

Lived Experiences of Beginning Counselors in Harmful Supervision

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my son, Braxton James, the greatest joy of my life. You were with me through each step of this journey. You were my motivation, comfort, and escape to enjoy life together. My hope is that you will see my love for you, dedication to excellence and connectedness to others as an example for your life and pursuit of happiness.

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Abstract

When supervision moves beyond poor oversight to inciting personal and professional impairment, it becomes harmful. Although there is much in the literature regarding ineffective supervision in general, empirical data explicating harmful supervision is significantly less available. In fact, the negative effects of harmful supervision may be notably more severe than those reported of ineffective supervision (Unger, 1995). The purpose of this study was to provide rich description and meaning of beginning counselors' experiences in harmful supervision. The research question addressed was, "What is the lived experience of beginning counselors in harmful supervision?" Transcendental, existential phenomenology (van Manen, 2014; Thomas & Pollio, 2002) was the chosen method utilized to investigate seven participants' subjective experiences of harmful supervision during their mental health practicum and/or internship training with site and faculty supervisors. The Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998) was used to highlight beginning supervisees' developmental needs and vulnerability to harmful supervision. The significance of the study is two fold. First, I reviewed the previous literature and offered a reconceptualization explaining the outcomes of supervision as influenced by the supervisory relationship, with contributions from *both* the supervisor and supervisee. Second, the current research identified a detailed description of harmful supervision, as called for by Ellis (2001). Strategies for the prevention and management of harmful supervision for supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators are provided. Finally, recommendations for future research are outlined.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Because of its centrality to counselor education, supervision and related research is vast and varied. The dynamics of supervision have an effect on the possible positive or negative outcomes for supervisees (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Goodyear & Bernard, 1998). Dynamics include interactions between the supervisor and the supervisee as well as supervisee observation of the supervisor. Bernard and Goodyear (2009) asserted that many variables influence these interactions, such as individual, cultural, and developmental differences. Specifically, personal style, belief systems, and cultural identity influence how members of the supervisory relationship interact with one another. Additionally, supervisee development and perspective on the supervision experience influences supervision outcomes.

Supervision

Understanding the complexities of supervision is an arduous task (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998). Providing a foundation for the study of supervision involves defining its role and function. A number of scholars provide unique definitions of supervision. In one of the earliest known sources of literature pertaining to counseling supervision, Yager and Litrell (1978) defined clinical supervision as a process by which counselors in both training and practice receive information, support, and feedback as related to their counseling effectiveness. Supervision is a distinct intervention that is separate from, but overlaps with, teaching, psychotherapy, and consultation (Watkins, 2010). The supervisor and supervisee join together to promote the development of the supervisee and protect clients' well-being (Haynes, Corey, & Moulton, 2003). In fact, beginning therapists often rate supervision as the most important aspect in their early professional and personal development (Jacobsen & Tanggaard, 2009). In an effort to redefine clinical supervision, offering a holistic conceptualization, I suggest supervision is

defined by the supervisory relationship, with contributions from both supervisors and supervisees. Furthermore, the outcomes of supervision are explicated by degrees of effectiveness, including effective, ineffective, or harmful experiences.

Effective Supervision

As indicated, supervision is an important aspect of training therapists and counselors (Worthen & Isakson, 2003). Watkins (1997) identified an effective supervisor as having highly valued personal and professional characteristics including empathy, the ability to provide support, demonstrated knowledge, and interest in supervision. Watkins also defined an effective supervisor as interpretive, flexible, respectful, specific, instructive, focused, and practical. In a study investigating productive and nonproductive supervision, Wallace, Wilcoxon, and Satcher (2010) found that successful supervisors could navigate smoothly among the differing roles and functions of supervision. The supervisors considered highly effective demonstrated a balance between the administrative and relational elements of supervision. In order to create the most beneficial learning experience in supervision, supervisors adapt their style according to the individual needs of each supervisee (Jacobsen & Tanggaard, 2009). Adaptations may be influenced by supervisee developmental level and the personal characteristics of the counselor-in-training.

Nurturing the supervisory relationship is at the core of effectiveness (Nelson, Barnes, Evans, & Triggiano, 2008; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Wallace et al., 2010; Watkins, 1997; Yager & Littrell, 1978). Worthen and Isaksen (2003) suggested that mediating variables have potential to affect the supervisory relationship. Variables likely to have an effect are developmental level, supervisee confidence level, and supervisor competence. According to Jacobsen and Tanggaard (2009), beginning therapists preferred supervision that included advice

and clear and specific instructions on how to do the job, theoretical considerations, and support, affirmation and structure from the supervisor within the sessions. Attending to the supervisory relationship clearly helps increase the overall effectiveness of supervision.

Ineffective vs. Harmful Supervision

Examining ineffective psychotherapy supervisory behaviors is equally as important as identifying effective supervisor characteristics (Watkins, 1997). According to Watkins, minimal literature regarding ineffective supervision exists. He reported five studies identifying ineffective supervisory style. Ineffective supervisory behaviors included a lack of empathy and support, failure to consistently track supervisees concerns, lack of teaching or instruction, indirectness and intolerance, closed mindedness, lack of respect for differences, lack of praise and encouragement, sexism, and centralization on evaluation, weaknesses, and deficiencies. Ineffective supervision can be a result of various issues. Supervisors' ineffective styles, behaviors, or lack of behaviors affect the supervisory relationship and the manner in which supervisees interact within supervision.

