal issues arise (Thorne & Dryden, 1991). Mueller and Kell (1972) recognized that conflicts with clients will often trigger anxiety within therapists, thus hindering effective counseling. If supervisees remain unaware of personal concerns, they may likewise experience impasses or difficulties with their clients, but remain puzzled as to the cause. The more objective perspective of the supervisor assists supervisees in identifying intrapsychic conflicts needing attention. Uncovering intrapsychic issues enables supervisees not only to deepen their self–other awareness, but also to begin to recognize the impact of their own personalities on the psychotherapy process (Bordin, 1983).

Research on Multicultural Supervision

In past years, much of what has constituted clinical supervision has consisted of counselor "skill building" and the identification and implementation of therapeutic techniques that were believed to be effective in alleviating client distress. In this literature, multicultural diversity issues were virtually ignored or minimized. Sadly, many applied academic training programs continue to regard the development of

multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skill with respect to both counseling and supervision as an optional endeavor (Constantine, 1997).

Although it has been largely agreed upon that effective multicultural training needs to be placed at the core of the counseling curriculum (Ivey, 1986), it is only in recent years that increasing attention has been paid to the issues of multicultural supervision. Recent articles and books in professional psychology and counseling point to multiculturalism as an important context for supervision (Leong & Wagner, 1994). However, few articles have been devoted to multicultural supervision (Leong & Wagner, 1994). Thus, many training models have been criticized for their lack of attention to the relationship between interpersonal dynamics of the supervisor and supervisee and the issues involved in discussing racial and ethnic differences within the context of a one-on-one teaching relationship (Leong & Wagner, 1994).

Various studies have examined the influence of supervisees' perceptions of the supervisory relationship on their satisfaction with the process (e.g., Heppner & Handley, 1981, 1982; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). However, for the most part, these studies have ignored the potential influence of cultural factors such as race or ethnicity on supervisees' experiences of supervision (Cook & Helms, 1988).

<div align="center">Empirical Results</div>

Other literature on multicultural clinical supervision has outlined conceptual models (e.g., Morgan, 1984; Tyler, Brome, & Williams, 1991) and theories (e.g., Bernard & Goodyear, 1992) that lack empirical evidence for their assertions (Leong & Wagner, 1994). To date, only four empirical investigations were discovered which examined the supervisory experiences of racial and ethnic-minority trainees. Using a combination of structured and open-ended questions, McRoy, Freeman, Logan, and

Blackmon (1986) studied the field experiences of social work trainees and their supervisors in cross-cultural dyads. Both trainees and the supervisors identified more potential problems than benefits. This study provided evidence for the variety of misperceptions and miscommunications that can occur in cross-cultural supervisory dyads. The authors also suggested that ethnic-minority trainees are reluctant to discuss cultural issues pertaining to clients in supervision.

Cook and Helms (1988) investigated the level of satisfaction with cross-cultural supervision in a survey of 225 African-American, Latino, Asian-American, and Native-American trainees. Results indicated that the relationship dimensions of the supervisor's liking and conditional interest contributed to greater satisfaction with supervision. Perceptions of the supervisory relationship also varied, depending on the supervisee's ethnic background. African-American, Latino, and Native-American trainees perceived significantly lower levels of liking than did Asian Americans. Native-American students perceived higher discomfort than did the other three groups, who viewed their supervisors as emotionally comfortable with them. African Americans and Native Americans perceived the highest mean levels of unconditional liking and African Americans perceived higher levels of liking than did Latinos. Interpretation of the results points to the vital issue of supervisor and supervisee expectation that influences cross-cultural encounters. The findings also reinforce the assertions by others (e.g., Cook, 1994) that it is up to the supervisor to initiate cultural issues in a supervisory environment in which it is sufficiently safe to do so.

Vander Kolk (1974) examined trainees' expectations for the supervisory relationship as a function of race. His study revealed that African-American students compared to White students anticipated that their supervisor would be less emphatic, respectful, and congruent. The Vander Kolk findings suggest that the cross-cultural

aspect of the supervision process may be an especially significant contributor to the interpersonal dynamics of supervision. The author concluded that African-American trainees expected less from their supervisors than did White trainees because African-American students typically have experienced prejudice and rejection from Whites in general. Therefore, he predicted that the trainees would expect a low level of respect and understanding from their White supervisors as part of a generalized reaction to Whites. This study did not include a follow-up; its contribution was to help establish the salience of race as a key variable as relationships between supervisors and supervisees were being established.

Hilton, Russell, and Salmi (1995) conducted a study that (a) examined the effects of different levels of supervisor support on measures of the supervisory interaction, and (b) explored the possible effects of different supervisee–supervisor racial pairings on the relationship in supervision. Their findings indicated that level of supervisor support influenced supervisee evaluations of the supervisory process. Supervisees were able to distinguish between high- and low-support supervision environments, and supervisees in the high-support condition rated their supervision as more effective and their supervisory relationship as more positive. Their conclusions were that the supervisor's race did not seem to influence supervisee ratings of the supervision interaction. The race of the supervisor did not seem to influence evaluations of supervision, whereas level of support seemed to play an important role. Studies such as Hilton et al., which weigh the effect of race against other relationship variables, are sorely need in the supervision literature.

Fukuyama (1994) conducted a pilot study that elicited critical incidents from racial-ethnic minorities who had completed an APA internship. Post-interns were asked to offer positive and negative incidents and to describe organizational or

environmental conditions that contributed to their professional development. Positive incidents fell into three categories: openness and support, culturally relevant supervision, and opportunities to work in multicultural activities.

Trainees' suggestions offered by subjects included sensitizing internship settings by providing more multicultural training, encouraging more discourse within supervision about cultural factors, and, conversely, cautioning supervisors not to overestimate cultural diversity issues in an attempt to be "politically correct." The willingness of the supervisor to open the door to discuss culture is perhaps the single most powerful intervention for multicultural supervision.

Statement of the Problem

With the increasing number of minority students enrolled in counseling psychology programs, the multicultural dynamics of clinical supervision has become a pressing issue that needs to be addressed by training programs as well as by the supervision literature. The literature on minority issues in the human service field has grown with the changes that have occurred in graduate training. Many authors have worked with issues in multicultural counseling and psychotherapy (Arciniega & Newlon, 1981; Costantino, Malgady, & Rogler, 1988; Gorkin, Masalha, & Yatziv, 1985; Ibrahim, 1984; Jenkins, 1990; Kim, 1985; Lorenzo, 1989; Minrath, 1985; Munoz, 1986; Nishio & Bilmes, 1987; Ponterotto & Benesch, 1988; Root, 1985; Tsui, 1985), while others have conducted research and have written articles that emphasize multicultural differences in psychopathology (Adams, Dworkin, & Rosenberg, 1984; Bulhan, 1985; Kendrick, McMillan, & Pinderhughes, 1983; Lawson, 1986; Pillay, 1984; Ruiz, 1985). Additionally, publications about training nonminorities to work with minority clients have been written by several authors

(Corvin & Wiggins, 1989; Mio & Morris, 1990; Neimeyer, Fukuyama, Bingham, Hall, & Musenden, 1986; Pedersen, 1977). What has been overlooked is a mindful consideration of the issues that pertain to the relationship between a supervisor from a majority group working with a supervisee from a minority group. Although this dyad is common, little has been written about this relationship.

Purpose of the Study

An understanding of the differences between minority and majority graduate student perceptions of supervision when participating in the supervisor–supervisee dyad was the focus of the proposed study. The specific purpose of the study was to examine whether specific supervisor characteristics such as empathetic understanding, congruence, regard, unconditionality of regard, and willingness to be known facilitate supervisee willingness to learn from the supervisor. The following research questions will be investigated:

1. Are there differences between minority and majority graduate students' perceptions of supervision in the supervisory dyad?

2. Is student willingness to learn and openness to supervisor influence a function of racial differences in the supervisory dyad?

Overview of Remaining Chapters

In Chapter II, the importance of the supervisory relationship is reviewed, and models of supervision, supervision with an emphasis on the supervisory dyad, racial issues within supervision, and other related materials are discussed. In Chapter III, the research methodology including the sample for study, research design, and research instruments are presented. In Chapter IV, the findings of the study are

reported, along with tables to depict the data analysis. In Chapter V, a discussion of

the results, including the study's contribution to the field of clinical supervision, are

provided, and suggestions for further research are considered.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Although there is a large body of literature on supervision, and a growing body of literature on multicultural issues in counseling and psychotherapy, relatively little has been written about the impact of racial, cultural, and ethnic differences between supervisor and supervisee in the supervisory process (Brown & Landrum-Brown, 1995; Leong & Wagner, 1994; Remington & DaCosta, 1989). The majority of the supervisory literature attends to the developmental stages of supervisees' professional maturation. In this chapter, the supervisory relationship itself and models of supervision emphasizing relationship, preferred supervisors, supervisee's impact on supervision, person-centered supervision, and multicultural issues within supervision are discussed. Other variables such as age and experience are also reviewed.

The Importance of the Supervisory Relationship

Supervision takes place in a relational context; it is first and foremost a relationship between senior and junior professional members (Watkins, 1997). Supervisees must have a solid working relationship in order to fully engage in supervision (Bordin, 1983; Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983). Regardless of whether the supervisory relationship is satisfactory, it provides an environmental arena for

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supervisees' professional development (Holloway, 1987). According to Friedlander and Ward (1984), the supervisory relationship may be as potent in effecting supervisory outcomes as the therapeutic relationship is in effecting client outcomes. The supervisor–supervisee relationship appears to be a necessary ingredient to the making, doing, and being of the supervision process itself and seemingly facilitates whatever takes place within that process. If the supervisory relationship lacks mutual respect and concern between supervisor and supervisee, Blocher (1983) stated that supervisees' progress in supervision will be hampered.

The relational supervisory models of Loganbill, Hardy, and Delworth (1982), Blocher (1983), and Mueller and Kell (1972) explain how caring, mutual trust, and respect between supervisor and supervisee provide the foundation for a positive, satisfying supervisory relationship and how this relationship facilitates the learning of counseling skills. Because of a lack of empirical research on effective supervisor characteristics, only descriptive studies examining the qualities of a positive or negative supervisory relationship are reported. Included are those studies examining supervisor characteristics and styles. Since supervisees also influence the supervisory interaction, studies exploring supervisees' qualities that affect supervision are also reviewed.

Rogers' client-centered or supervisee-centered model of supervision is described because it forms the major theoretical basis for the present study. Rogers (1951, 1957) specified the supervisor characteristics necessary for experiential learning within supervision. Briefly, he claimed that when the facilitative qualities of congruence, empathetic understanding, and unconditional regard are experienced in supervision, supervisees will be receptive to personal growth and personal learning. The supervisor aims at trying to discover the trainee's own personal, natural way of

thinking, or the trainee's inner, deeper approach to supervision. Research offering evidence of the effectiveness of Rogers' approach to supervision is presented, which supports the use of his theory as basis for this study. A review of supervisory literature indicates that few studies have explored the specific conditions that encourage learning in supervision.

Supervision Models Accentuating Relationship

A communicative, respectful, trusting, and supportive supervisory relationship has been viewed by many as a critical, if not the most critical, facet of the clinical training (Blocher, 1983; Bordin, 1983; Loganbill et al., 1982; Mueller & Kell, 1972; Watkins, 1997). While many theorists agree on the importance of a positive supervisory relationship, theorists disagree on who holds primary responsibility for maintaining the relationship. Loganbill et al. (1982) theorized that supervisors provided accepting and supportive environments by demonstrating empathy, liking, and respect towards their supervisees. Loganbill et al. also theorized that supervisees felt secure enough to express their thoughts and feelings without fear of adverse judgment and rejection. Hence, the supervisee was able to become more aware of self and behavioral patterns and tendencies, resolve conflict, and become less anxious and more confident. Additionally, for Loganbill et al., the supervisory relationship is the "vehicle through which essential knowledge is given" (p. 29). A trusting, open relationship facilitates supervisees' acceptance of new information and opportunities for growth. Yet, the experience of the relationship itself fosters significant learning and changes in cognitions and feelings. For example, supervisors who discuss interpersonal conflicts in the supervisory relationship often model for their supervisees strategies for managing disagreements with their clients.

In contradiction to the opinion that supervisors are primarily responsible for the supervisory relationship, Mueller and Kell (1972), Bordin (1983), and Blocher (1983) theorized that trust, care, and respect are the mutual responsibilities of both supervisors and supervisees. Despite these authors' mutual belief that a cooperative supervisory relationship is central to supervision, unique aspects still exist between their supervisory models.

According to Cook (1994), the supervisory relationship parallels the therapeutic relationship very closely. Mueller and Kell (1972) highlighted the parallel process that often occurs in the supervision of counseling. A parallel process occurs when problems with the client or the counseling relationship are replicated in the supervision. In other words, when supervisees empathize with their clients' anxieties, the supervisees' own intrapsychic conflicts are stimulated and supervisees are receptive to reactions evoked by clients. Then, these conflicts surface in supervision. It becomes crucial that supervisors provide a caring and trusting relationship, which enables supervisees to explore areas of personal challenges. When supervisees examine their reactions to clients, areas of private intricacies may emerge for the supervisees. When supervisees are able to deal with anxiety openly, they are more likely to be comfortable with client issues, thus allowing for significant therapeutic encounters to transpire, which results in greater progress for the client. Working through in supervision, then, becomes sort of an enlightening form of practice in which supervisees increase their awareness of a situation and are consequently able to work with clients in a far less constricted manner.

Nevertheless, the process of trust is reciprocal. If supervisees responded to the supervisors' offers of help by hiding their difficulties working with clients through the use of rationalizations, justifications, and intellectualizations, supervisees

undermine the supervisors' faith that the supervisee will self-disclose crucial client information. Once the supervisor's trust erodes, there is no foundation on which to construct a productive supervisory relationship (Mueller & Kell, 1972).

Bordin's (1983) model of supervision also emphasizes the mutuality of the trust and care in the supervisory relationship. Bordin used the term *working alliance* to emphasize the importance of the supervisory relationship. The supervisory alliance refers to a mutuality between the supervisor and supervisee perceptions of the supervisory relationship. In Bordin's view, the power that induces change in supervision is the alliance between the supervisor and supervisee. The strength of that alliance depends on setting common goals, on working together to meet these goals, and on the bond between the two parties. Bordin (1983) and Ladany and Friedlander (1995) also observed that bonding can happen only when there is mutual liking, trust, respect, and caring between the supervisor and supervisee.

One of the important functions of the supervisor is to establish a situation of comfort and safety that will allow supervisees to openly and honestly report the experience and interaction between themselves and the client in a way that allows the supervisor a reasonable view and understanding of the analyst interactions (Watkins, 1997). The information of this "working alliance" is necessary for the tasks of supervision. Like Mueller and Kell (1972) and Loganbill et al. (1982), Bordin (1983) regarded one of the supervisees' tasks as confronting their inner world and recognizing its impact on clients, which requires that the supervisor be sensitive to the learning needs of the supervisee. Given the ever-present component of evaluation in supervision, appropriate trust is often not easily attained. However, supervisees who feel a bond with their supervisors are more willing to trust their supervisors with

their internal conflicts, despite the evaluative quality that is also a part of the relationship.

Similarly, Blocher (1983) presented a teacher-student model of supervision which assumes that an effective relationship is characterized by being honest, respectful, trusting, noncritical, prizing, sharing, accepting, congruent, supportive, caring, attentive, empathic, and the like. These qualities enable honest communication for teaching counseling skills and for discussing the counselor's interpersonal functioning in counseling. Blocher (1983) concluded, "Where either supervisor or supervisee is unable to function in a relationship in this way, little success would be expected" (p. 33).

The purpose of supervision, according to Blocher (1983) is to educate supervisees, whom he called learners, primarily through their interactions with clients. "Supervision . . . uses the psychological content in a systematic way to change the psychological functioning of a learner" (Bordin, 1983, p. 28). Blocher's (1983) cognitive developmental approach assumes that a supervisee's cognitive schemas for information processing change with experience. This theory is based on research in developmental person perception schemas through which individuals assign meanings to their perceptions of others. Blocher believed that supervisees develop in the direction of greater complexity, decreasing stereotype, and increasing ability to integrate discordant or inconsistent information about the behavior of their clients. Thus, this positively influences their counseling skills. As supervisees process psychological functioning from counseling clients in increasingly more complex ways, their perceptions of others change, which influences their effectiveness in counseling.

Bordin (1983) suggested that supervisors can be helpful in promoting integration of more complex schemes for conceptualizing clients. He also outlined the

dynamics or characteristics of the supervision learning environment as follows. First, the student needs to be challenged to learn. Second, he or she must invest in performing. Third, when the student's anxieties are triggered by high levels of challenge and involvement, these anxieties need to be calmed by a supportive, warm, caring relationship. Fourth, structure must be provided to ensure clear learning strategies for the supervisee to approach the tasks. Fifth, supervisees need accurate, interpretable feedback regarding their performance to clarify areas for growth. Sixth, the supervisor should encourage the supervisee to experiment with innovative counseling practices. And seventh, the supervisor must provide the supervisee time for reflection on and integration of new ways of thinking, feeling, and acting. Although the supervisor and the supervisee are mutually responsible for a positive supervisory relationship, the supervisor is responsible for managing supervision around these dynamics. According to Blocher (1983), the goal of supervision should be to create humane, flexible, and supportive learning environments that encourage supervisees' professional development.

Although there are some differences, the supervisory models of Blocher (1983), Bordin (1983), Loganbill et al. (1982), and Mueller and Kell (1972) provide support for attending to the components of a successful supervisory relationship, since it can influence the effectiveness of the supervisory experience. However, the question that prevails is how to engage students in the supervisory process so they will engage in learning counseling. The first condition for learning counseling skills is that supervisees are challenged to learn (Bordin, 1983). How can supervisors challenge supervisees to learn while encouraging them to commit to performance? Caligor (1984), Doehrman (1976), Gediman and Wolkenfeld (1980), Martin, Mayerson, Olsen, and Wiberg (1977), and Schmiel (1984) stated that characteristics

of an effective supervisor include self-reflection and self-monitoring of the emotional/ interpersonal process associated with supervisor–supervisee interactions, along with the ability to oscillate between identifying with and observing the experiences of the supervisee and the supervisee's client. Therefore, it is not only supervisors' knowledge of counseling but their interpersonal style of interacting with students that is crucial. In addition, as Mueller and Kell (1972) emphasized, students need to be responsive for supervision to be successful.

Positive and Negative Experiences of Clinical Supervision

Research has been published on the overall positive and negative aspects of supervisory interactions. In this next section, characteristics and styles preferred and disliked from the perspective of supervisees are described, as well as qualities of positive and negative supervisory relationships from the perspective of supervisees. This comprehensive review of the literature on the supervisory relationship illustrates the general, descriptive nature of the research in this area and demonstrates the necessity for further examination of specific characteristics that promote supervisee engagement in learning from the supervisory experience.