Supervisees are often reluctant to discuss ineffective supervisory events. This may be a result of the inherent power differential (Bernard, 1979) found in supervision. Additionally, supervisees identify negative supervisory events as rooted in the supervisor's inability to attend to and effectively handle conflict (Gray, Ladany, Walker, & Ancis, 2001). Magnuson, Wilcoxon, and Norem (2000) developed a schema for categorizing ineffective behaviors in supervision, based on supervisee feedback. The authors noted three domains of ineffective supervisory behaviors: administrative/organizational, cognitive/technical, and relational/affective. Although there were different types of ineffective supervision, some similarities included lack of balance and training, inappropriateness, intolerance, apathy, and

poor modeling of professional and personal attributes (Magnuson et al, 2000). Supervisees also described characteristics of ineffective supervisors as indirect, intolerant, close-minded, and sexist (Watkins, 1997). Ineffective supervisors over-emphasized evaluation and focused on supervisees' weaknesses and deficiencies, demonstrating limited ability to attend to power-related issues.

Although supervisees' reports of ineffective supervision are represented in the literature, less knowledge exists about their individual experiences or emotional reactions during or after ineffective supervision. Some of the negative effects of ineffective supervision on supervisees include loss of self-efficacy, career choice uncertainty, and chronic extreme stress (Gray et al., 2001; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). Ineffective supervision may not only affect the overall supervisory relationship and have negative effects on supervisees, but may also negatively affect the supervisees' clients. When supervision moves beyond poor oversight to inciting traumatizing reactions in the supervisee, it becomes harmful. Although there is much in the literature regarding ineffective supervision in general, empirical data explicating harmful supervision is significantly less available. In fact, the negative effects of harmful supervision may be notably more severe than those reported of ineffective supervision (Unger, 1995).

Ellis (2001) suggested a distinction should be made between ineffective supervision and harmful supervision. In a conceptual piece using the research of Gray, Ladany, Walker, and Ancis (2001) and Nelson and Friedlander (2001), Ellis defined bad or ineffective supervision as supervision that does not ultimately harm or traumatize the supervisee. Ineffective supervision occurred when supervisors did not meet supervisees' professional training needs, often involving a poor supervisory relationship, lack of investment, and/or lack of communication. On the other hand, Ellis defined harmful supervision as that which impaired or traumatized supervisee.

Harmful supervision goes beyond ineffective supervision to include damaging and traumatizing outcomes for supervisees (Unger, 1995). Thus, considering outcomes for supervisees, ineffective supervision does not result in harm while harmful supervision is, thus far, defined by the harmful outcomes. Research suggests that power differentials, lack of cultural consideration, and inappropriate relational issues may be directly linked to harmful supervision.

The contexts of harmful supervision are varied. Aspects of the inherent power differential between supervisors and supervisees are often identifiable within supervisory relationships that may be considered harmful (Sork & Chapman, 2001). Abuse of power and authority is considered an ethical violation and one of the greatest concerns within a supervisory relationship (Kurpius & And, 1991). Within the contexts of supervision, especially considering the imbalance of power and vulnerability of supervisees, beginning trainees are particularly sensitive to role ambiguity. In fact, lack of clarity about the supervisors' expectations can lead to diminished self-confidence and a sense of futility (Olk & Friedlander, 1992). Additionally, power differentials provide opportunities for conflict (Nelson et al., 2008). Failure to properly attend to conflict in supervision resulted in a weakened, and potentially harmful, supervisory relationship.

Failure to attend to multicultural differences and related issues between supervisors and supervisees may also promote harmful experiences for supervisees within supervision (McCleod, 2009). For example, a supervisee who represents a visible minority may experience unique challenges in supervision. Wong, Wong and Ishiyama (2013) identified themes that hindered multicultural competence within supervision. The authors emphasized the negativity associated with supervisors' lack of multicultural competence. Multicultural differences may exacerbate negative supervisory experiences.

Other interpersonal issues may negatively affect the supervisory relationship. In addition to the previously mentioned ethical violations with potential for harm, Kurpius and And (1991) noted additional ethical dilemmas of great concern in supervision including transference, counter transference, imposition of the supervisor's personal belief system on the supervisee, dependency, dual relationships, and gender-role and other stereotyping. Jacobs (1991) also included sexual relations with supervisors as a damaging interpersonal relational issue. Research on harmful supervisor actions or neglect in supervision abounds, and includes a variety of supervisor actions and relational interactions that may lead to negative or traumatic outcomes for supervisees. Missing from the literature is the emotional reactions to these harmful interactions as well as the resulting effects of negative supervisory experiences on the supervisee.

Integrated Developmental Model (IDM)

Various models exist to help understand supervision and frame research related to it. Bernard and Goodyear (2009) categorized supervision models into psychotherapy-based, developmental, social role, and eclectic and integrationist models. The model that informs this study, The Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998), frames supervisees' development in terms of motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness. It provides insight into ways in which supervisors might approach supervisees at three developmental levels. Along with an understanding of supervisees motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness, the IDM also provides supervisors with an explanation of the skill sets necessary for supervisees to move on to the next level (Anderson & Bang, 2003).

The IDM suggests a three- level developmental process that supervisees progress through during their training. It is important to note that progression through the three developmental levels is not linear, may involve stagnation at various times, and is not defined in terms of time

(Anderson & Bang, 2003). Level 1 supervisees are inexperienced, have high levels of anxiety, and are sensitive to evaluation (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997). They also are dependent on supervisors and view them as experts (Stoltenberg, 2008). Level 2 trainees experience lower levels of anxiety and sensitivity (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997) as they move closer to autonomy. However, conflict between the supervisor and supervisee is common as the supervisee struggles with independence. Level 3 trainees operate primarily independently, viewing the supervisory relationship as consultative. Within Level 3, trainees at Level 3i (integrated) are considered to be approaching mastery (Stoltenberg et. al, 1998).