Preferred Supervisors

Several studies of supervision surveyed supervisees to obtain their perceptions of supervisors' positive relational qualities (Allen et al., 1986; Gandolfo & Brown, 1987; Kennard et al., 1987; Nelson, 1978). The results of these state that supervisees preferred supervisors who were nonthreatening, tactful, nonauthoritarian, flexible, self-disclosing, permissive, perceptive, supportive, sensitive, reassuring, understanding, and accepting (Galante, 1987; Hutt et al., 1983; Kennard et al., 1987;

Nelson, 1978). Additionally, supervisees valued supervisors who possessed a sense of humor, built supervisees' confidence, put supervisees at ease, called the supervisee by name, established good rapport, and demonstrated interest in supervision (Nelson, 1978; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979).

The ideal supervisor has been described as a person who exhibits high levels of empathy, understanding, unconditional positive regard, flexibility, concern, attention, investment, curiosity, and openness (Carifio & Hess, 1987). Ideal supervisors characterized by interns were warm, self-disclosing, flexible, and supportive (Gandolfo & Brown, 1986). Satisfactory supervision also occurred when supervisees rated supervisors high on expertise, trustworthiness, and interpersonal attractiveness (Allen et al., 1986; Heppner & Handley, 1981, 1982). However, in Allen et al.'s (1986) questionnaire, supervisees reported that their best supervision was associated with the supervisors' expertise and trustworthiness. Before concluding interpersonal attractiveness is less crucial in supervision, another study needs to be considered. Dodenhoff (1981) found that students who perceived their supervisors as friendly were rated by their supervisors as more effective in counseling. Apparently, supervisors' interpersonal attractiveness as well as expertise and trustworthiness are associated with supervisees' satisfaction with supervision and the perceived supervisory outcomes.

Supervisees described a positive supervisory relationship as embodying warmth, acceptance, trust, respect, and understanding, in addition to specific characteristics that facilitated a positive, satisfactory relationship (Hutt et al., 1983). These qualities produced the interpersonal climate that facilitated professional growth (Hutt et al., 1983). Learning occurred when supervisees could safely discuss their difficulties with clients to their supervisors without fear of negative evaluations.

Supervisors made it clear that mistakes did not compromise the supervisee's worth. More exploration and discussion of their behaviors, thoughts, attitudes, and feelings regarding the counseling process followed (Hutt et al., 1983).

Positive Styles of Supervision

Cherniss and Equatios (1977), Heppner and Handley (1981), and Worthington and Roehlke (1979) have examined variables that contribute to supervisees' satisfaction with supervision. Worthington and Roehlke (1979) obtained beginning practicum students' and their supervisors' perceptions of the role and behaviors of a "good" supervisor. Supervisors rated each of 42 specific behaviors of supervisors according to its importance to good supervision. Examples of the behaviors are: "Gives direct suggestions to supervisees when appropriate" and "Calls supervisee by name at least one time per session." In addition, at the end of the practicum, the supervisees rated the frequency with which their supervisors used each behavior, and they rated the effectiveness of the supervision on the three dimensions of competence, satisfaction, and contribution to their own counseling ability.

Their results indicate that supervisors viewed their supervisory role as primarily one of giving accurate feedback to the students. Of the 12 highest ranked behaviors, 5 concerned giving feedback; the supervisors also viewed giving support to the supervisee (e.g., helping supervisees develop self-confidence) as important. Didactic behaviors (e.g., to role play during supervision sessions) were ranked low in importance.

The supervisees' perceptions of the effectiveness of their supervisors were correlated with their ratings of the frequency with which the supervisors used each of the 42 supervisory behaviors. The supervisees rated supervision as being better when

their supervisors were didactic within a supportive relationship. Supervisees were more satisfied when supervisors exhibited behaviors such as (a) helping supervisees develop their own style, (b) establishing good rapport with supervisees, (c) helping supervisees develop self-confidence, (d) using humor during supervisory sessions, (e) calling supervisees by name, (f) modeling task-oriented behavior, (g) sharing counseling experience, (h) reassuring counselor trainees that new counseling skills would seem awkward initially, (j) providing literature about counseling, and (k) providing structure during early supervisory sessions.

Heppner and Handley (1981) found that supervisees' perceptions of supervisor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness and the supervisory relationship were correlated with supervisee satisfaction. The results also indicated that ratings of perceived supervisor attractiveness and trustworthiness were more highly correlated than perceived expertness with both supervisees' and supervisors' ratings of satisfaction with supervision. In addition, the more the supervisor was perceived as responding with regard, empathy, and congruence, the more satisfied supervisees were with supervision.

Cherniss and Equatios (1977) investigated the styles of clinical supervision offered in community mental health programs and categorized major styles of supervision: (a) "didactic-consultative," i.e., the supervisor offers advice, suggestions, and interpretations concerning client dynamics and clinical techniques; (b) "insight-oriented," i.e., the supervisor encourages the supervisee to question emotional responses to the clinical process; (c) "laissez-faire," i.e., the supervisee is left alone most of the time and the supervisor is rarely available for consultations on work problems; and (d) "authoritative," i.e., the supervisor tells the supervisee what to do and how to do it. In exploring the relationship between supervision style and

supervisee satisfaction, Cherniss and Equatios found that insight-oriented, feelings-oriented, and didactic-consultative supervision were positively correlated with satisfaction and that there was no correlation between authoritative supervision and satisfaction.

In summary, it has been found that beginning-level practicum students were more satisfied with supervision when their supervisors were didactic within a supportive relationship (Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). Also, the more supervisors were perceived as responding with facilitative conditions and as being attractive and trustworthy, the more satisfied supervisees were with supervision (Heppner & Handley, 1981). Finally, it has been found that insight-oriented, feelings-oriented, and didactic-consultative supervision styles were positively related to community mental health workers' satisfaction with supervision (Cherniss & Equatios, 1977). Examining variables that contribute to supervisees' satisfaction with supervision provides valuable information for practicing supervisors. Additional information needs to gathered, however, to determine what variables contribute to ethnic-minority supervisees' satisfaction with supervision.

Friedlander and Ward (1984) conducted a series of studies to develop and validate an inventory to assess supervisory style. The *Supervisory Styles Inventory* (SSI) revealed three supervisory styles: (1) a collegial style, where supervisors were warm, supportive, friendly, open, and flexible; (2) a relational style, in which supervisors were invested, committed, therapeutic, and perceptive in supervision; and (3) a structured style, where supervisors emphasized the content and supervisees' engagement in supervision. Their research results suggested that the supervisory style made no difference in supervisees' engagement in supervision. One explanation for this, according to the researchers, is that although supervisors might use one

predominant supervisory style, their styles are often multidimensional. For instance, qualities associated with the collegial style might present across all three supervisory styles.

Negative Styles of Supervision

Although characteristics of disliked supervisors are reported, these results are not directly connected to whether supervisees engaged in learning from their supervisors. Supervisees who were disappointed with counseling supervision described their supervisors as biased, rigid, domineering, defensive, closed, critical, and resisting supervisory input. They were frustrated when supervisors offered no guidance and became self-protective, or if supervisors were critical, cold, aloof, and hostile. Cherniss and Equatios (1977) found similar results in that clinicians' least preferred supervisory style was authoritarian, allowing the supervisee little autonomy. Clinicians were also frustrated with a laissez-faire supervisory style, which meant leaving the supervisee alone and rarely being available for consultation. Rosenblatt and Mayer's (1965) study revealed that supervisees were most distressed when supervisors classified supervisees as immature or dependent. Supervisees were strongly influenced by these labels and severely doubted their ability to rectify these personality deficits and become effective therapists.

Supervisees reported that the impact of these objectionable supervisory styles impeded their ability to learn. According to Rosenblatt and Mayer (1965), supervisees were not presenting difficulties that they were having counseling clients; rather, they were conveying superficial attitudes of compliance and cooperation in supervision. Students monitored clinical material, presenting cases to supervisors in

which clients were responding well to psychotherapy in order to avoid close scrutiny, domination, or criticism.

In a study by Hutt et al. (1983), supervisees characterized a negative supervisory relationship as evoking "intense negative feelings in the supervisee while it failed to satisfy important professional needs" (p. 121). Supervisees involved in negative relationships experienced anxiety, anger, and frustration with the supervisor. These relationships were reported to be burdened with disrespect, mistrust, and a lack of honest self-disclosure. Supervisees expected criticism from these supervisors. Supervisees, in reaction, protected themselves by not revealing problems, conflicts, or negative feelings to the supervisor. Thus, the task of supervision shifted from a focus on therapist-client interactions to avoiding presenting problematic material. Supervisees felt powerless as the relationship continued. They attempted to minimize threats to self, to control their negative feelings, and to learn when it was possible (Hutt et al., 1983). Supervisees became resistant to the supervisor's authority because they believe that the supervisor was insensitive and inept. Supervisees who wanted to improve the quality of the relationship attempted to express some of their reactions to the supervisors. Conflicts remained unresolved in those cases where the supervisor's defensiveness discouraged further dialogue (Hutt et al., 1983).

Similarly, Moskowitz and Rupert (1983) surveyed 158 clinical psychology graduate students who described three areas of conflict in supervision: theoretical orientation, supervisory style, and personality clashes. Their research indicated that the easiest conflicts to resolve were differences in theoretical orientation or style and the hardest were trainees' and supervisors' personality issues. An example of personal issues interfering with supervision was a supervisor using supervision to focus on his or her own needs and frustrations. Approximately one third of the

students surveyed reported an interpersonal conflict that "made it difficult to learn from supervision" (Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983, p. 635). It was also reported that supervisors who demanded conformity and punished divergence from the "party line" jeopardized their supervisory relationship (Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983).

In spite of the fact supervisees were uncomfortable addressing relational difficulties, they desired conflict resolution and 76% initiated a discussion of the problem (Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983). Unfortunately, a workable or excellent relationship following discussion resulted in less than 40% of the cases. Supervisees felt that discussions were not helpful for the following reasons: (a) supervisors did not change their behavior or views the way students wished, (b) supervisors felt it was the supervisee's personal problem, or (c) the supervisor acted as though the supervisee was wrong. When conflicts were unresolved, supervisees sought support from others, censored the sensitive material in their progress notes, concealed difficulties during supervision, and appeared to comply with their supervisors' suggestions.

Galante (1987) surveyed of 625 supervisee respondents' perception of effective and ineffective supervision; 295 (47.2%) indicated that they had been in supervision where "their ability to learn was impaired" (p. 30). Supervisees viewed ineffective supervision as characterized by more focus on supervisees' counseling skill deficiencies; a more directive style of supervision and less learning of specific counseling interventions, case conceptualizations, and general therapy techniques; and less work on developing supervisees' own therapy style.

Other sources of conflict that affect supervisees' satisfaction with supervision are role ambiguity and role conflict (Friedlander, Keller, Peca-Baker, & Olk, 1986; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). Role ambiguity is generated by uncertainty regarding

supervisors' expectations, by lack of knowledge about how to meet these expectations, and by the criteria used in evaluation process. Practicum students reported higher levels of role ambiguity were associated with dissatisfaction with supervision. This finding supported Bordin's (1983) model of supervision, which suggests that when supervisory goals are mutually clarified and agreed upon, a solid working alliance is formed, which should, in turn, lead to greater satisfaction with supervision.

Role conflict can occur when supervisees struggle to balance the roles of student, counselor, and colleague. In the student role, supervisees are expected to follow the directive of their supervisors, and as counselors they are to demonstrate capacity for autonomous decision-making. When students pursue a direction in counseling that contradicts their supervisor's suggestions, they may experience role conflict. Olk and Friedlander (1992) discovered that postdoctoral students faced more role conflict than practicum students, resulting in higher levels of dissatisfaction with supervision. Inexperienced practicum students encountered little role conflict, because they tended to mistrust their own judgments and therefore more easily accepted their supervisors' opinions (Friedlander et al., 1986).

Summary

Supervisees' preferences or dislikes for supervisor characteristics was reported in the literature (Allen et al., 1986; Gandolfo & Brown, 1987; Kennard et al., 1987; Nelson, 1978). Supervisees preferred supervisors who were nonthreatening, tactful, nonauthoritarian, flexible, self-disclosing, permissive, perceptive, supportive, sensitive, reassuring, understanding, and accepting (Galante, 1987; Hutt et al., 1983; Kennard et al., 1987; Nelson, 1978). Supervisees satisfied

with supervision rated supervisors high on expertise, trustworthiness, and interpersonal attractiveness (Allen et al., 1986; Heppner & Handley, 1981, 1982).

It is not surprising to find that supervisees disliked supervisors whom they perceived as biased, rigid, domineering, defensive, closed, critical, and unsupportive (Holloway & Wampold, 1983; Hutt et al., 1983). Research in supervision has only begun to inform supervisors about characteristics desirable and nondesirable to supervisees.

The relational styles of supervisors that facilitate a positive, satisfying, and effective supervision, and the supervisory styles that interfere with supervision are reflected in the research. Supervisory relational styles that supervisees preferred in supervision which enhanced the supervisory relationships and thus learning were described (Cherniss & Equatios, 1977; Friedlander & Ward, 1984; Hutt et al., 1983; Rabinowitz, Heppner, & Roehlke, 1986; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). Acceptance, openness, personal attention, respect, trust, rapport, support, and warmth characterized positive and satisfying supervision for supervisees (Friedlander & Ward, 1984; Hutt et al., 1983; Rabinowitz et al., 1986; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). However, supervisees described negative supervisory relationships as disrespectful, mistrusting, and lacking honest self-disclosure (Hutt et al., 1983). The result is that supervisees' learning about the counseling process from their supervisors is impeded and they disengage from the supervisory relationship (Hutt et al., 1983; Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983; Rosenblatt & Mayer, 1965).

Although supervisees desired a positive, supportive relationship, they also wanted supervisors to provide some structure with supervisory goals and content, to advise, to interpret, and to make suggestions regarding client dynamics and counseling techniques (Cherniss & Equatios, 1977; Friedlander & Ward, 1984;

Galante, 1987). Supervisees wanted guidance, but they resented being overly monitored or given no autonomy to make their decisions regarding case management of their clients (Rosenblatt & Mayer, 1965). There needs to be a balance.

To date, the research provides only a broad understanding of the components that supervisees view as important or detrimental to supervision. Knowledge about specific characteristics that encourage the supervisees' receptivity to supervisors' input and enhance the supervisees' willingness to learn remains to be discovered.

Supervisees' Impact on Supervision

Supervisees' defenses, interest in supervision, and personal qualities can also affect supervision (Galante, 1987; Hutt et al., 1983; Kennard et al., 1987). Gutheil (1977) and Mueller and Kell (1972) found that supervisees impeded their own learning process when they resisted supervisors' feedback or took a defensive posture. Supervisees' resistance to supervision was a difficulty cited by inexperienced supervisors (McColley & Baker, 1982). McColley and Baker found that about one fifth of the beginning supervisors, with 2 years or less experience, reported trainees' resistance to learning as problematic.

Gutheil's (1977) experience as a supervisor led him to observe that psychiatric interns' resistance often stemmed from professional insecurity, which, in turn, interfered with their learning. Interns clung to a theoretical orientation, bypassing the process of further exploration and experimentation in the counseling relationship, in order to cope with their feelings of inadequacy regarding their counseling skills.

Another common defense used by psychiatric interns was distancing themselves from patients (Gutheil, 1977). Interns avoided experiencing the patient as

a person with emotional turmoil. Instead they adopted a strictly behavioral or medical perspective. Supervisors who challenged this comfortable posture risked supervisees perhaps becoming more defended and rigid.

A supervisee's level of interest in the supervisor's feedback was also found to determine the quality of supervision. When supervisors perceived supervisees' interest in supervisors' suggestions and feedback, supervisees reported a positive supervisory experience (Kennard et al., 1987). This finding indicates that a relationship where supervisees are open to learning from the supervisor may lead to more positive outcomes. It is unclear whether supervisees were receptive to learning before supervision, or whether they became receptive to supervisors because of the support they received, or both, due to the retrospective methodology (Kennard et al., 1987).

Regardless, supervisees' responsiveness to supervision is said to be fundamental to learning (Mueller & Kell, 1972). In the qualitative study by Hutt et al. (1983), supervisees recognized the mutuality of the supervisory relationship. When acceptance, trust, respect, understanding, and warmth were demonstrated by supervisors, these qualities were often reciprocated by the supervisees. "The quality of the supervisory relationship encouraged supervisees to disclose actions, attitudes, feelings, and conflicts which occurred in their professional work" (p. 120). It seems that the exchange of personal feelings and experiences by both supervisors and supervisees contributed to the supervisory relationship becoming more collaborative. In each relationship, the exploration of clients' dynamics was a mutual process, although, at times, the supervisees' needs and concerns were the primary focus (Hutt et al., 1983).

Insufficient research exists that specifically addresses supervisees' characteristics which contribute to positive, productive supervision. In the 1960s and 1970s, psychologists attempted to determine those personality characteristics that differentiated between effectiveness and ineffectiveness in counseling trainees. This research was described as generally contradictory and unproductive by Whitely (1969).

The only exception is the work of Tinsley and Tinsley (1977). They found that certain personality variables contributed to the supervisors' perceptions of differences in students' current level of functioning and effectiveness as counselors by using the *Omnibus Personality Inventory*. Supervisors perceived effective supervisees as more introspective, philosophical, questioning, imaginative, and appreciative of esthetics. They were viewed as more independent, tolerant of others' viewpoints, and less judgmental. Furthermore, these supervisees valued feelings and expressed them. These counselor qualities impressed the supervisors, despite the fact that this study did not indicate whether these characteristics directly contributed to positive outcomes in supervision.

Stillman (1980) explored supervisees' qualities that directly correlated with their responsiveness to supervision, rather than examining qualities of effective counselors. He measured supervisees' empathy, respect, and genuineness towards clients before practicum and discovered that empathy and respect towards clients is associated with receptiveness to supervision, flexibility in counseling, and overall competence.

Even though supervisees' levels of resistance, defensiveness, empathy, and respect impact their receptivity to supervision, the focus of this study remains on the differences between minority and majority supervisees' perceptions of supervisor

characteristics that facilitate supervisee learning. Hence, the question continues: What supervisor qualities facilitate supervisee willingness to learn and receptivity to supervisor input? The person-centered supervision theory of Rogers suggests a possible explanation.

Person-Centered Supervision

Training Psychotherapists

Supervision was a central and long-standing concern of Carl Rogers and has been for those who have identified with the client-centered model. Rogers (1957) theorized about the necessary and sufficient conditions for personality change, growth, and learning. These conditions emphasized being congruent, exhibiting acceptance, and demonstrating empathetic understanding while relating to others (Rogers, 1957). If these conditions, exist then personal growth will occur in any relationship (Rogers, 1957, 1961). He applied these principles to counseling, education, and the training of psychotherapists (Rogers, 1951, 1956, 1961). It is clear from Rogers' world that his counseling theory influenced his supervision in a relatively direct way.

All individuals have the capacity to be self-determining, self-directing, and self-actualizing (Rogers, 1961). He theorized that if supervisees could be in charge of their education, they would reach their potential. In his view, the amount learned depends on whether supervisees experience an accepting, congruent relationship with their teachers, are given access to a number of educational resources, and are exposed to real-life problems (Rogers, 1961).

Yet, Rogers (1957, 1961) recognized that merely encouraging clients and supervisees to be self-directing was not sufficient. He believed that experiential learning needed to be facilitated, not communicated, for supervisees to learn effective counseling skills.

Supervisors who were congruent, accepting, and empathetic displayed the Rogerian approach to supervision. These qualities provided a supportive relationship that enabled supervisees to clarify their theoretical orientation and develop their counseling skills (Rogers, 1951, 1956). Rogers (1956, 1961) considered the clarification of students' attitudes and philosophies regarding therapeutic change as the first step in learning psychotherapy. According to Rogers (1956, 1961), once supervisees understand their underlying assumptions, they begin to examine their attitudes and behaviors in their counseling sessions. Consequently, trainees develop their orientation to psychotherapy out of the experiences they gain through counseling others. Supervisees learn to differentiate between effective and ineffective responses and attitudes in supervision. Learning how to conduct therapy results from a continuous formulating and revising of ones' counseling approaches (Rogers, 1956).

Supervisors who create a safe, secure, accepting environment for the supervisees not only encourage exploration of the counselor role, but also model the attitudes necessary for client change (Rogers, 1961). Beginning counselors can learn about the importance of facilitative qualities (congruence, acceptance, empathetic understanding, respect) through experiencing them in their supervisory relationship. Thus, Rogers placed a major portion of responsibility for the trainees' development on supervisors, who must provide the necessary facilitative conditions for the supervisees' learning.

Research Supporting Person-Centered Supervision

The Person-Centered Model of Supervision, which is supported by research findings, focuses on two main areas: (1) satisfying and effective supervision, and (2) supervisor's modeling. Golden (1987) used the *Barrett-Lennard Relational Inventory* (BLRI) developed by Barrett-Lennard to measure the modified Rogerian facilitative qualities: congruence, level of regard, and willingness to be known. The results from her study indicated that when both supervisor and supervisees experienced regard, empathy, and congruence in their relationship, they reported satisfaction with supervision. In a supporting study, clinical and counseling psychologists rated their most effective supervisors high on these same qualities plus two others: unconditionality and willingness to be known (Schacht, Howe, & Berman, 1989).

Rogers (1951, 1957) theorized that supervisees experiencing empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard in supervision would exhibit more of these qualities with their clients. However, because some of the earlier research was of questionable quality, results were contradictory (Payne & Gralinski, 1968; Ronnestad, 1977).

Numerous studies compared two forms of supervision, didactic and experiential, to assess their effectiveness in teaching empathy (Goldfarb, 1978; Karr & Geist, 1977; Payne & Gralinski, 1968, 1969; Payne, Weiss, & Kapp, 1972; Ronnestad, 1977). The didactic or technique style of supervision was characterized by supervisors providing direct feedback or specific examples of appropriate responses. In experiential- or counseling-style supervision, the supervisor attempted to establish an empathetic relationship with supervisees by focusing on their feelings

or reactions to clients. It was found that didactic supervision was more effective in raising the supervisee's level of empathy towards clients (Payne & Gralinski, 1968, 1969; Payne et al., 1972; Ronnestad, 1977). Nevertheless, the methodological designs must be scrutinized before generalizing these findings to supervision. There were some serious methodological flaws in the studies cited above. First, supervision was simulated following enacted counseling interviews (Payne & Gralinski, 1968; 1969; Payne et al., 1972; Ronnestad, 1977). Payne and his co-authors recruited male undergraduates to act as counselors, although they had never received any training to provide counseling. Ronnestad (1977) did improve his research design over Payne et al.'s by using graduate students enrolled in a masters' counseling program. But in both studies, supervisors were inexperienced graduated students from clinical and counseling psychology programs. Whether the results of this analogue study can be generalized to actual supervision relationship is debatable. Ronnestad (1977) stated that "caution should be exercised in generalizing from these results to actual supervision programs" (p. 199). Additionally, Payne et al. (1972) concluded, "it should be noted that the training period was brief and that brevity may be a greater disadvantage for the experiential method" (p. 428).

Another analogue study by Norman Goldfarb (1978) produced different results from Payne and Gralinski's (1968, 1969), Payne et al.'s (1972) and Ronnestad's (1977). He found that when supervisors communicated empathy, genuineness, and understanding to trainees and encouraged them to explore their feelings as well as the feelings of their clients, clients rated supervisees more effective and empathetic. Also, increased competency was found when supervisors gave counselors examples of effective empathetic responses. These results suggest that supervisees' improvement in therapeutic skills and effectiveness may depend on

supervisors' ability to establish a positive relationship with the supervisee and then to teach specific skills (Goldfarb, 1978). Nonetheless, doubt exists as to generalizability of these findings, since the more typical supervisory conditions were not replicated in this study.

Carkhuff (1971) confirmed Goldfarb's (1978) results in an earlier review of research. He concluded that training programs emphasizing modeling and systematic teaching of interpersonal skills (empathy, respect, genuineness, self-disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy) produce the greatest increases in supervisees' helping role and skill development (Carkhuff, 1971).

In training, the most critical factor was not found to be the training programs themselves, but the supervisors' level of facilitative functioning (Carkhuff, 1971; Pierce & Schauble, 1970). In Carkhuff's (1971) review of 16 studies, supervisees' improvement in their counseling skills depended on the supervisors' mastery of therapeutic skills. Pierce and Schauble (1970) reported similar results. Supervisees supervised by supervisors who demonstrated empathy, respect, genuineness, concreteness, self-disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy were able to exhibit higher levels of these qualities with their clients. Unfortunately, supervisees with supervisors who themselves performed these skills at only minimal levels either deteriorated or displayed little change in their skills (Carkhuff, 1971; Pierce & Schauble, 1970).

Counseling supervisees' early skill development appears to have lasting effects. In a follow-up study 9 months later with continuous counseling experience, Pierce and Schauble (1970) discovered that highly functioning supervisees were able to maintain their counseling skills. Less skilled supervisees showed little skill improvement; however, they did increase in their ability to be concrete.

The idea that supervisors' level of empathy influenced supervisees was challenged by Wedeking and Scott (1976) and Karr and Geist (1977). The findings of these studies revealed that there was no relationship between supervisors' empathy level in supervision and supervisees' empathy level in therapy. Instead, the work of Karr and Geist showed a relationship between the level of the supervisors' genuineness, respect, and concreteness and the degree to which supervisees exhibit these same qualities in therapy. At the end of the study, supervisees improved overall in their empathy, genuineness, concreteness, and respect (Karr & Geist, 1977), which suggests that the "acquisition of empathy may also be related to experiences outside of university supervision, such as agency supervisors" (p. 266).

The reason for the lack of relationship between supervisee and supervisor empathy level in the two studies above may be partially explained by Lambert (1974). He compared the levels of facilitative qualities supervisors used in supervision with those used in counseling. Results indicated that supervisors exhibited the same levels of genuineness and regard during supervision as they did in counseling, but they demonstrated lower levels of empathy and concreteness in supervision. Consequently, supervisees may be less affected by supervisors' empathy because supervisors' empathy was only minimally present in supervision.

<center>Multicultural Issues Within Supervision</center>

<u>Race</u>

Although the multicultural supervision literature has begun to discuss the cultural differences within supervisor–supervisee dyads, race continues to be perhaps the most dramatic cultural marker in this society (Brown & Landrum-Brown, 1995;

Kaiser, 1997; Leong & Wagner, 1994; McRoy et al., 1986). Bradshaw (1982)

addressed the implications of race in the supervisory relationship, asserting that race

is a highly charged catalyst in our society, one that is bound to emerge, even if not

addressed, in supervision. Helms and Piper (1994) magnified this assumption when

they claimed that racial identity has evolved to occupy the greatest percentage of self-

concept.

Therefore, it is essential for supervisors to be even more competent when

working with supervisees of different races, not only because some racial groups

continue to struggle in this society, but because their cultural awareness is rich in its

own right. Awareness becomes salient only as supervisors become aware of the

power of their own cultural assumptions that influence their thinking and their

interactions with others.

As Williams (1991) pointed out, discussions of multicultural issues such as

race, age, and experience within supervision are beneficial to supervisees. Dialogue

communicates mutual respect, understanding, and the opportunity to explore how

cultural differences can impact therapy and supervision (Kaiser, 1997).

Level of Experience

The majority of empirical studies has suggested that supervisees have

different abilities based on the amount of supervised experience they have accrued

(Borders, 1990; Mallinckrodt & Nelson, 1991; McNeill, Stoltenberg, & Pierce, 1985;

McNeill, Stoltenberg, & Romans, 1992, Olk & Friedlander, 1992; Swanson &

O'Saben, 1993). Many researchers have examined the relationship between amount

of training and supervisor behavior. Borders (1990) found significant change in

beginning level practicum supervisee self-reports for self-awareness, dependency-

autonomy, and theory-skills acquisition over one semester. Similarly, McNeill, Stoltenberg, and Pierce (1985) also obtained results when they compared beginning trainees to intermediate trainees to intermediate trainees. McNeill, Stoltenberg, and Romans (1992) offered validation for the Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) Integrated Developmental Model (IDM) and revised the Supervisee Level Questionnaire to reflect the three overriding structures espoused by IDM as central to counselor development.

Some studies comparing beginner and experienced therapists have reported inconsistent reports. In another study by Cummings, Hallberg, Martin, Slemon, and Hiebert (1990) and Martin, Slemon, Hiebert, Hallberg, and Cummings (1989), results suggested that experienced counselors were more efficient in their conceptualization, employing well established cognitive schemata to conceptualize clients, while beginning therapists seemed to require much more specific information about the clients to conceptualize the problem; they were more random in their information seeking, and their ultimate conceptualizations were less sophisticated. Hillerbrand and Claiborn's (1990) conclusions were quite different. They found no differences in cognitive processes used by experienced and beginner therapists when asked to diagnose client cases of different complexity. Their results suggested that more experienced therapists had greater confidence and clarity in presenting cases.

Age

Age has been used by many theorists as a general marker of development. However, no models of development for supervisees address the relative contributions of heredity and environment. Instead, most suggest, either implicitly or explicitly, that both maturation and learning interact to produce effective therapists.

This maturation process appears to be independent of age considerations, which constitutes a major departure from traditional models of development. Generally, most supervisees are in their mid 20s or beyond before entering graduate counseling psychology programs, thus reducing the importance of age as a measure of development. Therefore, age is not mentioned as a key aspect of development for supervisees.

Indeed, the supervisee's level of experience has been one of the more widely researched areas of development. Given that many empirical studies have found that the developmental status of the supervisee may be determined by level of experience and other variables such as age, none to date, however, have focused on differences between minority and majority supervisees in counseling psychology programs. Hence, the question remains: Are there differences between minority and majority supervisees' perception of supervision, even when all things, such as age and level of experience, are equal?

<center>Summary</center>

As indicated in this review of research, there is support for Rogers' approach to supervision. Supervisors who build rapport with their supervisees and model facilitative qualities tend to be successful in teaching these skills to supervisees (Carkhuff, 1971; Goldfarb, 1978; Karr & Geist, 1977; Pierce & Schauble, 1970, 1971). Using a Rogerian approach resulted in supervisees being more satisfied with supervision and considering it to be more effective (Golden, 1987; Schacht et al., 1989). As a result, given the positive, empirical support of Rogers' approach to supervision, his supervisory method forms the theoretical base for this study.

However, there are gaps in the existing research because it has sparely focused on multicultural issues within the supervisory dyads like race, age, and experience. Although supervisors' modeling of facilitative qualities has been examined, it is still unclear whether these characteristics in the supervisory relationship facilitate supervisees' willingness to learn and receptivity to supervisor impact in supervision. Hence, this study measures the supervisors' characteristics of empathy, congruence, level of regard, unconditionality of regard, and willingness to be known from the perspective of the supervisee.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this section the research design, recruitment, and data collection techniques for the current study, which examines graduate doctoral students' perceptions of supervisory characteristics and supervisory impact on students' willingness to learn and receptivity will be presented. Also included is a discussion of the validity and reliability of the Revised Relational Inventory (RRI) (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Schacht, Howe, & Berman, 1988) and the Supervision Perception Form–Trainee (SPF-T) (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984) used in the study. Moreover, a brief description of methods chosen for statistical analysis is presented.

Research Design

This survey with statistical analysis was approved by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at Western Michigan University (see Appendix A). Perceptual differences among graduate students regarding relational qualities of supervisors and their willingness to learn and receptivity to supervisor input was explored. Supervisors' relational characteristics measured by the RRI were empathetic understanding, congruence, regard, unconditionality of regard, and willingness to be known. The perspectives of advanced graduate students were surveyed to determine the presence of these qualities.

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Participants

Participants in this study were advanced doctoral students who were enrolled in APA-approved counseling psychology programs in the United States. According to the *American Psychologist* (1997), there are 69 APA-approved counseling psychology programs (see Appendix B).

Procedures

Data were collected during the beginning of the fall semester of 1998, which allowed students ample time to reflect on their previous experiences before the semester requirements became too demanding. To recruit subjects for the study, the investigator elicited the help of training directors at APA-approved counseling psychology programs in the United States. Between the fifth and sixth week of the fall semester 1998, research packets were mailed to 35 randomly selected training directors.

These 35 APA-approved counseling psychology programs were drawn randomly from a hat and consecutively assigned to the six regions of the United States until filled. Once each region was filled, any duplicated draws were disregarded. Stratified randomization was done to ensure that all regions within the United States had an equal chance of representation.

The U.S. was divided into six regions: Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, South, Southwest, and Northwest. In each region, there were at least five schools purposively selected. Training directors at each of the purposively selected schools were sent 10 research packets (see Appendix C) to distribute to advanced graduate students. Because of the larger number of APA-approved counseling psychology

programs in the Midwest, these regions were provided with an additional 10 research packets, or a total of 20 research packets. Every research packet had an identification number to permit accurate follow-up of unreturned research packets, but participants' names were not linked in any way with the data on the surveys.

The research packets were mailed at the beginning of the fall semester. A letter accompanied this packet (see Appendix D) that explained the purpose of the research and requested that the training directors place a research packet in the boxes of students who were advanced doctoral students. Additional instructions asked the training directors to give surveys to at least five students who identified themselves as racial/ethnic minorities and the remaining to nonethnical or racial minorities. Approximately 3 weeks later, a reminder postcard (see Appendix E) was mailed to nonresponders.

Each research packet contained a letter to students outlining the purpose and benefit of the research and confidentiality. Also included in this letter was an informed consent statement; a request for participation; the survey, which included the two instruments—the RRI and the SPF-T; a demographic information section; and a prepaid addressed return envelope. Demographic information requested the following: ethnicity of supervisor, the number of different practicum supervisors, the number of ethnic-minority practicum supervisors, the number of practicum supervisors with same ethnic background as supervisees, racial identity of student, citizenship, age range, gender, year in graduate school, months of practicum, perception of how supervisors would rate their performance, percentage of ethnic minorities enrolled in their training program, supervisors' theoretical orientation, students' theoretical orientation, and supervision course offered. This demographic information was based on a study similar to the present study (Golden, 1987).

Protection for Participants/Confidentiality of Data

To increase the comfort level of students in responding honestly to questions, participants were asked not to put their names on the research packets that were coded. In addition, confidentiality was emphasized and the researcher informed respondents of the procedure for protecting privacy. No names appeared on any item on which information was recorded. Questionnaires were coded, and a master list was kept by the researcher that contained the names of schools with corresponding code numbers. Once the data were collected and analyzed, the master list was destroyed. All other material will remained locked up for 5 years and then destroyed.

Operational Definitions

The supervisors' relational qualities that were measured were empathetic understanding, regard, unconditionality, congruence, and willingness to be known. All these qualities except "willingness to be known" were facilitative characteristics that Rogers (1957) listed as the necessary conditions for a learning environment. Schacht et al. (1988) modified the Barrett-Lennard Relational Inventory (BLRI) to measure these qualities in the supervisory relationship and renamed the BLRI the Revised Relational Inventory (RRI). The RRI maintained BLRI definitions of the relational characteristics that were similar to Rogers' definitions. Barrett-Lennard's definition of *empathetic understanding* corresponds to Rogers' definition of *empathy,* and his definition of *congruence* is similar to Rogers' (1957). However, instead of defining and measuring *unconditional positive regard,* Barrett-Lennard conceptualized the separate components of *regard* and *unconditionality.* In addition,

Barrett-Lennard introduced the fifth variable, *willingness to be known*. The five relational qualities from the BLRI used in the RRI are defined below:

1. *Empathetic understanding*. The term is "conceived as the extent to which one person is conscious of the immediate awareness of another" (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, p. 3). It is the active process of one person desiring to know fully the process and content of another's awareness and communication. It is attempting to understand the deeper meaning and implications behind what is communicated outwardly (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

2. *Regard*. Regard is the affective reaction of one person towards another. Level of regard lies on a continuum from positive (high) to negative (low) feelings. Feelings of high regard include the positive feelings of respect, liking, appreciation, and affection, while feelings of low regard consist of negative feelings such as dislike, impatience, and contempt (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

3. *Unconditionality of regard*. Whereas regard is the range of feelings that one has towards another, unconditionality is the degree of constancy of these feelings. Unconditionality of regard results when individuals maintain their feelings towards another despite changes in the other's moods, attitudes, or experiences (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

4. *Congruence*. The term *congruence* is the degree to which one person is fully integrated while relating to another. Congruent individuals are consistent in their awareness, experience, and overt communication. They communicate honestly and directly without sending inconsistent messages or conveying hidden agendas (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

5. *Willingness to be known*. This term is defined as one person's willingness to reveal oneself to another. The degree of one's self-disclosure is guided by the

other's receptivity to experience and to know one as a person. To be known as a person involves an exchange and a sharing of experiences, perceptions, and feelings regarding self, other, and the relational interaction.

Instruments

The two instruments used in the present study include the Barrett-Lennard Revised Relational Inventory (Schacht et al., 1988) and the Supervision Perception Form–Trainee (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984). Additionally, a Personal Data Information Form was designed to provide descriptive information, such as the participant's graduate class level, gender, race, age, and race of the supervisor being described. This instrument also provided pertinent information regarding the participant's doctoral training program.

First, the Barrett-Lennard Relational Inventory (BLRI) is discussed below. Schacht et al. (1989) modified the BLRI only slightly to develop the RRI, which was used in this study. Changes to the BLRI are detailed, and the RRI is described, including its use as a self-rating instrument and its reliability and validity. Lastly, the SPF's development, reliability, and validity are addressed.

The Barrett-Lennard Relational Inventory

The BLRI consists of five subscales measuring regard, unconditionality of regard, empathetic understanding, congruence, and willingness to be known. Initially, Barrett-Lennard developed this inventory to measure the presence of Rogerian facilitative qualities in the counseling relationship. He designed it to be completed by both clients and therapists. Based on Rogerian theory, Barrett-Lennard (1962) believed that clients' experience of these facilitative qualities influenced their ability

to change therapeutically. Clients' perception of these counselor characteristics resulted not only from therapists' demonstration of these attributes in counseling, but from the interaction of clients' personalities with therapists' styles. Thus, two parallel forms of the BLRI measured therapists' relational qualities from clients' and therapists' perspectives. For example, Item 1 in the BLRI which reads, "He respects me" is answered by the client about the therapist. In the therapist's version, the first and third pronouns are reversed, so Item 1 becomes "I respected him."