Although supervisees experience vulnerability in each level, they are considered the most vulnerable as Level 1 beginners, with little training or experience and in the early stages of supervision (Stoltenberg et al, 1998). This increased vulnerability is due to their high levels anxiety, desires to know *correct* or *best* approaches with clients, dependency, needs for structure and positive feedback (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997). They also exhibit high self-focus, little awareness, and apprehensiveness about evaluation. Level 2 supervisees also experience vulnerability due to tension between dependency and autonomy, as well as doubts in self-confidence (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). The combination of the previously listed characteristics of beginning supervisors may increase their vulnerability to the negative effects of harmful supervision. Although this line of thinking seems logical, there is a lack of empirical evidence in the literature to support this specific link.

Statement of the Problem

Supervision is an integral aspect of the educational process across various mental health disciplines (Watkins, 2010). The purposes of supervision are to foster the development of supervisees and ensure client welfare (Haynes, Corey, & Moulton, 2003). The contexts of

supervision, including supervisee characteristics, supervisor characteristics, and the supervisory relationship, have an effect on the overall outcomes for supervisees (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998), and supervision cannot be effective without a positive supervisory relationship (Gray et al., 2001). In a study investigating trainees' experiences of supervision, Gray and colleagues (2001) found counterproductive events, or experiences that were unhelpful, hindering, or harmful in relation to the trainee's growth as a therapist, such as supervisors being dismissive of their thoughts and feelings, weakened the supervisory relationship. The researchers explained these events negatively impacted the trainees' relationships with clients, as well. Overall, there is much in the literature regarding effective supervision, a notable amount examining ineffective supervision, but much less examining harmful supervision (Watkins 1997).

As previously mentioned, Ellis (2001) defined harmful supervision as supervision that impairs or traumatizes the supervisee. Ellis noted a wide variety of overlapping terms in the literature related to bad supervision and called for the development of a unifying construct and a conceptual framework to guide theory, research, and practice as related to ineffective, and more specifically, harmful supervision. In an early study, Unger (1995) found 15% of supervisees reported being traumatized in supervision, including psychological trauma, professional and personal impairment, loss of self-confidence, and deteriorating mental or physical health. Ellis (2001) explained some supervisees will eventually leave the profession following harmful supervision. He identified a need for studies providing more descriptive and demographic data about ineffective supervisors and the contexts in which harmful supervision occurs.

The Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg et al., 1998) details the high levels of dependency, apprehensions about evaluation, and needs for positive feedback experienced by beginning supervisees. While all supervisees experience some level of

vulnerability due to the evaluative nature of supervision and the power differential within the supervisory relationship, beginning supervisees in Levels 1 and 2 are particularly susceptible to harm. The inherent vulnerability and potential for negative psychological impact on supervisees (Gray et al., 2001), as well as the increased possibility for supervisees to replicate ineffective behaviors and interactions with their clients (Jacobs, 1991), along with the call for future research investigating the experience of harmful supervision (Ellis, 2001) provide the rationale for this study. Considering the particularly vulnerable state of beginning supervisees (Stoltenberg, et al., 1998) and the deleterious outcomes of harmful supervision (Unger, 1995), it is important to investigate the lived experience of beginning counselors who endured harmful supervision.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to fill a gap in the literature regarding harmful clinical supervision (Ellis, 2001). This study began this process by eliciting detailed descriptions of former supervisees' experiences of harmful supervision, as defined by Unger (1995) and Ellis (2001). This study addressed Ellis' (2001) call for detailed descriptions of harmful supervision and adds an element of understanding related to the vulnerable nature of beginning supervisees, including detrimental effects on their personal and professional development. Knowledge about the context of harmful supervision not only enriches the understanding of clinical supervision, but also may help counselor educators avoid harmful supervisory actions and neglect, promote effective supervision, safeguard beginning supervisees in levels 1 and 2 of the IDM (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) from unethical and harmful supervision provided by supervisors, provide calls for future research, and, ultimately, ensure client welfare (ACA, 2014).

The purpose of illuminating beginning supervisees' lived experiences of harmful supervision was served well by approaching the question from a phenomenological perspective. Phenomenological researchers seek to understand the essence of human experience (Hatch, 2002). Using phenomenology as a research methodology is appropriate when it is important to understand several individuals' common or shared lived experiences of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). The proposed methods, based upon van Manen's (2014) approach to phenomenology, with guidance from Thomas and Pollio (2005), served to yield a rich description of supervisees harmful supervisory experiences, including their emotional experience, called for by Watkins (1997) and Ellis (2001). This study illuminated the lived experience of harmful supervision for mental health counseling students during their practicum and internship experiences.

Research Question

The research question guiding this study was "What is the lived experience of beginning counselors who have experienced harmful clinical supervision during their practicum and/or internship training in clinical mental health?" To promote an understanding of participants' lived experiences, I focused on data that provides rich descriptions (Creswell, 2007). Furthermore, using transcendental and existential phenomenology allowed the research to frame the participants' experiences holistically, allowing their subjective meaning to emerge (van Manen, 2014). As little is known about the experience of harmful clinical supervision, adding to the literature from the vantage point of the beginning supervisee helped illuminate the contexts, nuances, and outcomes of such experiences, without placing parameters or boundaries around what that experience actually entails, while setting aside personal biases and interpretations that may color the analysis (van Manen, 2014).

Definition of Terms

Practicum: The first level of applied training for counselors in Master's level counseling programs, generally the supervisees' first instance of therapeutic contact with clients.

Supervisees: Counselors-in-training in university training programs working with clients in applied settings.

Supervisors: Counselors in both university and clinical site settings designated to oversee the professional clinical work of Master's level counselors in training during their individual practicum experiences (ACA, 2014).

Supervision: A process by which counselors in both training and practice receive information, support, and feedback from their supervisors as related to their counseling effectiveness (Yager & Litrell, 1978), required to obtain a degree and license in counseling. Can be referred to as supervision, psychotherapy supervision, or clinical supervision.

Harmful Supervision: Supervision that may potentially lead to detrimental outcomes for supervisees including psychological trauma, professional and personal impairment, loss of self-confidence, deteriorating mental or physical health, (Unger, 1995) or desire to leave the profession (Ellis, 2001).

Delimitations

This study sought to elicit responses from mental health counseling students or graduates reporting instances of harmful supervision during a practicum experience. The most profound delimitation of this study involved the population and participant sample. Because the researcher intended to use snowball sampling by contacting Master's level counseling programs and convenience sampling using CESNET-L, the sample only included participants who were involved with the target programs and/ or subscribe to the list serve.

Limitations

The limitations inherent to the chosen methodology included the potential for researcher bias, subjectivity throughout the study, and the inability to generalize outcomes (Creswell, 2003). Additionally, each participant's comfort level and willingness to share had the potential to limit the information gathered. Although extensive measures to ensure anonymity were utilized, the sensitive nature of the information being sought in this study may have been met with resistance due to the sociopolitical nature of the counseling field.

Organization of Study

In chapter two, the reader will find a review of the literature regarding effective, ineffective, and harmful supervision. This review includes the historical perspective and information about mental health counseling students. An explanation of the Integrated Developmental Model, with a specific focus on beginning counselors is also presented.

Chapter three further explicates the research questions and how they align with the inquiry into the essence of harmful supervision. A detailed description of the participants is included. A thorough explanation of the phenomenological methodology including procedures, instrumentation, and steps for data analysis is also presented. Findings are discussed, along with implications and suggestions for future research. References are provided, along with appendices to further promote the details of the study.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

Chapter one provided a brief overview of supervision, the theoretical framework, the statement of the problem, the purpose of this study, and an introduction into the selected methodology to investigate the lived experiences of beginning supervisees in harmful supervision. Chapter two provides an extended description of empirical and conceptual literature to further the exploration of the multiple facets of supervision and the Integrated Developmental Model. Consideration for the breadth and depth of issues related to clinical supervision begins with history and development of the practice. The chapter continues with a holistic view of effective and ineffective supervision, including the contexts of the supervisory relationship and contributions from both the supervisor and supervisee. Harmful supervision is also illuminated in terms of implications from the supervisory relationship, supervisor, and supervisees, but includes outcomes for supervisees. Gaps in the literature related to the emotional experiences of supervisees in harmful supervision are also highlighted. Finally, the background and development of the Integrated Developmental Model is provided to frame the focus on beginning supervisees and their unique vulnerabilities.

Historical Perspective

An in depth understanding of the contexts and outcomes of clinical supervision starts with an investigation of the practice of supervision within mental health-related helping professions. Early supervision involved social workers supervising the treatment of the poor (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998), while formalized psychoanalytic supervision originated in the 1920s. Psychoanalytic training began with Freud, as did supervision (Watkins, 2010). Early research related to supervision lacked unity and promoted confusion among professionals in the field (Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982). Hansen (1965) reported a lack of understanding

regarding the nature of supervision. Similarly, Wals and Roeber (1962) explained professionals in the field failed to report a unified rationale for supervision.

Definitions of supervision vary depending on the source and context. In 1978, Yager and Littrell defined supervision as a process in which supervisors inform, support, and offer feedback to counselors in both training and practice related to their effectiveness as counselors. The authors insisted supervision was not primarily focused on evaluation of counseling skills. The five models of supervision explicated were direct teaching, therapy, interpersonal process recall using video tapes, self-supervision, and consultation. Also in 1978, Boyd authored a book based on counseling supervision. He detailed suggestions for a comprehensive supervision program in counselor education. Boyd's work was widely accepted and received endorsement by the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (Boyd, 1978).

In a review of the past 100 years of supervision, Watkins (2010) suggested an accurate understanding of the supervision experience is built upon the recognition of its importance in the training and clinical functioning of mental health professionals. An incorporation of the mental processes and behavior of the client, supervisee, supervisor, and setting is also essential. Watkins continued by noting an expansion of theoretical and conceptual models. He credited this expansion, in part, to the inclusion of methodological pluralism and diversity in research and practice. Investigations of positive and negative aspects of supervision, along with considerations for the working alliance, within the literature also promoted efforts to provide more comprehensive models of supervision. Required supervision training for psychotherapy supervisors was also a point of focus as Watkins (2010) detailed the more recent stages of evolution for the profession. Although the field of research has grown, clinical supervision training has been widely ignored in the curriculum of mental health preparation.

Scott, Nolin, and Wilburn (2006) examined guidelines, standards, and practices related to supervision. Master's level students were either minimally or not formally trained in supervision at all in their counseling programs. According to Scott and colleagues, students lacked developmental preparedness to shift from supervisee to supervisor. The certified/accredited curriculum also lacked time for proper training. A large disconnect existed between the heavily supervised atmosphere of a counseling program to the scarcely supervised atmosphere of a new counselor's work environment. The authors also found inconsistencies within the standards and practices of clinical supervision in counseling disciplines. Furthermore, requirements differed between certifying and licensing boards. Discrepancies also existed between state to state regulations. Due to the lack of education and regulation, the cycle continued as supervisors believed their own supervisees could go on to be successful supervisors with little or no training as they did (Scott et al., 2006).