Barrett-Lennard's development of the BLRI included establishing split-half and test-retest reliabilities, and content and construct validities (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). Using a sample of 42 counseling center clients seeing 21 different therapists, Barrett-Lennard found satisfactory split-half reliabilities for all subscales: level of regard, .93; empathetic understanding, .86; congruence, .89; unconditionality, .82; and willingness to be known, .82. Test-retest reliabilities using 36 college students taking a general introductory psychology course over a 4-week period were also obtained: level of regard, .84; empathetic understanding, .89; congruence, .86; unconditionality, .90; willingness to be known, .78; and total score, .95 (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

When developing the inventory, Barrett-Lennard (1962) worked to establish content validity by asking five judges, client-centered counselors with varying levels of experience, to classify each item as either a "positive or a negative indicator of the variable in question, and give a neutral rating to any item they regarded as irrelevant or ambiguous" (p. 6). Judges also rated each positive item on a scale from 1 to 5 and each negative item on a scale from −1 to −5 in terms of their importance as positive or negative indicators of the variable. Based on the judges' evaluations, seven items were eliminated.

Construct validity of the BLRI was sought by Barrett-Lennard (1962) through intercorrelations of the five subscales and correlations of subscales and total scores with other indices of therapeutic change. To discover whether the five subscales measured distinctive constructs, the BLRI was given to the sample of 42 clients and their therapists, who both rated the therapy relationship after five counseling sessions. Product–moment correlations of the five subscales were performed on the client data and then the therapist data. Intercorrelations of the client scores showed that the five variables correlated with varying degrees to the total score. Congruence correlated the highest with the total score, .92, and unconditionality correlated the lowest with the total score at .53. The intercorrelations between the five scales varied considerably, ranging from .04 correlation between willingness to learn and unconditionality, to .85 correlation between empathetic understanding and congruence (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). The client scores showed unconditionality to be the most independent of the measures. Although theoretically empathetic understanding and congruence are operationally separate and distinct, here empirically they are indistinguishable. Barrett-Lennard explains this strong relationship by stating that for a person to empathically receive and understand another's communication, it is necessary for that person to be congruent or integrated. Barrett-Lennard stated, "Clearly the scales are measuring different things—with the possible exception of empathetic understanding and congruence—and are not, for example, merely reflecting the client's general satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the relationship" (p. 13). Barrett-Lennard maintained that the five variables were related, but distinct.

Barrett-Lennard's (1962) further attempts to establish construct validity resulted in his administering the inventory to the same 42 clients along with some

other indices that measured therapeutic change. He wanted to correlate these measures with his relational inventory to establish construct validity. Barrett-Lennard (1962) hypothesized that since the five variables of the BLRI were theorized to measure therapeutic change, correlation with other measures of therapeutic change or adjustment would indicate the construct validity of this inventory. Barrett-Lennard's results showed that clients who reported the most therapeutic change also rated the relationship with their therapist high in level of regard, empathetic understanding, congruence, unconditionality, and willingness to be known (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). This finding offered some substantiation for the BLRI's construct validity.

In a review of counseling rating scales, Ponterotto and Furlong (1985) cited two studies which support the predictive validity of the BLRI. Kurtz and Grummon (1972) found client-perceived empathy (only the empathy scale was used) to be correlated with various measures of psychotherapy outcome. Gross and DeRidder (1966) also discovered that clients experiencing therapists' empathy, regard, unconditionality, congruence, and willingness to be known made greater gains in counseling (Ponterotto & Furlong, 1985, p. 607). Although more validity data on the BLRI are needed, a major strength of the BLRI is its widespread use for clinical settings. According to Ponterotto and Furlong (1985), the BLRI was cited in 45 published studies between 1974 and 1984.

Revised Relational Inventory

The BLRI has also been used to assess supervisors' relational qualities in the supervisory relationship (Golden, 1987; Handley, 1982; Schacht et al., 1989). Instead of using the BLRI, Schacht et al. (1988) modified the BLRI to use with supervisory pairs. One modification was a small change in the wording of the items, using an M

to signify the supervisor who had contributed the most to professionals therapeutic effectiveness and an *L* to signify the supervisor who had contributed the least. In the RRI, the original wording of the BLRI items was used since the researcher was not investigating supervisors who contributed most and least to the therapeutic effectiveness of supervisees. The only alteration made was inserting feminine pronouns, since two of the supervisors were female. Another revision that Schacht et al. (1989) made to the BLRI was reducing the items from 92 to 40, while maintaining the integrity of the five subscales: (1) Regard, (2) Unconditionality, (3) Empathetic Understanding, (4) Congruence, and (5) Willingness to be Known. This is substantiated by the reliability and validity of the RRI.

The reliability (Cronbach alpha coefficients of internal consistency) of the RRI is .92 for the subscales and total score, which is comparable to other modified versions of the BLRI (Schacht et al., 1989). Reliabilities of two other revised BLRIs are .95 (Dalton, 1983) and .93 (Wiebe & Pearce, 1973). The subscales continued to be moderately correlated, ranging from .17–.58, which indicates the ability of the instrument to measure different constructs. These findings are consistent with Barrett-Lennard's theory regarding the relationship of the variables.

Schacht et al. (1988) addressed the construct validity of the shortened BLRI by performing a factor analysis on the five subscales. Congruence loaded most heavily on this factor (.85–.87). This is consistent with Barrett-Lennard's theory that Congruence is the precondition and limiting variable for the other facilitative conditions. The second highest loading was on the Empathetic Understanding scale, followed by Regard, Unconditionality, and Willingness to be Known. "These findings are consistent with other research finding one principle factor on which regard, empathy, and congruence load most heavily" (Schacht et al., 1988, p. 704).

Since the RRI is a shortened version of the BLRI, the scoring is parallel. Depending on the wording of each item, scoring occurs in either a positive or negative direction. Responses are in six gradations: (1) I strongly feel it is not true; (2) I feel it is not true; (3) I feel it is probably untrue; more untrue than true; (4) I feel it is probably true; more true than untrue; (5) I feel it is true; and (6) I strongly feel it is true. Items within each subscale were worded in both positive or negative directions and recoded so that high scores correspond to high levels of facilitative conditions (Schacht et al., 1988). The highest possible score for Empathetic Understanding, Regard, and Congruence is 60, since there are 10 items for each subscale; and the highest score for Willingness to be Known and Unconditionality is 30, since there are 5 items for each of these subscales.

In this study, the Schacht et al. (1988) shortened version of the BLRI was used to assess the facilitative qualities of the supervisor from the students' perspective. Graduate students were asked to rate their supervisor on the five facilitative qualities.

Supervision Perception Form–Trainee

The second instrument used in this study is Heppner and Roehlke's (1984) Supervision Perception Form (SPF), which was initially developed to examine the interpersonal influence process in supervision. The SPF consists of two subscales measuring students' Willingness to Learn and Supervisory Impact (the SPF-T is the only form that will be used in this study). Heppner and Roehlke developed two forms of the SPF: a trainee form (SPF-T) examining the trainee's self-perceptions, and a supervisor form (SPF-S) measuring the supervisors' perceptions of the trainees. Trainees or supervisors rate each item by selecting: (1) Strongly Disagree,

(2) Moderately Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Slightly Agree, (5) Moderately

Agree, or (6) Strongly Agree.

The Willingness to Learn subscale on the SPF-T consists of 10 questions that

measure the trainees' perceptions of willingness to learn from their supervisors (e.g.,

willingness to change in supervisory sessions, receptivity to positive critiques and

suggestions from the supervisor). The other subscale on the SPF-T, Supervisory

Impact, includes 14 questions that assess the trainees' perceptions of the supervisors'

impact on a range of counseling skills (e.g., diagnostic and assessment abilities, trying

new counseling techniques, case management abilities, case conceptualizations).

Heppner and Roehlke (1984) reported no reliability or validity data for the

SPF. However, reliability data have been reported more recently. Swanson and

O'Saben's (1993) study that examined differences in supervisory needs of students

reported, "Internal consistency reliability coefficients in this sample were Supervisory

Impact, .84; Willingness to Learn, .73" (p. 458).

Hypotheses

Thus far, there has been limited research addressing race as a variable in the

supervisory dyad. Only four empirical studies were found to have explored racial

issues in supervision (Cook & Helms, 1988; Hilton et al., 1995; McRoy et al., 1986;

Vander Kolk, 1974). These studies have focused on differences in African-American

and White supervisees' expectations of the supervisory relationship. To date, no

studies have examined perceptual differences between majority and minority

supervisees if supervisors' racial identity and exhibition of these facilitative conditions

influence supervisees' willingness to learn and receptivity to feedback. Therefore, in

this study, the following hypotheses will be examined: There is a significant difference of $p \geq .05\%$ level of confidence between minority and majority students:

1. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of empathetic understanding.

2. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of congruence.

3. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' perception of their supervisor's level of regard.

4. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of unconditionality of regard.

5. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of willingness to be known.

6. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' willingness to learn from their supervisors.

7. There will be a significant difference between minority and majority students' receptivity to supervisory impact.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

First, summary information describing the sample was obtained using the SAS General Linear Model version 6.12 ROM under OS/2 procedure. Means, ranges, and percentages in the sample were tabulated regarding ethnicity of supervisor, the number of different practicum supervisors, the number of ethnic-minority practicum supervisors, the number of practicum supervisors with same ethnic background,

racial identity of student, citizenship, age range, gender, year in graduate school, months of practicum, perception of how supervisors would rate their performance, percentage of ethnic minorities enrolled in their training program, supervisors' theoretical orientation, students' theoretical orientation, and supervision course offered. Reliability coefficients were also found for the subscales of all instrumentation used; and means, ranges, percentiles, frequencies; and standard deviations were used to analyze the sample's demographic information.

Psychometric Properties of the Scales

This study examined reliability on both instruments by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. A factor analysis was also performed to determine construct-validity.

Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance was chosen for statistical analysis to examine the relationships between the variables. This statistical analysis was selected because it measured seven continuous dependent variables (i.e., regard, empathetic understanding, congruence, willingness to be known, unconditionality, supervisory impact, and willingness to learn) and three categorical independent variables (i.e., race, age, and experience).

A three-way fully crossed analysis of variance was performed to examine the effects of race, age, and experience on each of the supervisor characteristics of empathetic understanding, congruency, conditionality, level of regard, and willingness to be known, and supervisees' receptivity to feedback from their supervisor and

supervisees' willingness to learn. An association between the seven subscales was also examined using Pearson product–moment correlations.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of the Sample

Data were collected from 33 of the 35 randomly selected APA-approved counseling psychology programs in the United States. Two schools returned their surveys because their programs were no longer APA-approved. All respondents were from APA-approved counseling psychology programs across the United States. All participants identified themselves as advanced counseling psychology doctoral students.

The percentages of respondents in each of the six regions were as follows: Northeast (15%), Southeast (12%), Midwest (28%), South (19%), Southwest (9%), and Northwest (17%). In each region, there were at least five schools identified. Of the 330 surveys mailed to advanced doctoral-level supervisees, 175 responded. One student elected to complete only the demographic data, so this form was eliminated from the sample. Still, the return rate was nominal at 53%.

All supervisees had completed at least one practicum in their doctoral program. The majority of the students were females, numbering 137 or 78% of the sample in comparison to 22% or 38 males. Forty-eight percent of the sample reported their average age range was 26–31 years. One hundred and sixty-seven or 95% were citizens of the United States. Most supervisees (67%) racially identified as Caucasian. There were 11% African-American, 1% American Indian, 5% Asian American, 4%

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Hispanic/Latino, 5% Multi-racial, 2% International, and 5% identified as Other. Supervisees reported having four to six different supervisors during their graduate program. Fifty-nine percent of the respondents reported having one to three ethnic-minority supervisors during their graduate studies.

Forty-three percent of the participants indicated having one to three supervisors of the same ethnic group during their graduate studies. Most students (64%) reported having more than 8 months of practica. Over 76% of the respondents reported having a supervision course. Thirty-two percent of the supervisees reported they were fourth-year students in their doctoral programs in comparison to others reporting: 1% first year, 21% second year, 27% third year, and 19% fifth year and beyond. Respondents estimated that approximately 5–15% of their colleagues (cohort) are ethnic minorities.

Reliabilities and Validity of RRI and SPF

The internal consistency reliability coefficients of the RRI calculated on this sample of students were similar to previously reported coefficients of the RRI's internal consistency. RRI Cronbach's alphas obtained by Schacht et al. (1988) were compared to the internal consistency reliabilities of this sample (see Table 1). Overall, the reliabilities were slightly higher on Empathetic Understanding and Congruence in this study when compared to those reported by Schacht et al. However, these slight differences may be attributed to sampling error.

The reliabilities of the SPF-T, found in previous studies, were similar to the reliabilities of this study. Swanson and O'Saben (1993) reported (Cronbach alphas) reliabilities of the Supervisory Impact (SI) scale as .84 and the Willingness to Learn (WTL) scale as .73, which corresponded to .92 reliability on SI and .79 on WTL

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Revised Relational
Inventory (RRI) Subscales

Subscale Name	Mean	SD	Range of Subscale Values	Number of Items Per Subscale	Coefficient Alpha	
					This Study	Literature
Regard (REG)	4.74	.99	1.2–6.0	10	.95	(.85)
Empathetic Understanding (EMP)	4.27	.98	1.6–6.0	10	.90	(.77)
Congruence (CON)	4.73	.92	1.9–6.0	10	.91	(.77)
Willingness to Be Known (WTB)	4.35	1.01	1.8–6.0	5	.80	(.82)
Unconditionality (UNC)	4.63	1.16	1.0–6.0	5	.89	(.92)

Note. N = 175. Coefficient alphas in parentheses were those reported by Schacht et al. (1988). N = 152 in Schacht et al.'s study.

scale in this sample (see Table 2). Reliabilities of both RRI and SPF in the present sample were quite high.

Subscales of the two instruments, RRI and SPF-T, correlated moderately with each other except perhaps the subscale Willingness to be Known (see Table 3). WTB was lower in correlation with other subscales.

A factor analysis (see Appendices F and G) was conducted on each of the two scales using maximum likelihood estimation method. About 80% of the items loaded on their proposed scales, while others were ambiguous. The findings suggest that construct validity of the RRI and SPF-T were satisfactory. Therefore, this study used the same subscales designed by Schacht et al. (1988) for the RRI and by Heppner and Roehlke (1984) for the SPF-T.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Supervision Perception
Form—Trainee (SPF-T) Subscales

Subscale Name	Mean	SD	Range of Subscale Values	Number of Items Per Subscale	Coefficient Alpha	
					This Study	Literature
Supervision Perception Form—Trainee— Sup Impact (SPFS)	4.74	.81	2.1–6.0	14	.92	(.84)
Supervision Perception Form—Trainee— WLT (SPFT)	5.12	.61	3.1–6.0	10	.79	(.73)

Note. N = 175. Coefficient alphas in parentheses were those reported by Swanson and O'Saben (1993).

Table 3

Correlations Among the RRI and SPF-T Subscales

Subscales	REG	EMP	CON	WTB	UNC	SPFS
EMP	.79					
CON	.84	.80				
WTB	.55	.58	.67			
UNC	.79	.73	.76	.54		
SPFS	.75	.79	.72	.51	.64	
SPFT	.67	.69	.69	.41	.60	.84

Note. N = 175.

All of the following null hypotheses, 1 through 7 were concerned with race

main effects:

Ho 1: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority

students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of empathetic understanding.

Ho 2: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of congruence.

Ho 3: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' perception of their supervisor's level of regard.

Ho 4: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of unconditionality of regard.

Ho 5: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' perceptions of their supervisor's level of willingness to be known.

Ho 6: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' willingness to learn from their supervisors.

Ho 7: There will be no significant difference between minority and majority students' receptivity to supervisory impact.

Each showed statistical differences between minority and majority supervisees' perceptions on each of the seven subscales (see Table 4). Given that this study is relatively exploratory and perhaps the first of its kind, a comparison wise significance level of .05 was selected.

The SAS General Linear Model version 6.12 ROM under OS/2 procedure (ANOVA for unequal group sizes or unbalanced designs) was used to check the mean difference between race, age, and experience and the interaction of age, experience, and race in rating the seven subscales. The univariate and bivariate cross-classification frequencies provided the basis for the data selection that was done and the demographic variables that were ignored. A three-way fully crossed ANOVA was performed on each of the seven subscales. Although majority supervisees scored higher on all seven subscales, these differences significantly interact with experience and/or age (see Table 5). These interactions essentially showed that these differences

Table 4

Mean Differences Between Majority and Minority in
Rating the RRI and SPF-T Subscales

Subscales	Majority (n = 116)	Minority (n = 59)
REG **	4.881	4.451
EMP *	4.385	4.050
CON ***	4.888	4.410
WTB *	4.434	4.193
UNC *	4.781	4.329
SPFS **	4.857	4.505
SPFT *	5.192	4.968

*Mean differences are statistically significant at .05 level.
**Mean differences are statistically significant at .01 level.
***Mean differences are statistically significant at .001 level.

were statistically significant primarily with both the older (see Table 6) and less experienced group (see Table 7), where majority supervisees rated their supervisory experience significantly higher on the subscales than minority supervisees.

The age by race interaction is summarized in the Table 6. Each subscale was statistically significant with the older (> 32) age group of majority supervisees. (See Appendix H for graphical chart of Table 6.)

In Table 7, race by experience interaction was significant on Regard, Empathetic Understanding, and Supervisory Impact. Majority supervisees with less experience rated higher than did minority supervisee with similar experience. For supervisees with less than 5 months of experience, majority students rated higher than minority students. However, these differences disappeared with more experience. (See Appendix I for graphical view of Table 7.)

Table 5

ANOVA Summary Table of Significance Levels
for the Subscales Effects

REG	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	7.23424	8.37	0.0044**
	Age	2	0.20678	0.24	0.7875
	Race*Age	2	4.37094	5.06	0.0074**
	Experience	2	1.74337	2.02	0.1365
	Race*Experience	2	4.50895	5.22	0.0064**
	Age*Experience	4	0.49810	0.58	0.6802
	Race*Age*Experience	4	1.04254	1.21	0.3103
	Error	157	0.86422		

EMP	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	4.37062	4.81	0.0297*
	Age	2	0.29858	0.33	0.7204
	Race*Age	2	4.33213	4.77	0.0098**
	Experience	2	0.56266	0.62	0.5396
	Race*Experience	2	3.11782	3.43	0.0348*
	Age*Experience	4	0.24319	0.27	0.8984
	Race*Age*Experience	4	0.67618	0.74	0.5632
	Error	157	0.90847		

CON	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	8.95160	12.17	0.0006***
	Age	2	0.50307	0.68	0.5060
	Race*Age	2	7.00711	9.53	0.0001***
	Experience	2	0.61258	0.83	0.4366
	Race*Experience	2	0.90303	1.23	0.2956
	Age*Experience	4	0.08767	0.12	0.9755
	Race*Age*Experience	4	0.95825	1.30	0.2712
	Error	157	0.73528		

WTB	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	2.27641	2.27	0.1337
	Age	2	0.02423	0.02	0.9761
	Race*Age	2	4.52007	4.51	0.0124*
	Experience	2	0.90003	0.90	0.4094
	Race*Experience	2	1.13160	1.13	0.3258
	Age*Experience	4	0.62251	0.62	0.6480
	Race*Age*Experience	4	0.90785	0.91	0.4620
	Error	157	1.00195		

Table 5—Continued

UNC	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	7.99785	6.69	0.0106*
	Age	2	0.85204	0.71	0.4917
	Race*Age	2	7.67446	6.42	0.0021**
	Experience	2	1.78239	1.49	0.2281
	Race*Experience	2	2.27181	1.90	0.1528
	Age*Experience	4	1.01135	0.85	0.4977
	Race*Age*Experience	4	1.92371	1.61	0.1744
	Error	157	1.19473		

SPFSI	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	4.84024	8.08	0.0051**
	Age	2	0.24061	0.40	0.6698
	Race*Age	2	2.19230	3.66	0.0279*
	Experience	2	0.76394	1.28	0.2821
	Race*Experience	2	3.26475	5.45	0.0051**
	Age*Experience	4	0.16481	0.28	0.8936
	Race*Age*Experience	4	0.59668	1.00	0.4113
	Error	157	0.59885		

SPFT	Source	DF	MS	F	P
	Race	1	1.96681	5.50	0.0203*
	Age	2	0.01493	0.04	0.9591
	Race*Age	2	1.37562	3.85	0.0234*
	Experience	2	0.56818	1.59	0.2074
	Race*Experience	2	0.58451	1.63	0.1984
	Age*Experience	4	0.02485	0.07	0.9911
	Race*Age*Experience	4	0.62542	1.75	0.1420
	Error	157	0.35763		

*Mean differences are statistically significant at .05 level.
**Mean differences are statistically significant at .01 level.
***Mean differences are statistically significant at .001 level.

Table 6

Significant Interactions Between Age Groups and
Race Groups on Mean Subscale Ratings

Subscales	Age Groups	Caucasian	Minority
REG **	20–25	4.985	4.529
	26–31	4.728	4.670
	32+ ***	5.028	3.792
EMP **	20–25 *	4.645	3.941
	26–31	4.165	4.289
	32+ **	4.543	3.608
CON ***	20–25 **	5.200	4.359
	26–31	4.652	4.723
	32+ ***	5.043	3.698
WTB *	20–25 *	4.640	3.906
	26–31	4.256	4.500
	32+ *	4.567	3.833
UNC **	20–25 *	5.023	4.282
	26–31	4.468	4.607
	32+ ***	5.069	3.700
SPFS *	20–25	4.766	4.399
	26–31	4.766	4.714
	32+ ***	5.016	4.131
SPFT *	20–25	5.170	5.012
	26–31	5.109	5.080
	32+ ***	5.310	4.625

* Mean differences are statistically significant at .05 level.
**Mean differences are statistically significant at .01 level.
***Mean differences are statistically significant at .001 level.

Table 7

Significant Interactions Between Experience and Race Groups on Mean Subscale Ratings

Subscales	Experience in Months	Caucasian	Minority
REG **	<= 5 ***	5.055 ($n = 20$)	3.546 ($n = 11$)
	>5 and <= 8	4.600 ($n = 15$)	4.318 ($n = 17$)
	> = 9	4.890 ($n = 81$)	4.845 ($n = 31$)
EMP *	< = 5 ***	4.575	3.300
	>5 and < = 8	4.042	4.159
	> = 9	4.401	4.257
SPFS *	< = 5 ***	5.063	3.861
	>5 and < = 8	4.376	4.626
	> = 9	4.895	4.667

*Mean differences are statistically significant at .05 level.
**Mean differences are statistically significant at .01 level.
***Mean differences are statistically significant at .001 level.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter contains a concise summary of the study and its findings, as well as limitations of the study. Conclusions and implications of the study are discussed, and recommendations for further research and application are made.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the minority and majority supervisees' perceptual differences of clinical supervision. The specific purpose of the study was to observe whether specific supervisor characteristics such as empathetic understanding, congruence, regard, unconditionality of regard, willingness to be known, and willingness to learn from the supervisor were equally experienced by supervisees.

A total of 175 advanced doctoral students who were enrolled in the 33 randomly selected APA-approved counseling psychology programs in the United States participated in the study. With the help of training directors, participants received research packets during the fall semester of 1998. Many students reported they participated in this research because of the design of the survey.

Data were collected and scored on the five subscales of the RRI (Congruence, Empathetic Understanding, Regard, Unconditionality, and Willingness to be Known) and the two subscales of the SPF (Willingness to Learn and Supervisory Impact). Students evaluated their most recent supervisor prior to Fall 1998 on these five

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facilitative supervisor characteristics and themselves on their Willingness to Learn
and Receptivity to Supervisory Impact. The SAS General Linear Model procedure
was used to analyze the data.

Summary of the Findings

A factor analysis was conducted on the scales, the Revised Relational
Inventory and the Supervision Perception Form–Trainee, and the findings suggested
satisfactory construct validity on both.

The hypotheses in the study were all concerned with race main effects. The
results revealed statistical significance between minority and majority supervisees
relative to their perceptions of their supervisor's level of empathetic understanding,
congruence, regard, unconditionality, willingness to be known, willingness to learn,
and receptivity to supervision impact. Therefore, the study provided support for the
test hypotheses. Because this study was relatively exploratory and perhaps the first of
its kind, a significance level of $p = .05$ was selected.

Although majority supervisees rated their supervision experiences significantly
higher than minority supervisees on all seven subscales, these differences significantly
interact with experience and/or age. Basically, these significant interactions revealed
that these differences were statistically significant with the older and less experienced
majority supervisees.

Limitations

A limitation in this study involved the small size of the sample of different
ethnic groups and the generalizability of the sample. Therefore, any generalizations or
conclusions from this study need to be made with caution. A second limitation was

that this study described only students' perspectives. Hence, causality cannot be interpreted. Lastly, this study examined only student perception of learning. To measure student learning, Borders (1990) proposes that the actual client outcome be evaluated, which was not done in this study.

Conclusions and Implications

The literature exploring the area of clinical supervision has just recently come to address the possibility that cultural differences exist in supervisees' perceptions of supervision. With the increasing number of minority students enrolled in counseling psychology programs, the multicultural dynamics of clinical supervision have become a pressing issue that needs to be addressed by training programs as well as by the supervision literature.

Only four empirical studies have explored racial issues in supervision (Cook & Helms, 1988; Hilton et al., 1995; McRoy et al., 1986; Vander Kolk, 1974). The present study revealed statistical significance between minority and majority supervisees. Majority supervisees rated higher their supervisor than minority supervisees across all subscales, which may be indicative of having better experiences or the tendency to rate more favorably.

However, it is not surprising that majority supervisees rated their supervisory experiences higher than minority supervisees across all subscales. Because the field of psychology has just recently begun to recognize and embrace diversity, many minority students may enter the field with low expectations because of the negative experiences racial/ethnic-minority students have received (Cook & Helms, 1988; McNeil, 1996; McNeil et al., 1995; McRoy et al., 1986). Additionally, Vander Kolk (1974) found that African-American supervisees anticipated less supervisor empathy,

respect, and congruence than White supervisees. According to McNeil (1996), many racial/ethnic-minority supervisees often experience varying degrees of discrimination, isolation, racism, and differential treatment resulting in feelings of anger, outrage, and discouragement, which they may not choose to disclose, and program faculty, directors of training, and clinical supervisors may remain unaware of these experiences and feelings. Minority supervisees are already in a vulnerable position, which makes it difficult for them to trust their supervisors and reveal themselves in the process. If that is combined with racial mistrust and expectations of how other cultural groups react, it will be difficult to establish an effective training relationship where race as well as other charged issues could be addressed.

What is interesting is the interaction of age and experience. Statistical significance was found among older and less experienced majority supervisees. Many novice minority supervisees may bring to the role of therapist additional burdens (i.e., struggles with power dynamics, trust and vulnerability, communication styles, etc.) that majority supervisees do not. According to McRoy et al. (1986), some of these minority supervisees will not share the content of these additional burdens due to not feeling safe and fear of negative judgment. Thus, minority supervisees may be forced to suffer in silence and may be expected to exhibit levels of counseling competence similar to those of peers who may not be exposed to such personal attacks. As literature indicates, many minority students have experienced some form of racism during their graduate training. Racism, overtly and covertly, occurs not only at the individual level but often at the institution level, both intentionally and unintentionally. Therefore, minority supervisees may feel indifferent about discussing their concerns with, in most cases, their majority supervisors. This creates undue

hardships and may force the minority supervisee to respond only in a "politically correct" manner. This sets up a somewhat less inviting environment.

Implications for Supervising Ethnic-Minority Supervisees

While counseling psychology programs are beginning to take positive steps to increase the number of minority students in their programs, they have not anticipated the needs of these students, as well as the need of the faculty who are going to work with them. Clearly, there are no defined guidelines for the type of clinical supervision that works most effectively with minority supervisees. However, because results were statistically significant between groups, it is important to look at some suggestions that may help when supervising minority trainees.

Because it appears that culture matters in clinical supervision, it is important that supervisors be culturally sensitive by having an awareness of their own cultures. Once supervisors recognize how their own cultures have influenced their attitudes, beliefs, and values, they can begin to understand, respect, and accept the cultures of supervisees who may differ in their racial identity. It is likely then that the dialogue and the relationship between these two will be positively impacted.

Thus, when supervisors understand ways in which cultural factors might impact supervision, a more trusting and disclosing interpersonal dynamic relationship may evolve between supervisor and supervisee.

Additionally, when supervisors become familiar with the cultural groups of their supervisees, it is possible that the supervisory relationship will become more collaborative, thus enabling supervisees to openly discuss problems or concerns they encounter in therapy. This type of supervisory relationship can enhance and facilitate growth in supervisees' therapeutic styles. Furthermore, engaging and sharing in

supervisees' worldviews may make them feel accepted, safe, and willing to explore their struggles and successes in an open and nondefensive manner.

Also, it will be important for supervisors to be patient with minority supervisees as their supervisory relationship develops. Literature (Cook & Helms, 1988; McNeil et al., 1995; McNeil, 1996; McRoy et al., 1986) documents many negative experiences of minority students in their graduate training programs. As a result, minority supervisees may be reluctant to establish a close, self-disclosing relationship with their supervisors.

Finally, being culturally competent to deliver services to culturally different supervisees has become a priority. Therefore, it is imperative that counseling psychology programs not only train their current faculty but aggressively recruit and retain more minority professors. Such faculty members bring a certain sensitivity to minority students' needs. This author believes that the presence of minority faculty counterbalances misrepresentations, trust, power, and communication by offering a different perspective of the traditional Anglo-Saxon teaching and supervision of psychology to minority students.

Recommendations for Future Research

Differences in the perceptions of clinical supervision among minority and majority supervisees were observed. However, much of the literature on supervision emphasizes the development of counselors' identities, and only a small growing body of literature addresses multicultural issues in counseling and psychotherapy. Relatively little has been written about the impact of racial, cultural, and ethnic differences between supervisor and supervisee in the supervisory process (Brown & Landrum-Brown, 1995; Leong & Wagner, 1994; Remington & DaCosta, 1989). The

majority of the supervisory literature attends to the developmental stages of supervisees' professional maturation.

Majority students rated their supervisory experiences higher than minority students across all subscales, which may be indicative of having better experiences, a tendency to rate more favorably, or where they are in their racial identity development. Whatever the case, it appears that race- and ethnicity-related issues should be addressed within the supervisory relationship (Hunt, 1987; McNeil, 1996; McNeil et al., 1995; Vasquez & McKinley, 1982; Zuniga, 1987), which may increase minority student ratings of supervisors. Hence, supervisors must not view these issues as personal and outside the realm of clinical supervision (McNeil, 1996). If supervisors perceive difficulty in the supervisory relationship, they might first examine themselves; the race, culture, age, and experience level of the supervisee; and the supervisee's perception of them, before assuming the supervisee has problems. Given the history of psychology, there is no doubt that this increasing multicultural dyad has created challenges for many counseling psychology programs. The intent of this researcher is to promote the sharing of responsibility of discussing multicultural dynamics within the supervision relationship. Some writers have suggested that supervisors and supervisees examine their own cultural identities and attitudes, as well as how this affects their relationship with each other and their work with clients (Cook, 1994; Priest, 1994), and they should create an environment that is conducive to exploring these issues (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992; McNeil et al., 1995; Williams & Halgin, 1995). Therefore, it is hoped that this research will be used effectively toward a richer understanding of minority supervisees' experiences.

Future research in this area might replicate this study with doctoral students and supervisors, so the results might be more generalizable. Additional possibilities for further research include:

1. Survey larger samples with more equal representation of various races.

2. Investigate the perceptions of minority supervisors regarding their multicultural supervision.

3. Examine other areas of multicultural issues within the supervisory dyad, such as spirituality and gender.

4. Use qualitative, in-depth multicultural counseling/supervision client–supervisee–supervisor interviews measuring outcome for client and supervisee.

5. Assess supervision courses offered by most counseling psychology programs for inclusion of multicultural supervision.

In brief, clinical supervision continues to be a critical aspect of training for many counseling psychology programs. As society becomes increasingly diverse, the supervision literature must reflect the impact of multicultural issues within the supervisory dyads. Thus, demanding that supervisors become minimally competent when working with racial/ethnic supervisees and address race- and ethnicity-related issues within the supervisory relationship. It is the belief of this researcher that it is within culturally relevant supervision that optimal levels of professional and counseling skill development can occur for many minority supervisees.

Appendix A

Human Subjects Institutional
Review Board Approval

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WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: 28 July 1998

To: Robert Betz, Principal Investigator
       Vivian Barnette, Student Investigator

From: Richard Wright, Chair *(Linda Peters for Richard Wright)*

Re: HSIRB Project Number 98-07-03

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "Perceptual Differences of Clinical Supervision Among Supervisees in APA-Approved Counseling Psychology Programs" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may only conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: 28 July 1999

Appendix B

Names of APA-Approved Counseling
Psychology Programs

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APA-Approved Counseling
Psychology Programs

University of Akron
Arizona State University
Auburn University
Ball State University
Boston College
Boston University
University of California–Santa Barbara
Colorado State University
Columbia University–Teachers College
University of Denver
University of Florida
Fordham University
University of Georgia
Georgia State University
University of Houston
University of Illinois at Champaign/Urbana
Indian University
Indiana State University
University of Iowa
Iowa State University
University of Kansas
Kent State University
University of Kentucky
Lehigh University
Loyala University of Chicago
University of Maryland–College Park
University of Massachusetts–Amherst
University of Memphis
University of Miami
Michigan State University
University of Minnesota
University of Missouri–Columbia
University of Missouri–Kansas City
University of Nebraska–Lincoln
New Mexico State University
New York University

University of North Dakota
University of North Texas
University of Northern Colorado
Northwestern University
University of Notre Dame
Ohio State University
University of Oklahoma
Oklahoma State University
University of Oregon
Our Lady of the Lake University
Pennsylvania State University
University of Pittsburgh
University of San Francisco
University of Southern California
Southern Illinois University
University of Southern Mississippi
Stanford University
State University of New York at Albany
State University of New York at Buffalo
Temple University
University of Tennessee
Texas A&M University
University of Texas at Austin
Texas Tech University
Texas Woman's University
University of Utah
Virginia Commonwealth University
Washington State University
West Virginia University
Western Michigan University
University of Wisconsin–Madison
University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee

Appendix C

Research Packet

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College of Education
Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology

Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008-5195
616 387-5100

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Dear Participant:

I am a counseling psychology doctoral student at Western Michigan University and I need your help in getting my dissertation underway. The purpose of my dissertation is to investigate the perceptions of graduate students regarding clinical supervision when participating in supervisor-supervisee dyads.

I believe that the results of this study will contribute significantly to the training of graduate students in counseling psychology programs and to the supervision literature. I would greatly appreciate it if you would complete the enclosed surveys that only take approximately 20 minutes. Your response to the enclosed questionnaire(s) is very important. Please respond to the questions with reference to your most recent (prior to Fall 1998 term) supervisor.

All of your responses will be confidential. Your survey has an identification number to permit accurate follow-up of unreturned questionnaires, but your name will not be linked in any way with the data on your survey. Your responses will be used in group analyses of students as a whole.

Participation in this research is entirely voluntary and you may discontinue at any time. We encourage you to answer all questions; however, you may refuse to answer any individual questions you wish. Once you have completed the questionnaire and personal data information sheet, please return them in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope enclosed for your convenience by Friday, October 30, 1998. Returning the questionnaire and personal data sheet in the pre-paid postage envelope will serve as your consent to our use of the answers you provide.

This document has been approved for use for one year by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. Participants should not complete this survey if this document does not show a stamped date and signature in the upper right corner. If you have any questions about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me, Vivian Barnette at (319) 335-7294 or (E-mail: vivian.barnette@wmich.edu); my dissertation chair, Robert L. Betz, Ph.D. at (616) 387-5107 or (E-mail: robert.betz@wmich.edu); the Chair of Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (616-387-8293) or the Vice President for Research (616-387-8298).

I realize you have a very busy schedule and very much appreciate your time and assistance. Again, thank you for taking time to complete this survey; your efforts are greatly appreciated. I wish you much success in your continued studies.

Sincerely,

Vivian Barnette, M.S.
Doctoral Student

Robert L. Betz, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair

**Please circle and/or check your responses
to the following questions.**

1. What ethnic group does the supervisor you have
   described belong to?

African-American   Alaskan Native   American Indian

Asain American   Caucasian   Hispanic/Latino(a)

Pacific Islander   Other_____   Multiracial

International Non- US Resident

2. How many different practica supervisors have you had
   during your graduate training?
       1-3   4-6   more than 7

3. How many of your practica supervisors have been eth-
   nic minorities?
       1-3   4-6   more than 7

4. How many of your practica supervisors have been mem-
   bers of the same ethnic group as your own?
       1-3   4-6   more than 7

5. How do you identify racially:

African-American   Alaskan Native   American Indian

Asain American   Caucasian   Hispanic/Latino(a)

Pacific Islander   Other_____   Multiracial

International Non- US Resident

6. Are you an American Citizen? ____Yes   ____No

7. Your Age Range: ____20-25 ____32-37 ____44-49
                   ____26-31 ____38-43 ____50 or over

8. What is your gender? ____Female ____Male

9. What year are you in your graduate studies?
   ____1 ____2 ____3 ____4 ____5 ____other

Explain if other:_____
_____

10. How many months of practica experience have you
    completed?
    __1 __2 __3 __4 __5 __6 __7 __8 __other
Explain if other: _____
_____

11. How do you think your supervisor would rate your
    performance in comparison to all the other trainees in
    your program?