The previously detailed information provides an understanding of the beginning of supervision and how the field of counselor education and supervision evolved over the years. Watkins (2010) suggested clinical supervision is currently receiving attention and respect unlike that of any years past. Until recently, formalized training for counselors with Master's degrees who served as supervisors in clinical settings was lacking. Originally developed by the National Board of Certified Counselors for nationally certified counselors in 1997, the Approved Clinical Supervisor (ACS) credential is now offered to mental health professionals in various fields by the Center for Credentialing and Education (CCE; Center for Credentialing and Education, 2014). The award of this credential requires 30 hours of training centered on models of supervision, roles and functions, techniques, legal and ethical considerations, and practical application (OTI; The Online Therapy Institute, 2014). This nationally approved credential

encourages professional growth, accountability, and professional identity for clinical supervisors. The offering of this unified credential is exciting for the counseling field and related helping professions. It is also inspiring for researchers attempting to fill gaps within the field of clinical supervision research in efforts to offer innovative implications for educators, supervisors, and supervisees (CCE, 2014; OTI, 2014).

Clinical Counseling Supervision

Lack of clarity regarding definitions of supervision may leave supervisors unsure or unable to provide effective supervision. Goodyear and Bernard (1998) studied barriers to drawing inferences from the supervision literature. The ambiguous use of the terms supervision and training by researchers and scholars leads to confusion and limits the pool of knowledge. Confusion regarding expectations also leaves supervisees ill prepared to effectively engage in the supervisory relationship, advocate for their needs, and provide the most effective counseling services to clients (Yager & Littrell, 1978).

Watkins (2000) provided clarity regarding the definition of individual supervision. First, he researched whether supervision was teaching, therapy, consultation, or a combination of the three. According to Watkins, supervision involved some teaching but was not primarily educational in nature. Although some situations required the supervisor to respond in a counseling-like manner, Watkins insisted supervision was not and should not become therapy. Watkins also viewed supervision as not exclusively consultative in role and function either, but felt it may involve some consultation. In essence, Watkins viewed supervision as unique, with some commonalities to teaching, therapy, and consultation. To promote a greater discernment of the breadth and width of the topic, additional definitions for supervision, effective supervision, and ineffective supervision from multiple sources follow.

As a purely unified definition of clinical supervision is not accurately detailed in the literature, I list a number of notable definitions here. Green (2005) defined supervision as the collective environment in which a supervisee is trained, speaking of supervision as *pedagogy*. The term *pedagogy* refers to more than teaching, encompassing multiple systems of curriculum and social dynamics of learning. Wallace and colleagues (2010) described supervision as the provision of the experiential foundation for integrating theoretical principles into practice with increased competence for counselors in training and practice. Additionally, Bordin's (1983) Supervisory Working Alliance concept included the emotional bond between supervisors and supervisees within the definition of supervision. Overall, the goals of supervision are to foster the development of supervisees and ensure client welfare (Haynes, Corey, & Moulton, 2003). Furthermore, CACREP (2009) requires supervision as a critical aspect of the practical training for Master's level practicum and internship students.

For the purpose of this study, clinical supervision is defined as a process by which counselors in both training and practice receive information, support, and feedback from their supervisors as related to their counseling effectiveness (Yager & Littrell, 1978). Supervision is a key element in the academic process required to obtain a master's degree in counseling and it is also a valued component in advanced training as professionals accrue hours towards licensure in counseling.

As supervisors serve as leaders within the supervisory relationship, the prescribed role of the supervisor must be considered. Supervisors are expected to inform supervisees of their expectations, appraise their efforts, provide feedback, and document any issues or interventions (Corey, Corey, & Callanan, 2003). Supervisors should demonstrate the appropriate supervisory

behaviors while building positive relationships, protect supervisees from harm and neglect, and ensure client welfare (ACA, 2014).

From a broad perspective, researchers have analyzed supervision with the following three foci: the supervisory relationship, the supervisors, and the supervisees. Effective, ineffective, and harmful supervision are described next, using these themes as subthemes. Knowledge of effective supervision provides a foundation for understanding ineffective supervision, the purpose of this review. Table 1 describes an overview of the next section and can be used for the reader's reference. Due to the fragmented nature of the literature on supervision, this table provides a way to conceptualize the concepts described in the next sections.

Table 1

A Holistic Conceptualization of Supervision

	Effective	Ineffective	Harmful
Supervisory Relationship	Collaborative, supportive, developmentally appropriate	Unclear expectations, inconsistent	Detrimental, power differential
Supervisor	Collaborative, trustworthy, knowledgeable	Not structured, supportive	Abuse of power, crosses boundaries, invalidating
Supervisee	Discloses, open to feedback, willing to grow	Nondisclosure, defensive, immature	Unwilling to speak up, make requests
Outcomes	Promotes growth and development	Does not promote or may inhibit growth	Prohibits growth, psychological distress

Effective Supervision

The Effective Supervisory Relationship. To further define supervision, one must recognize the centrality of the supervisory relationship to effective supervision (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998). Yager and Littrell (1978) listed the essential dimensions of an effective supervisory relationship, including trust, mutual respect, and collaboration. They reported a trusting relationship as most essential to supervision effectiveness. As supervisors are called to promote the development of supervisees (ACA, 2014), it is fitting to consider supervisors as leaders within the supervisory relationship. In efforts to promote effective supervision, supervisors must maintain a working understanding of the aforementioned dimensions (Yager & Littrell, 1978).

Bordin (1983) conceptualized the supervisory working alliance as one of the most influential aspects of supervision. Similar to the therapeutic alliance in counseling, the supervisory alliance is built upon collaboration, mutual goal setting, agreement upon tasks, and the emotional bond between supervisee and supervisor. Bordin suggested that this alliance is dynamic. Effective supervisors continually work to build upon the alliance as trainees progress through the sometimes challenging learning process of supervision. Bordin (1983) suggested favorable supervisory working alliances promote positive outcomes in supervision.