____ Excellent   ____ Above Average   ____ Average

____ Below Average   ____ Poor

12. What is the percentage of ethnic minority students
    enrolled in your training program?

____ Less than 5%   ____ 16%-25%   ____ 36%-45%

____ 5%-15%   ____ 26%-35%   ____ 46%-55%

____ More Than 55%

13. Which of the following theoretical orientations best
    describes you supervisor?

A. Behavioral   D. Eclectic   G. Group
B. Cognitive   E. Family   H. Phenomenological
C. Community   F. Gestalt   I. Psychodynamic
                                  J. Other

14. What is your theoretical orientation?

A. Behavioral   D. Eclectic   G. Group
B. Cognitive   E. Family   H. Phenomenological
C. Community   F. Gestalt   I. Psychodynamic
                                  J. Other

15. Does your program offer a course or seminar in
    Supervision?
    A. Yes   B. No

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix D

Letter to Training Directors

College of Education
Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology

Kalamazoo. Michigan 49008-5195
616 387-5100

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

September 1998

Dear Training Director:

We are writing to ask for your participation in distributing a survey concerning the perceptions of clinical supervision among counseling psychology trainees in APA-approved programs. This instrument would provide a means for assessing and addressing multicultural issues within supervisory dyads specifically in the aspects of climate, research, training and education. In order to have results meaningful, it is important to have all of your second year and above racial/ethnic minority, as well as majority doctoral students complete this questionnaire

Participation in this research is anonymous. Neither your graduate program or student will be identified. Student participation is voluntary and he/she may discontinue at any time. This survey should take approximately twenty minutes to complete. Once participant has completed the questionnaire and demographic sheet, he/she can return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope enclosed for his/her convenience by **Friday, October 30, 1998.** Completing and returning the survey and demographic sheet in the pre-paid postage will serve as his/her consent to participate.

If you would like a brief summary of the results of this study, please contact us at the above address. We realize you have a very busy schedule and very much appreciate your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Vivian Barnette, M.S.
Doctoral Student

Robert L. Betz, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair

Appendix E

Postcard Reminder

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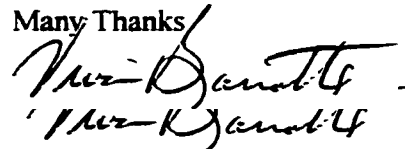
Dear Colleague,

Approximately three weeks ago, I sent you a survey on clinical supervision dyad relationships. This survey is for my dissertation and I would greatly appreciate it if you would complete it and return it to me. If you've already mailed it, thank you!

If you have misplaced your survey and would like another one sent to you please E-mail me at *vivian.barnette@wmich.edu*

Many Thanks,

Vivian Barnette
Western Michigan University

Appendix F

Factor Analysis on RRI

Factor Analysis on the Five RRI Subscales
Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation Method

Factor Pattern

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
RRI1	0.83335	-0.23483	-0.09025	-0.06269	0.00996
RRI2	0.61173	0.07653	0.03878	0.03709	0.16822
RRI3	0.78389	0.02045	-0.03681	-0.16740	-0.05729
RRI4	0.16269	0.26327	0.35054	0.10670	-0.03695
RRI5	0.81164	-0.37383	0.09094	0.03559	-0.01539
RRI6	0.73754	-0.11600	-0.05815	0.14092	0.12577
RRI7	0.67808	0.19223	-0.20039	-0.08188	0.13300
RRI8	0.80056	0.09482	-0.16950	-0.14502	0.00362
RRI9	0.82621	-0.35047	0.11301	-0.00879	0.00271
RRI10	0.47266	0.20044	-0.38961	0.05171	0.24150
RRI11	0.42340	-0.08371	0.05495	0.05569	0.14322
RRI12	0.61733	0.37438	0.40146	0.03878	-0.05629
RRI13	0.87379	-0.16849	0.16799	-0.01439	-0.05104
RRI14	0.67790	0.21065	-0.25431	0.03181	0.29686
RRI15	0.59121	0.15542	0.08972	-0.00684	-0.09636
RRI16	0.76296	0.02022	-0.26685	0.37684	-0.08970
RRI17	0.85015	-0.29220	-0.01330	0.00994	-0.03527
RRI18	0.84645	-0.04648	0.09685	0.02991	0.23332
RRI19	0.76283	0.06617	0.20571	-0.03282	0.17923
RRI20	0.60461	0.34746	0.33333	0.18868	0.01273
RRI21	0.77277	-0.02173	-0.17855	-0.02254	-0.02282
RRI22	0.67219	0.11110	-0.13000	0.09984	0.35276
RRI23	0.75512	0.31877	-0.00622	-0.02541	-0.17701
RRI24	0.62572	0.08774	-0.21007	0.35300	-0.24852
RRI25	0.89940	-0.20891	0.08183	-0.04513	-0.00199
RRI26	0.73089	-0.03182	0.20830	0.11372	0.24298
RRI27	0.79160	0.15545	-0.04858	-0.12636	-0.11643
RRI28	0.45181	0.36319	0.51111	0.11928	-0.00690
RRI29	0.70541	-0.16991	0.13169	0.20557	-0.14700
RRI30	0.77424	0.10604	-0.15955	-0.14478	0.13089
RRI31	0.80636	0.19075	-0.18083	-0.18208	-0.12346
RRI32	0.70328	0.12863	-0.06683	0.39829	-0.05511
RRI33	0.76159	0.00824	-0.23496	-0.25577	-0.19607
RRI34	0.58587	0.04102	0.10366	-0.17488	0.16580
RRI35	0.88737	0.17757	0.08567	-0.17159	-0.11751
RRI36	0.73203	0.21911	-0.02067	-0.05011	0.16724
RRI37	0.70656	0.04704	-0.02039	-0.05760	-0.09115
RRI38	0.65954	0.11717	-0.15746	0.32675	-0.14853
RRI39	0.49264	0.11682	0.04286	-0.29498	-0.06742
RRI40	0.48324	0.16141	-0.22871	-0.08482	0.25633

Variance explained by each factor

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
Weighted	74.125002	5.469280	4.332054	3.368285	2.521185
Unweighted	20.104291	1.502863	1.517973	1.050028	0.900901

Rotation Method: Promax

Inter-factor Correlations

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
FACTOR1	1.00000	0.67277	0.58891	0.48707	0.57327
FACTOR2	0.67277	1.00000	0.61005	0.45489	0.57415
FACTOR3	0.58891	0.61005	1.00000	0.44774	0.51965
FACTOR4	0.48707	0.45489	0.44774	1.00000	0.36295
FACTOR5	0.57327	0.57415	0.51965	0.36295	1.00000

Rotated Factor Pattern (Std Reg Coefs)

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
RRI1	0.64840	0.26500	0.09583	-0.18520	0.06478
RRI2	0.26999	0.03812	0.30254	0.14818	0.01892
RRI3	0.29543	0.50433	0.08741	0.01398	0.00185
RRI4	-0.08086	-0.03589	-0.10519	0.54967	0.02672
RRI5	0.91001	0.06409	-0.10062	-0.09157	0.07177
RRI6	0.52155	-0.05341	0.25023	-0.03583	0.18978
RRI7	0.00843	0.33174	0.46025	-0.01355	0.05915
RRI8	0.16084	0.50005	0.27022	-0.05186	0.06384
RRI9	0.90043	0.10795	-0.08141	-0.06545	0.00995
RRI10	-0.15179	0.08217	0.66882	-0.17249	0.19030
RRI11	0.38743	-0.08855	0.16525	0.03959	-0.00542
RRI12	0.00774	0.23035	-0.03738	0.70019	0.02876
RRI13	0.70103	0.22618	-0.08900	0.11728	0.04406
RRI14	0.01873	0.09373	0.69003	-0.02893	0.10337
RRI15	0.09769	0.30733	-0.00052	0.24833	0.12062
RRI16	0.20301	-0.03586	0.19415	-0.06286	0.68814
RRI17	0.76146	0.18061	-0.02144	-0.13270	0.12491
RRI18	0.58930	0.00728	0.32763	0.13329	-0.03848
RRI19	0.43904	0.10826	0.23564	0.29089	-0.11828
RRI20	0.03568	0.00874	0.07135	0.65199	0.16714
RRI21	0.29416	0.33052	0.19324	-0.11231	0.18964
RRI22	0.23130	-0.10148	0.63886	0.03031	0.06440
RRI23	-0.11020	0.53263	0.05992	0.28780	0.24503
RRI24	0.02806	0.08353	-0.01450	0.02446	0.72330
RRI25	0.73337	0.23865	0.00361	0.00240	0.02154
RRI26	0.58340	-0.15759	0.26303	0.25592	-0.02692
RRI27	0.10494	0.56113	0.08709	0.11064	0.10646

```
RRI28        0.02256    0.01254   -0.07473    0.79599    0.00209
RRI29        0.59220    0.00658   -0.20032    0.12611    0.32112
RRI30        0.17959    0.39217    0.41074   -0.04264   -0.02150
RRI31       -0.00862    0.68427    0.17286    0.00118    0.12400
RRI32        0.15212   -0.11990    0.15430    0.19527    0.59961
RRI33        0.14626    0.75710    0.03364   -0.19534    0.08624
RRI34        0.31780    0.24278    0.23735    0.12800   -0.23746
RRI35        0.18742    0.61618    0.03119    0.24739    0.01400
RRI36        0.10627    0.24704    0.41523    0.18224   -0.00332
RRI37        0.23169    0.38673    0.04056    0.06925    0.11987
RRI38        0.06326    0.04203    0.08675    0.08581    0.61878
RRI39        0.06051    0.58006    0.02083    0.09596   -0.19136
RRI40       -0.02054    0.17128    0.57325   -0.08518   -0.04010
```

Rotation Method: Promax

Factor Structure (Correlations)

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
RRI1	0.83005	0.71263	0.59008	0.31758	0.57122
RRI2	0.55682	0.48260	0.56097	0.43935	0.40658
RRI3	0.69407	0.76383	0.57628	0.42710	0.51127
RRI4	0.11609	0.11092	0.08529	0.45656	0.10460
RRI5	0.89041	0.61448	0.47068	0.36182	0.54473
RRI6	0.72432	0.54279	0.60737	0.37482	0.57514
RRI7	0.52997	0.64599	0.69226	0.36900	0.48870
RRI8	0.66773	0.78617	0.67995	0.39811	0.56474
RRI9	0.89895	0.64002	0.49059	0.38939	0.52207
RRI10	0.32245	0.41886	0.65122	0.15949	0.43541
RRI11	0.44135	0.28781	0.35430	0.26004	0.26608
RRI12	0.49822	0.54777	0.43615	0.80244	0.40016
RRI13	0.88317	0.72216	0.53723	0.53776	0.57212
RRI14	0.53332	0.57348	0.79900	0.36930	0.51600
RRI15	0.49425	0.55495	0.41836	0.47926	0.44294
RRI16	0.65709	0.58566	0.62127	0.35640	0.86200
RRI17	0.87732	0.69117	0.54267	0.35608	0.60583
RRI18	0.83000	0.64215	0.71879	0.55636	0.52216
RRI19	0.72452	0.61180	0.62902	0.61656	0.42360
RRI20	0.49695	0.46882	0.47646	0.76595	0.46632
RRI21	0.68433	0.70409	0.61636	0.33666	0.60769
RRI22	0.59094	0.49463	0.76020	0.40622	0.48172
RRI23	0.56406	0.76664	0.57614	0.59217	0.62325
RRI24	0.50228	0.51997	0.43980	0.33215	0.78869
RRI25	0.90957	0.74769	0.59335	0.47759	0.58173
RRI26	0.74149	0.49632	0.61105	0.57638	0.44662
RRI27	0.64866	0.79632	0.59608	0.49465	0.57421
RRI28	0.37589	0.34542	0.30369	0.77998	0.27230
RRI29	0.72417	0.52452	0.37578	0.44440	0.60606

```
RRI30      0.65222    0.73182    0.72548    0.39933    0.50458
RRI31      0.62520    0.85566    0.65020    0.43066    0.60219
RRI32      0.60116    0.50965    0.56975    0.50153    0.76902
RRI33      0.62973    0.83668    0.53901    0.26667    0.55136
RRI34      0.54712    0.52327    0.50652    0.41331    0.25391
RRI35      0.74886    0.88188    0.63551    0.63802    0.58122
RRI36      0.60386    0.65284    0.70839    0.53109    0.48136
RRI37      0.61820    0.66767    0.50622    0.41969    0.52094
RRI38      0.53915    0.53181    0.50961    0.39916    0.75540
RRI39      0.40007    0.56727    0.35387    0.32918    0.22203
RRI40      0.36781    0.44540    0.60667    0.22484    0.31344
```

Variance explained by each factor ignoring other factors

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4	FACTOR5
Weighted	63.200306	56.539258	43.882178	29.458479	40.530407
Unweighted	16.483245	15.384004	12.969712	8.696937	11.268676

Appendix G

Factor Analysis on the Two SPF-T Subscales Using
Maximum Likelihood Estimation Method

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Factor Analysis on the Two SPF-T Sub-scales Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation Method

Factor Pattern

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2
SPF1	0.75618	-0.00588
SPF2	0.20331	0.26397
SPF3	0.67400	-0.10699
SPF4	0.64716	-0.02819
SPF5	0.74523	-0.02419
SPF6	0.13204	0.22661
SPF7	0.81129	-0.03178
SPF8	0.49550	0.55476
SPF9	0.59793	0.08751
SPF10	0.52482	0.52200
SPF11	0.82904	0.14046
SPF12	0.77066	-0.02522
SPF13	0.68676	0.20720
SPF14	0.67089	0.14946
SPF15	0.55129	0.52262
SPF16	0.51072	0.19004
SPF17	0.13052	0.26188
SPF18	0.73829	-0.20479
SPF19	0.72779	-0.41200
SPF20	0.78382	-0.29764
SPF21	0.78858	-0.13743
SPF22	0.66831	-0.19531
SPF23	0.25654	0.11341
SPF24	0.54631	-0.15017

Variance explained by each factor

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2
Weighted	22.878684	3.574390
Unweighted	9.502369	1.578987

Rotation Method: Promax

Inter-factor Correlations

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2
FACTOR1	1.00000	0.52295
FACTOR2	0.52295	1.00000

Rotation Method: Promax

Rotated Factor Pattern (Std Reg Coefs)

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2
SPF1	0.66221	0.15693
SPF2	-0.03108	0.34839
SPF3	0.67038	0.02255
SPF4	0.58498	0.10760
SPF5	0.66711	0.13345
SPF6	-0.06364	0.28988
SPF7	0.73054	0.13899
SPF8	-0.00600	0.74694
SPF9	0.45105	0.23035
SPF10	0.04530	0.71552
SPF11	0.61032	0.34145
SPF12	0.69003	0.13776
SPF13	0.43404	0.38760
SPF14	0.46571	0.31758
SPF15	0.06783	0.72196
SPF16	0.29447	0.32969
SPF17	-0.09274	0.33023
SPF18	0.80331	-0.07630
SPF19	0.95736	-0.31750
SPF20	0.91602	-0.17350
SPF21	0.79399	0.01226
SPF22	0.73498	-0.08052
SPF23	0.13378	0.18631
SPF24	0.59334	-0.05489

Rotation Method: Promax

Factor Structure (Correlations)

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2
SPF1	0.74428	0.50324
SPF2	0.15111	0.33214
SPF3	0.68217	0.37312
SPF4	0.64125	0.41352
SPF5	0.73690	0.48231
SPF6	0.08795	0.25660
SPF7	0.80322	0.52103
SPF8	0.38462	0.74381
SPF9	0.57151	0.46623
SPF10	0.41948	0.73921
SPF11	0.78888	0.66062
SPF12	0.76208	0.49862
SPF13	0.63673	0.61458
SPF14	0.63179	0.56113

```
SPF15        0.44538    0.75743
SPF16        0.46688    0.48369
SPF17        0.07995    0.28173
SPF18        0.76340    0.34379
SPF19        0.79132    0.18315
SPF20        0.82529    0.30553
SPF21        0.80040    0.42747
SPF22        0.69287    0.30384
SPF23        0.23121    0.25627
SPF24        0.56464    0.25540
```
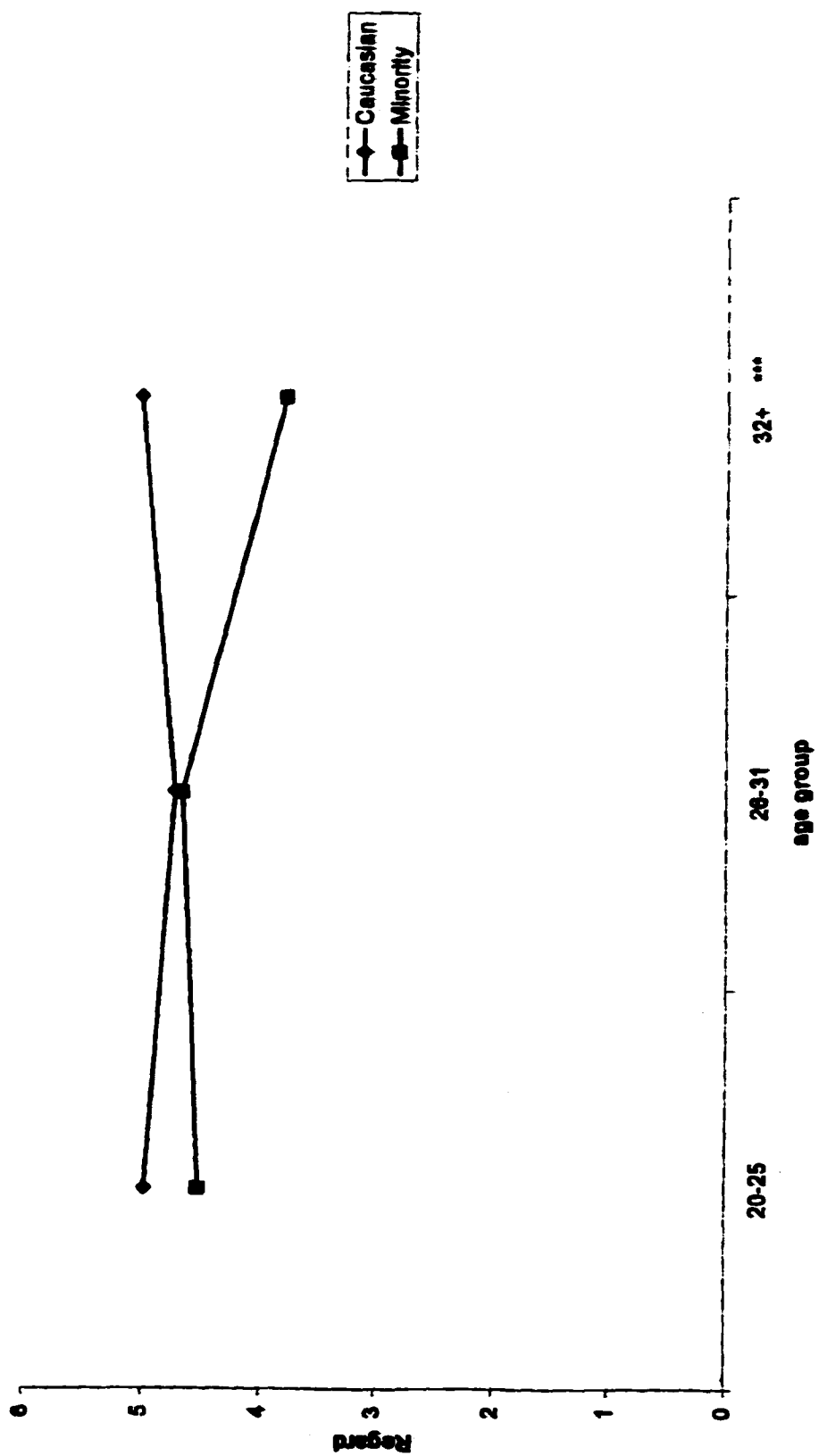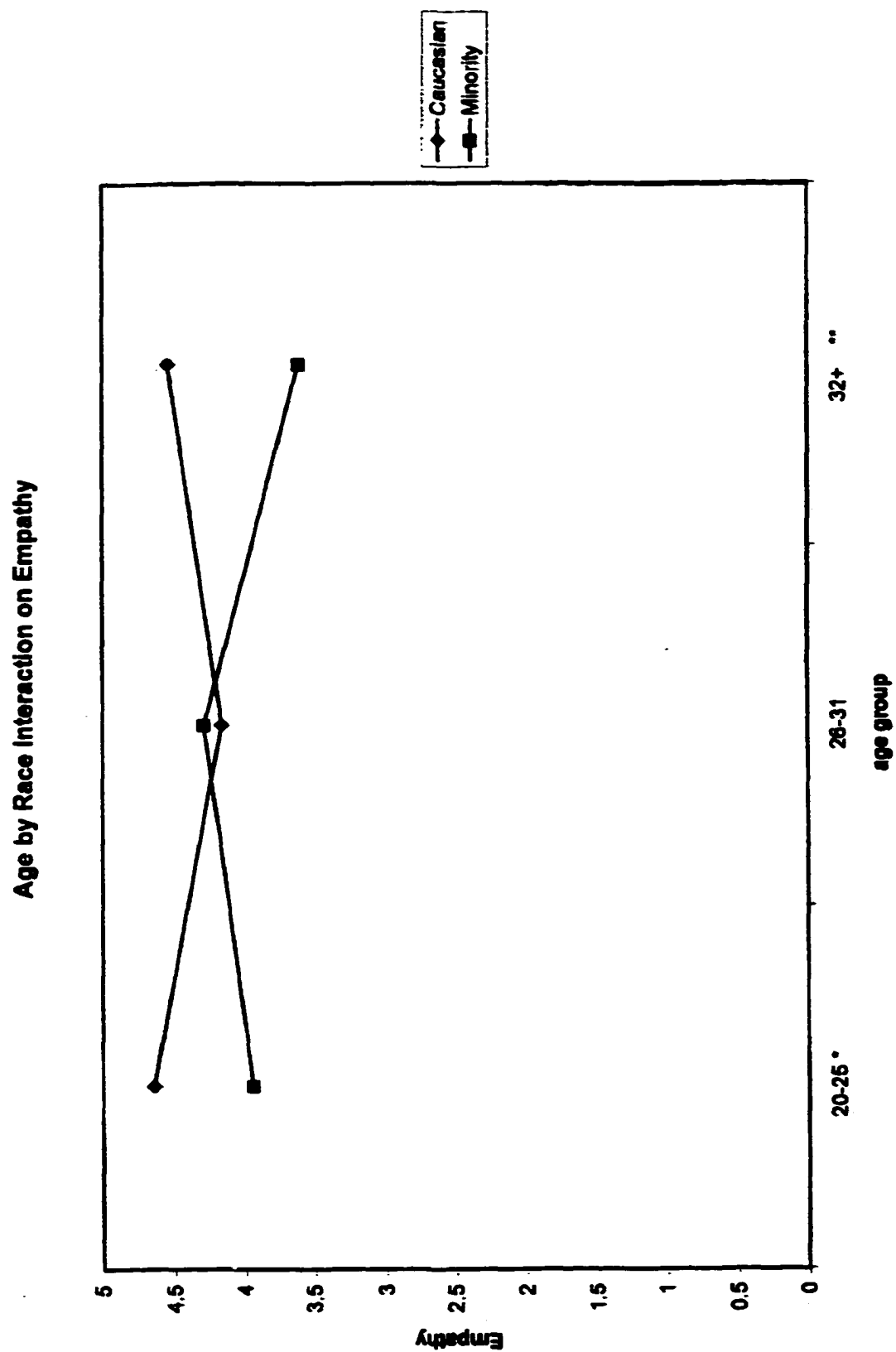
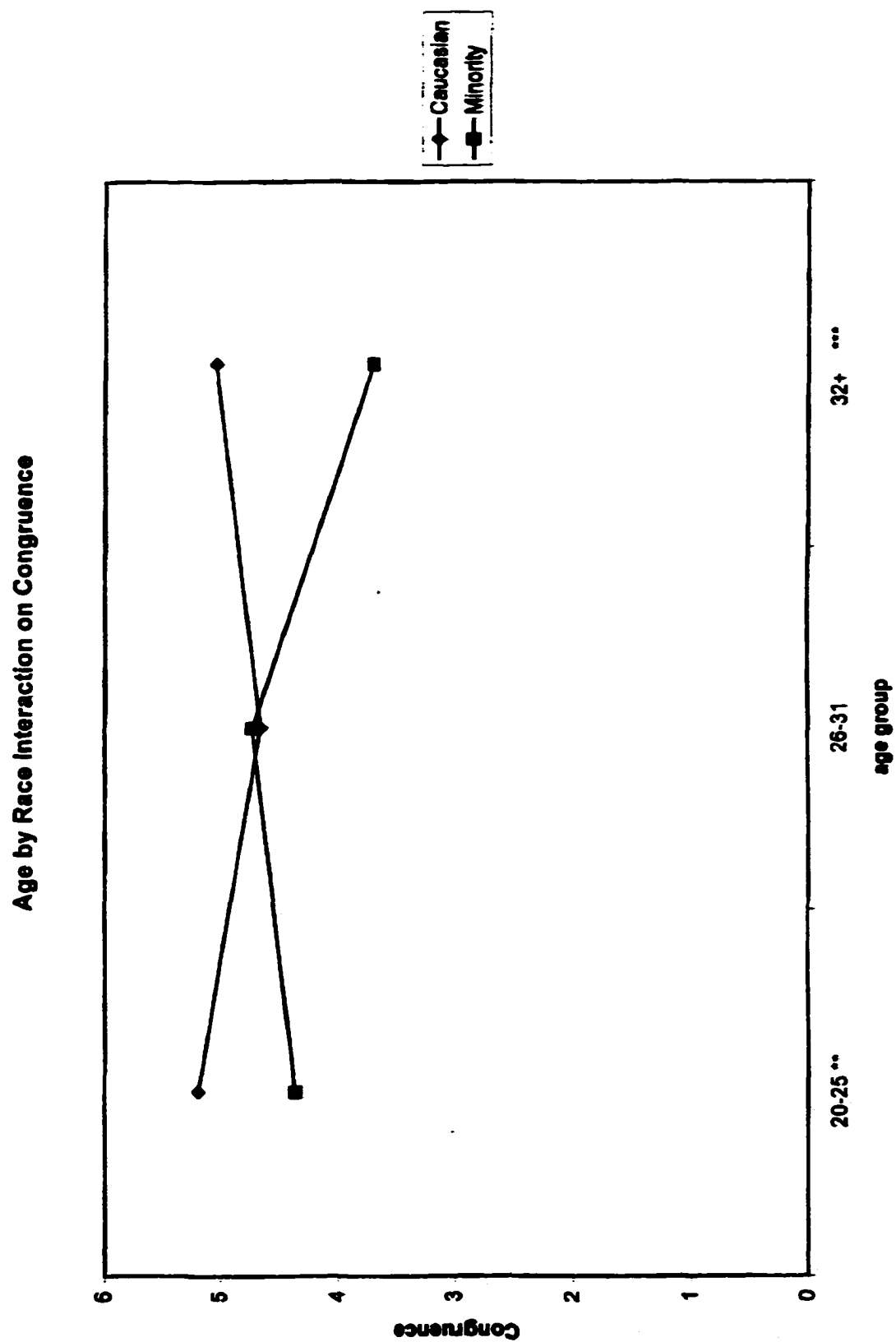Variance explained by each factor ignoring other factors

```
                 FACTOR1    FACTOR2
Weighted       22.221328  12.272656
Unweighted      9.113264   5.476433
Unweighted      9.113264   5.476433
```
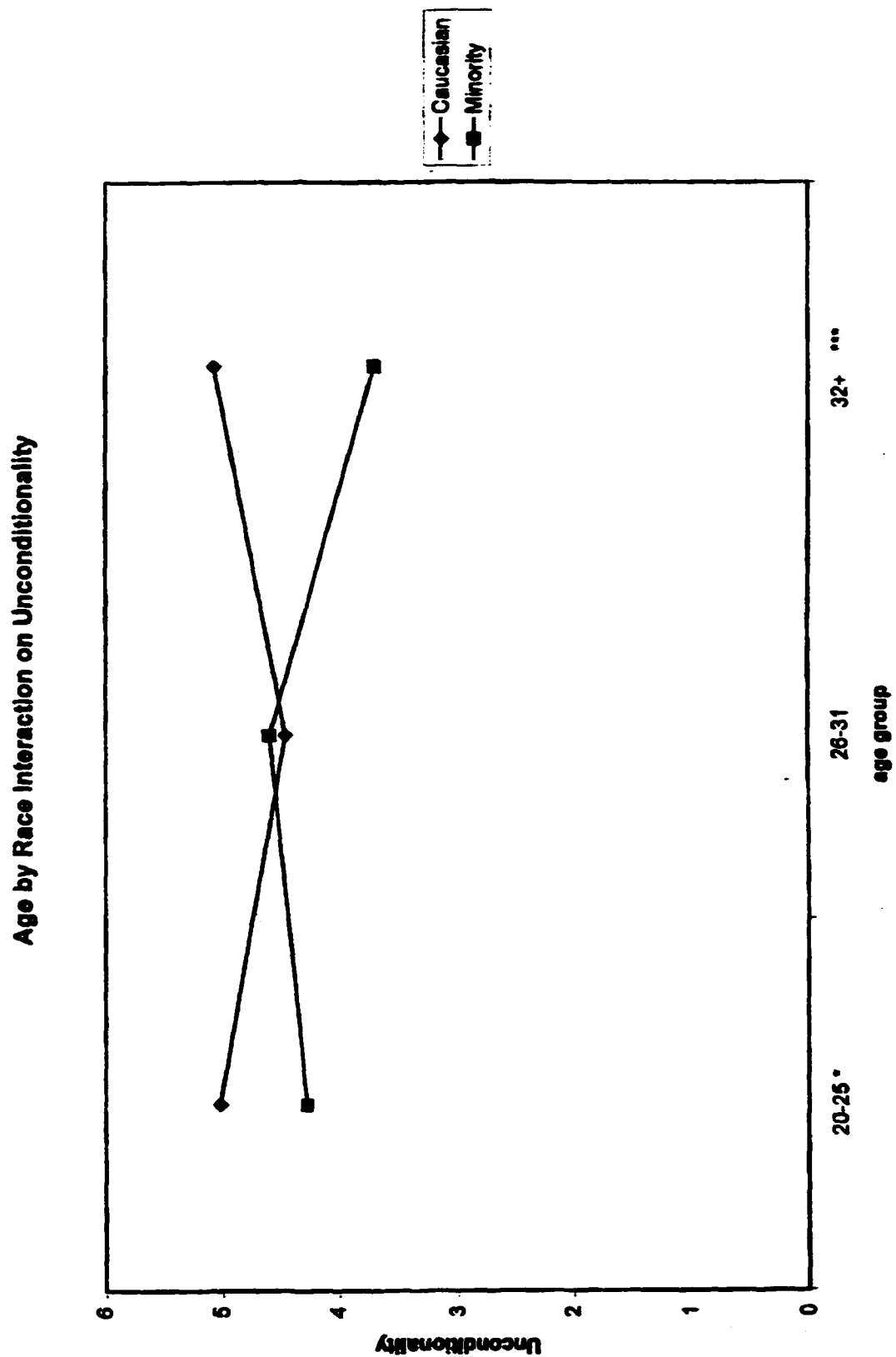
Appendix H

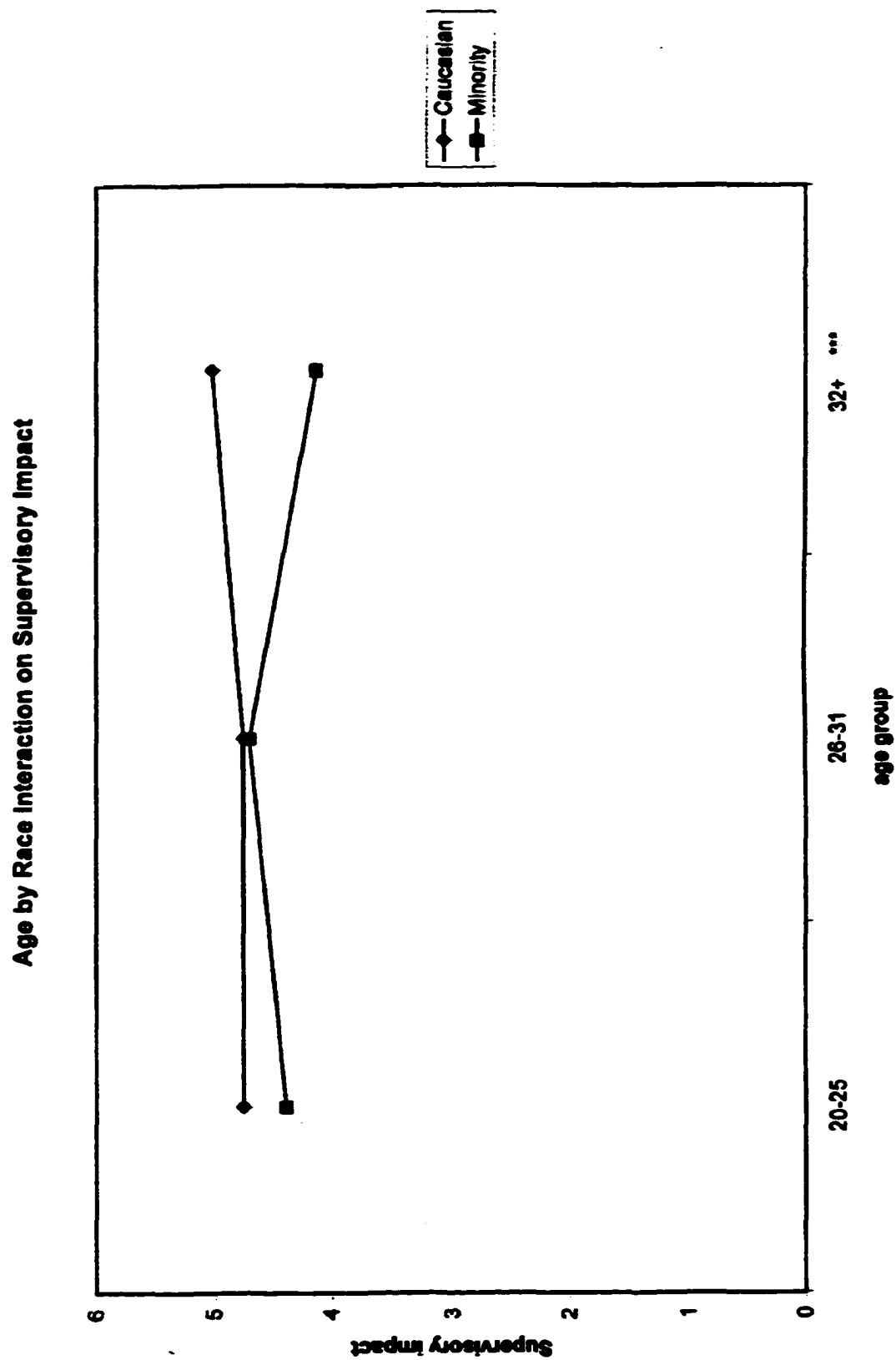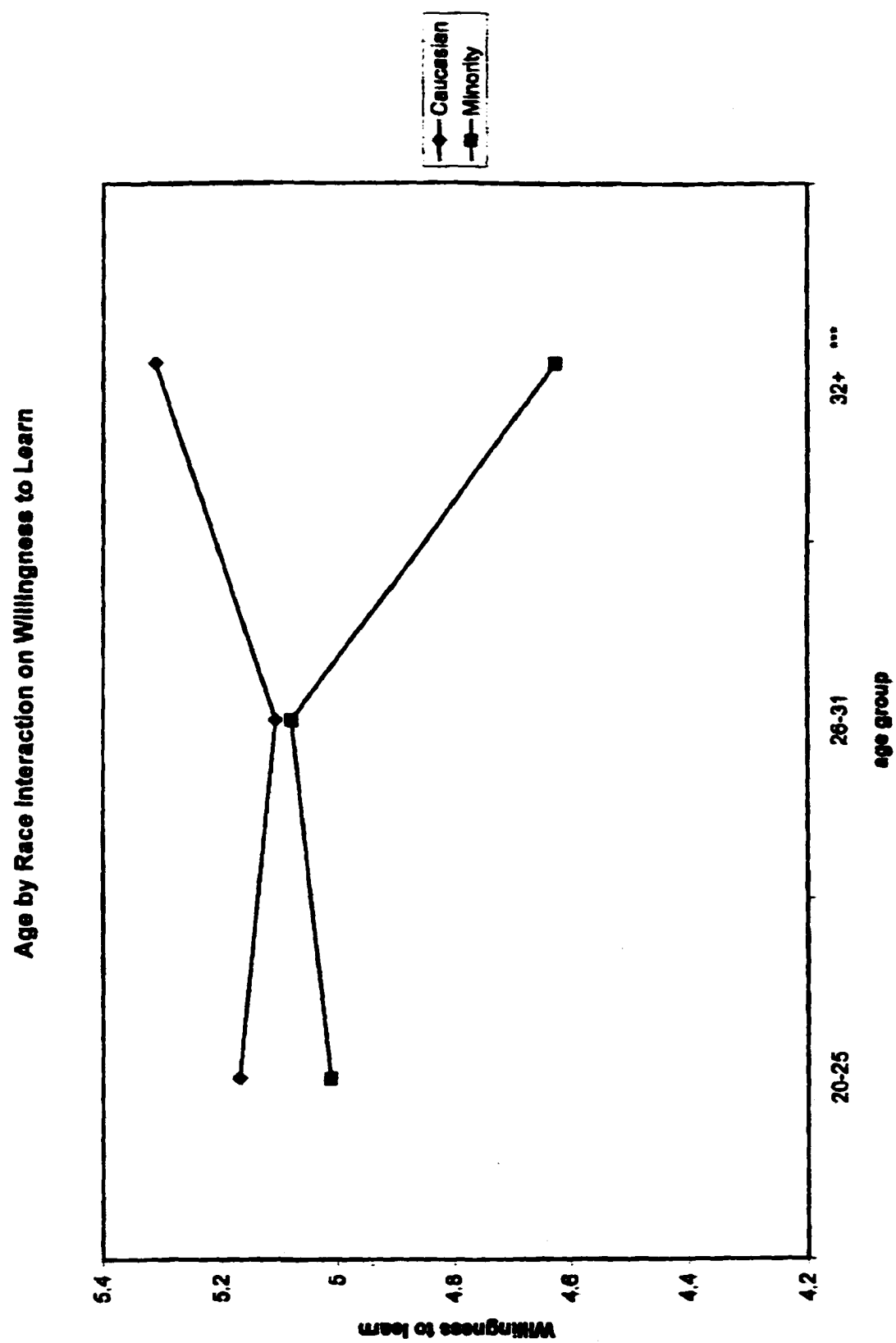Age by Race Interaction on Subscales