Ladany, Ellis, and Friedlander (1999) sought to verify Bordin's (1983) supervisory working alliance theory while considering supervisees' self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision. The study included 107 counseling supervisees. Participants completed The Working Alliance Inventory–Trainee version (WAI-T), the Self-Efficacy Inventory (SEI), the Trainee Personal Reaction Scale–Revised, and a demographic questionnaire. Results indicated that when the alliance was strong, trainees' counseling self-efficacy rose. An increase in self-

efficacy was associated with demonstrations of mastery using counseling skills, which promoted supervisees' satisfaction with supervision. The authors suggested supervisors build strong emotional bonds with supervisees to enhance the supervisory working alliance, promote trainee disclosure, and encourage continued supervision past educational and training requirements (Ladany et al., 1999).

Also following Bordin's (1983) work on the supervisory working alliance, Ladany, Brittan-Powell, and Pannu (1997) investigated the effectiveness of supervisory relationships within the contexts of cultural and ethnic diversity. One hundred and five counseling supervisees completed the Cultural Identity Attitude Scale (CIAS), the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS), Perceptions of Supervisor Racial Identity (PSRI), the Working Alliance Inventory-Trainee (WAI-T), the Cross Cultural Counseling Inventory-Revised (CCCI-R), and a demographic questionnaire. Results indicated that when supervisees were paired with supervisors who reported higher levels of racial identity development, both agreed upon the tasks and goals of supervision and had mutual strong emotional bonds, supporting strong supervisory relationships. In dyads of supervisees with low racial/cultural awareness and supervisors with high racial/cultural awareness, strong working alliances also were formed. Supervisory relationships in which both supervisors and supervisees lacked cultural and racial insight, however, were less meaningful, and, ultimately, weaker, resulted in less attachment and bonding between supervisor and supervisee. Conflictual interactions regarding racial and cultural awareness demonstrated the weakest supervisory working alliances. Ladany et al (1997) suggested supervisors assess their own and their supervisees' racial and cultural awareness to promote strong supervisory relationships and multicultural competence.

Formal evaluation is a central component of supervision and also can affect the supervisory relationship. Lehrman-Waterman and Ladany (2001) conducted a study to develop the Evaluation Process Within Supervision Inventory (EPSI). Two hundred seventy-four supervisees completed the EPSI, the Working Alliance Inventory, the Self-Efficacy Inventory, and a demographic questionnaire. Results indicated effective goal setting and feedback strengthen the supervisory relationship, enhance supervisees' perceptions of supervisors influence on self-efficacy, and promote supervisees satisfaction with supervision. The authors suggested supervisors and supervisees join together to formulate goals that are specific, feasible, and measurable. Lehrman-Waterman and Ladany (2001) also encouraged supervisors to provide systematic, timely, and clear feedback while balancing constructive criticism and encouragement.

During a roundtable discussion in 2003 at the American Psychological Association's annual conference in Toronto, Worthen and Isakson (2003) reported mediating variables had potential to affect the supervisory relationship. Variables likely to have an effect were developmental levels and experience of the supervisor and supervisee, supervisor competence, and supervisee confidence level. The presenters suggested supervisors attend to these variables as they create, assess, and facilitate the supervisory relationship to ensure effective supervision with supervisees at various levels. Furthermore, Worthen and Isakson (2003) suggested supervisors offer appropriate self-disclosures, collaborate on goal setting, demonstrate empathy, and provide explicit formative and summative feedback to enhance the supervisory relationship.

Supervision is an essential element of the training process for counselors and the supervisory relationship is central to effectiveness of supervision. The most effective relationships are built upon trust, mutual respect, collaboration, and a strong bond between

supervisor and supervisee. Supervisees prefer collaboration, empathy, respect for diversity, and clear, constructive feedback from supervisors. Supervisees contribute to the effective supervisory relationship by being prepared with the proper documentation and materials, as well as demonstrating openness by being willing to disclose, accept feedback, and grow personally and professionally. Further details regarding supervisors' and supervisees' contributions to the process of supervision are outlined below.

The Effective Supervisor. Characteristics of both the supervisor and supervisee affect the supervisory relationship. Supervisors' contributions to effective supervision include personal and professional characteristics, behaviors during and outside supervision, and management of the supervisory relationship. Suggestions for effective practice are provided.

In one of the earliest studies of effective and ineffective supervision, Allen, Szollos, and Williams (1986) asked doctoral students to evaluate their best and worst experiences in psychotherapy supervision. To investigate supervisees' perceptions of high quality supervision, the authors mailed questionnaires to 50 doctoral programs to be distributed to three male and three female graduate students in each program. Sixty-eight men and 74 women responded for a response rate of 47% from 37 institutions. Descriptions of quality were expertise (as perceived by the supervisees) and trustworthiness of the supervisor, duration of training, and consideration of personal growth issues over the teaching of technical skills. Highly rated supervisors used psychodynamic rather than behavioral approaches, and communicated effectively by expressing clear expectations and feedback. Allen et al. (1986) suggested supervisors build strong and positive supervisory relationships based on trust, clarity, and mutual respect.

In another early exploration of effective supervisor characteristics, Carifio and Hess (1987) explored and integrated current supervision literature in an attempt to characterize the

ideal supervisor. The authors noted the discrepancy between commonly accepted guidelines methods to therapy and the lack of such clarity for supervision. Three categories emerged from their survey of information regarding the ideal supervisor.

First, personal characteristics of the ideal supervisor were described as empathetic, genuine, warm, respectful, knowledgeable, and concrete. Carifio and Hess (1987) explained effective supervisors demonstrated the appropriate level of each of these conditions in different situations within supervision. The second category described the specific actions observed of the ideal supervisor, including structure in early meetings and continued development of the supervisory relationship. Ideal supervisors worked with supervisees to build relationships on openness, trust, mutual understanding, communication, collaboration, explicit goal setting. The supervisors engaged in brainstorming, role play, modeling, and guided reflection. They also demonstrated an awareness of the boundaries of supervision, only discussing supervisees' personal issues that related directly to their clinical work. The final category included the methods and approaches employed by ideal supervisors. Overall, the supervisors approached supervision with confidence, enthusiasm, and openness to supervisees' suggestions. They were also supportive as they provided systematic, timely, clear, and reciprocal feedback. Carifio and Hess (1987) suggested supervisors consider each of the previously detailed categories to provide the most effective supervision experiences.

Similarly, Worthington and Roehlke (1979) completed an early investigation of supervisees' experiences of effective supervision. Thirty-one practicum students rated their supervisory experiences in terms of effectiveness on a 7 point Likert-type scale within the following three dimensions: satisfaction with supervision, supervisor competence, and contribution of supervision to improved counselor ability. The supervisees described effective

supervisor characteristics as pleasant and personable. Specifically, these characteristics included ability to build good rapport, encouragement for supervisees to develop their unique styles, promoting supervisees' self-confidence, use of humor during supervisory sessions, and addressing supervisees by name. Good supervisors provided training supervisees considered useful, specifically offering structure and instruction regarding counseling skills, tracking supervisees behaviors during supervision and in counseling sessions, and highlighting strengths. They also offered support and encouragement as supervisees developed their approaches to counseling by testing new skills with clients. Worthington and Roehlke (1979) suggested using this information in training supervisors and in continuing education efforts for experienced supervisors.

In a more recent study investigating productive and nonproductive supervision, Wallace et al. (2010) surveyed 278 ACA members with a 19 item survey titled the Supervisory Behavioral Profile (SBP). Factor analysis evaluated participants' reports of best and worst supervision experiences. The best supervisors seamlessly negotiated the differing roles and functions of supervision relative to administrative and relational elements of supervision. The researchers suggested supervisors integrate roles and expectations when working with supervisees. They also recommended supervisees experience the role of supervisor to better understand the process of supervision and, ultimately, further the promotion of effective supervision (Wallace et al., 2010).

Likewise, Worthen and McNeill (1996) also explored supervisors' specific behaviors or qualities that led to effective supervision. Using a phenomenological approach, the authors found supervisees' indicated the following characteristics described good supervisors: empathic, nonjudgmental, validating, non-defensive, and willingness to examine their own assumptions.

Supervisees appreciated supervisors who normalized their struggles while encouraging them to explore information regarding counseling skills and approaches. Effective supervisors also encouraged supervisees to take risks. As a result of these effective supervisory relationships, supervisees enhanced their confidence levels, further developed their professional identities, were more open to the learning and skill building processes, and increased perception during counseling sessions. Worthen and McNeill (1996) suggested supervisors attend to supervisees' developmental levels while maintaining congruence between their interpersonal interaction styles, theoretical base, practical approaches, and experience.

Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) investigated effective supervision in terms of supervisees' satisfaction and perceived self-efficacy. Eighty-two master's level counseling supervisees completed the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI), the Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ), and the Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE). Multiple regression analysis indicated attractive and interpersonally sensitive styles were linked to satisfaction, whereas task-oriented supervision was affected by supervisees' perceived self-efficacy. The authors suggested supervisors maintain an awareness of how supervisory styles may influence supervisees' satisfaction with supervision and perceptions of self-efficacy. Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) also recommended supervisors adapt their approaches throughout supervision. They also called for research related to supervisory styles, satisfaction and self-efficacy, and outcomes of supervision.

Further consideration of approaches supervisors use to promote effectiveness continues with Bernard's (1979/1997) Discrimination Model (DM). The DM suggested training supervisors to function within context of two dimensions: supervisory focus and supervisor role. In order to be effective, supervisors focus on intervention, conceptualization, and personalization

skills while working with supervisees. The effective supervisor navigates the supervisory roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant in various circumstances throughout supervision. The DM recommended supervisors assume a teaching role when directly instructing and providing information to supervisees. The role of counselor was suggested for helping supervisees work through personal issues that affected supervisees' work with clients, for example, countertransference. Finally, a consultative role was recommended as supervisees are able to function independently with minimal feedback.

Weng and Liao (2007) investigated the impact of supervisory interventions on supervisees. From supervisory sessions reported by one supervisory dyad using interpersonal process recall, Weng and Liao (2007) analyzed thirteen supervisory events in relation to the DM. Results indicated the role of teacher was most commonly used, followed by personalization. The impact on supervisees was positive. The authors suggested supervisors use the DM to adapt their roles and interventions as they progress through the stages of supervision (Weng & Liao, 2007).

The importance of role assumption within the supervisory relationship calls for supervisors to lead supervisees during role induction to promote effective supervision. Therefore, Vespia, Heckman-Stone, and Delworth (2002) assessed 145 supervisees and 31 supervisors. Participants completed the Supervision Utilization Rating Form (SURF) to identify behaviors and characteristics to determine effective use of supervision at various developmental levels. Vespia et al. (2002) recommended supervisors utilize the SURF during role induction and training of supervisees to ensure effective supervision.

Power is another integral aspect of supervision, as supervisors monitor supervisees' personal and professional development while considering the welfare of clients (Nelson et al., 2008). These qualities leave power in the supervisory relationship inherently unequal. Power

differentials can provide opportunities for conflict. To determine how to effectively handle conflicts in supervision, Nelson et al. (2008) interviewed eight female and four male supervisors rated as highly competent by their peers. The interviews explored experiences of conflict in supervision. The authors also asked about dependable strategies for managing conflict within supervision. The supervisors reported providing opportunities for processing interpersonal issues, being open to conflict, willingness to acknowledge shortcomings, consideration of developmental stages, and willingness to learn from their own mistakes. In order to be effective, the authors encouraged supervisors' openness to discussion regarding the supervisory relationship and parallel process. Carefully identifying developmental needs, providing timely feedback to supervisees, and highlighting supervisees' strengths were also essential in managing conflict and promoting effective supervision (Nelson et al., 2008). Finally, proper training for supervisors is at the core of their potential for effectiveness. In a comprehensive review of conceptual and empirical literature related to supervision in counselor education, Borders (2005) discussed themes and trends from national and international counseling journals to inform effective clinical supervision practice. Borders outlined the development of counseling supervision as a distinct profession, beginning with work within the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) to create standards for counseling supervisors, education and ethical guidelines, and the collaborative work with the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) to offer the Approved Clinical Supervisor (ACS) credential. The author noted the trend for supervision literature as increasingly more application based, rather than theoretical. Of the supervision approaches Borders (2005) explored, she highlighted the use of self-efficacy theory in counselor education and supervision, as well as cognitive complexity, developmental models, and attention to specialty areas such as career, suicide, and spirituality.