Age by Race Interaction on Regard

Legend:
- Caucasian
- Minority

Axes: Regard (vertical, 0 to 6); age group (horizontal): 20-25, 26-31, 32+

Age by Race Interaction on Empathy

Age by Race Interaction on Congruence

Age by Race Interaction on Willingness to be Known

Age by Race Interaction on Unconditionality

Age by Race Interaction on Supervisory Impact

Age by Race Interaction on Willingness to Learn
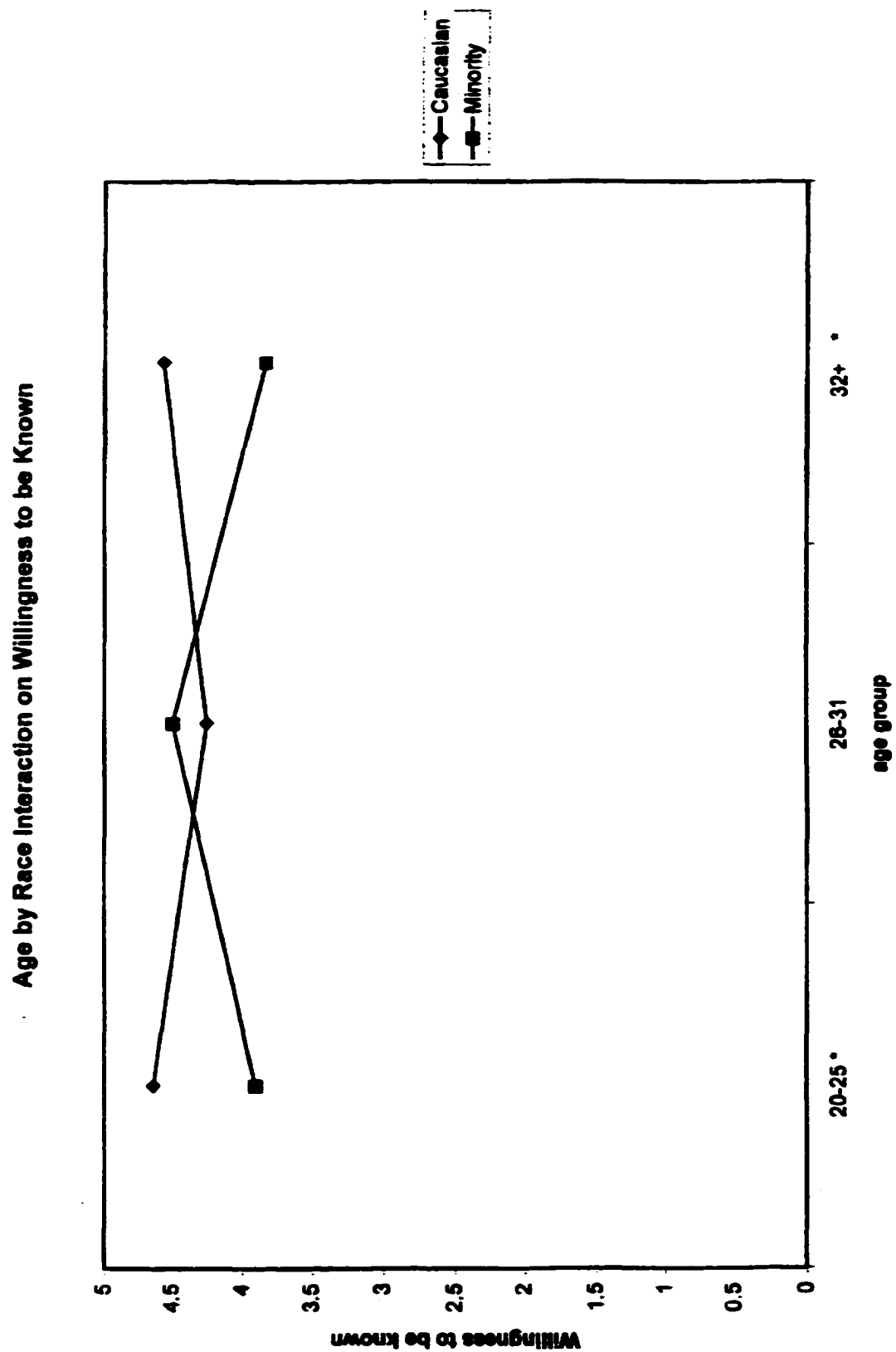
Appendix I

Race by Experience Interaction on Subscales

Race by Experience Interaction on Regard

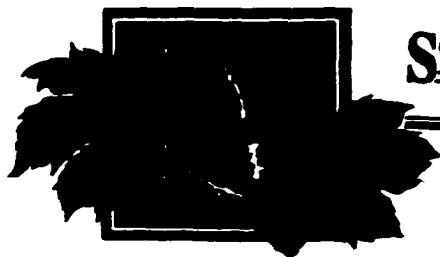**Race by Experience Interaction on Empathy**
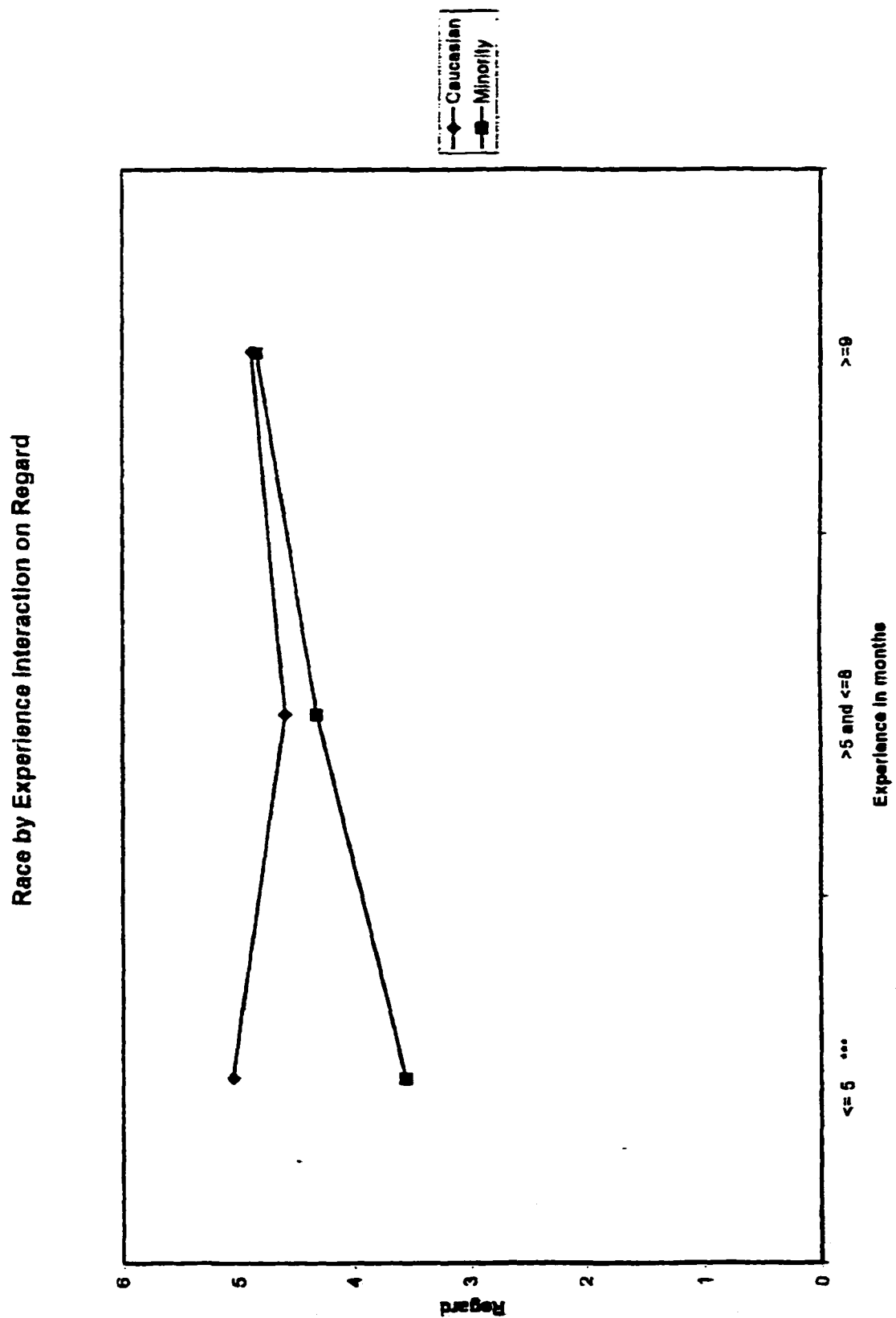
Race by Experience Interaction on Supervisory Impact
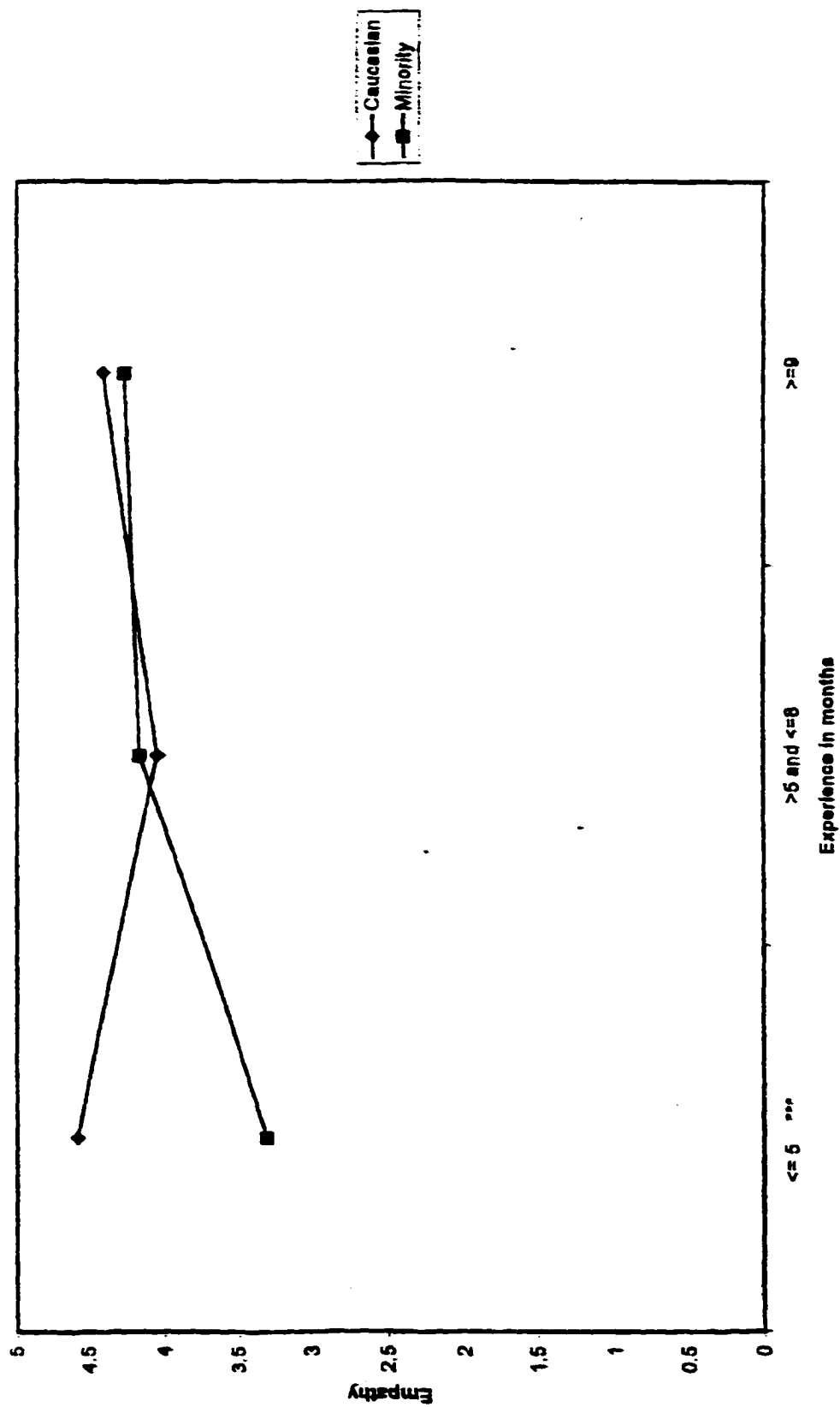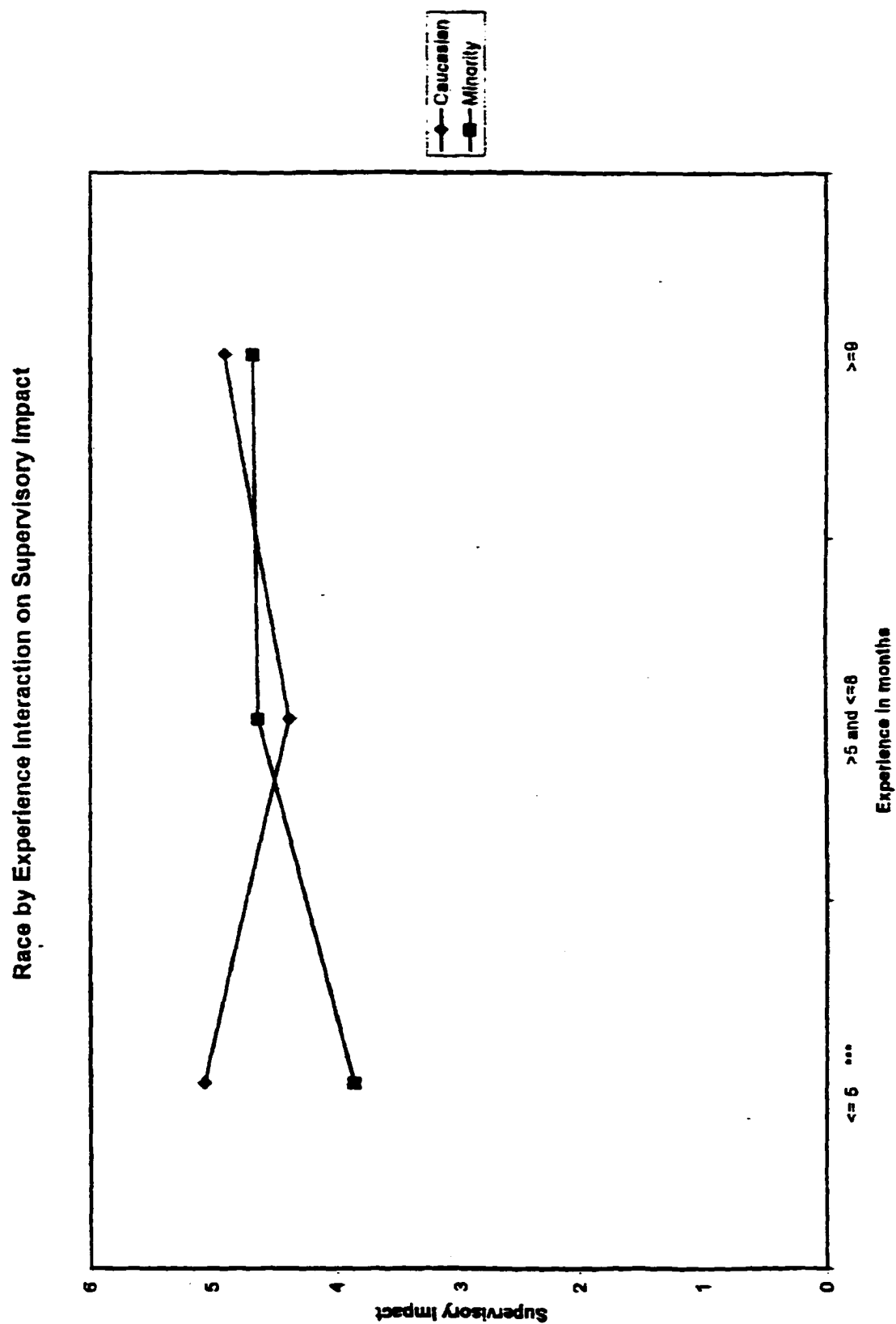
Appendix J

Approval to Use the RRI

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SOUTHEAST ALASKA REGIONAL HEALTH CONSORTIUM
MT. EDGECUMBE HOSPITAL • 222 TONGASS DRIVE • SITKA, ALASKA 99835 • (907) 966-2411

July 7, 1998

Vivian Barnette
100 Western Avenue, K-4
Kalamazoo, MI 49008

Dear Vivian,

As we discussed, I am happy to give my permission to use the Revised Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (RRI) in your research, with the understanding that you acknowledge both me and Barrett-Lennard, who holds copyright on the original instrument. I'm pleased it can be useful to you, and look forward to hearing the results of your research. It sounds like an interesting project! I'd love to get a copy of the abstract when it's completed.

I am including copies of the Form M and L, and the Scoring Key indicating the scale and direction of scoring. If you have any questions about it, feel free to call me at 907-966-8750.

Best wishes on your research!

Sincerely,

Anita Schacht Didrickson, Ph.D.
Community Family Services Coordinator

EXECUTIVE OFFICES • 3245 HOSPITAL DRIVE • JUNEAU, AK 99801 • (907) 463-4000

Appendix K

Approval to Use the SPF-T

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Date: Tue, 16 Jun 1998 08:10:39 -0500
From: Puncky Heppner <psyhepp@showme.missouri.edu>
Subject: RE: Authorization to use SPF
To: X95BARNETTE@wmich.edu
X-Priority: 3 (Normal)

Vivian,

It is nice to hear you want to use the SPF, and I would typically be willing
to send it to on the day I receive the message. Unfortunately, I am in CO
for the summer, and can not send it to until at least Aug 15. Would that be
ok? I am most willing to send it to you, I just do not have access to it
right now. Let me know if that works for you. Puncky

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