Border's (2005) review also represents a number of ethical and legal issues clinical supervisors must address. Topics included the necessity of school counselor supervision, unique ethical considerations for school and rehabilitation supervisors, personal disclosure statements, supervisor vulnerability to malpractice, and the efficacy of mandated supervision for counselors under discipline from a licensing board. Furthermore, Borders discussed implications for effective multicultural supervision, including integrating cultural awareness into theoretical approaches, addressing privilege, oppression, and racial identity development, as well as offering bilingual supervision. Primarily from Borders' (2005) review of empirical studies, the following implications were offered: a need for a thorough understanding of what supervision is, supervisor responsibility to create a safe and challenging learning environment for supervisees, greater attention to the dynamics of supervisory relationships, focus on cultural issues, greater diversity in research samples, and provision of clear and focused feedback to supervisees should be clear and focused.

Milne, Sheikh, Pattison, and Wilkinson (2011) discussed the essential nature of supervision training, highlighting historical issues in training and the current lack of focus in clinical supervision literature. In fact, the authors explained supervision is still practiced incompetently. They credit this incompetence to the lack of supervision competencies and consensus on effective training. Although the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) requires supervision training at the doctoral level for counselors, a number of professional groups do not adopt such standards. The authors conducted a meta-analysis to review and assess 11 controlled studies to illuminate evidence-based practices for clinical supervision training. The collective results supported corrective feedback, educational role-play, and observational learning as effective modalities to utilize during

supervision training. Milne and colleagues (2011) recommended both didactic and experiential methods of supervision training, including theoretical content, relevant research, ethical and professional issues, simulated experience, in vivo practice, feedback, and consultation.

Overall, the supervisors' contribution to the effective supervisory relationship and trainee's experiences are bolstered by structure, caring, support, and understanding. Proper training for supervisors is essential, along with a clear understanding of their approaches and intentionality in adjusting their methods according to their trainees' needs. The focus now shifts to contributions from supervisees.

The Supervisee in Effective Supervision. Not only do supervisors affect the supervisory relationship and overall effectiveness of supervision, but supervisees also contribute to the process and outcomes. The supervisee characteristics that affect supervision include attachment and learning style, personality, feelings about shame, desire to feel competent, and background (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Bernard and Goodyear suggested supervisors attend to these characteristics throughout the process of supervision by adjusting their styles and having open discussions about how these factors influence the supervisee's supervision experience. Additionally, Vespia, Heckman-Stone, and Delworth (2002) suggested supervisees may benefit from guidance on getting the most out of supervision.

Heppner and Roehlke (1984) completed an early investigation of the subjective experiences of counselors in training during beginning and advanced practicum, as well as counselors in internship supervision. In three separate studies, they interviewed 145 practicum and doctoral interns concerning their perceptions of the interpersonal dynamics with supervisors, effective supervisor behaviors, and critical events in supervision. The authors found variability related to the interpersonal influences within the supervisory relationship, dependent upon the

supervisee's level of training. The results suggest a developmental model of supervision, with attention to individual supervisee characteristics, is necessary to promote trainees' perceptions of effective supervision (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984).

Early on, Rodenhauser, Rudisill, and Painter (1989) noted a lack of empirical information regarding effective supervisee characteristics. The authors surveyed 65 psychotherapy supervisors to investigate supervisees' contributions to the learning process in supervision. Analysis of results provided five overarching categories of effective supervisee characteristics. The first category included basic personal qualities, such as openness, reliability, organization, integrity, and interpersonal competence. The second and third categories focused on characteristics that promote positive relationships with supervisors and clients, such as flexibility, respectfulness, enthusiasm, and nonjudgmental attitude. The fourth and fifth categories related to characteristics needed for learning and growth, including intellectual curiosity, introspection, cognitive complexity, and willingness to explore self. Rodenhauser et al. (1989) suggested supervisors use knowledge about effective supervisee characteristics during role induction, discussions of mutual expectations, prediction of challenges, assessment, and motivation for improvement by supervisees.

In addition to consideration for supervisees' contributions to the learning process of supervision, what they bring to the supervisory relationship must also be explored. Riggs and Bretz (2006) investigated attachment processes in supervision. Eighty-seven doctoral-level psychology interns' completed surveys to report their perceptions of supervisor attachment style and the bond within the supervisory relationship. Using path analysis, the authors suggested the supervisory alliance was shaped by supervisees' experiences of parental indifference, compulsive self-reliance, and their perceptions of their supervisors' attachment styles.

Furthermore, supervisees' perception of securely attached supervisors was related to higher ratings of the relational bond. Riggs and Bretz (2006) insisted attachment constructs in both childhood and adulthood are relevant considerations at beginning and advanced levels of supervision.

As previously detailed, a great emphasis on the effective characteristics and behaviors of supervisors within supervision exists in the literature. However, a minimal amount exists on the training of supervisees regarding their role in the process of supervision. Vespia, Heckman-Stone, and Delworth (2002) explained supervisees are ill-informed regarding their contributions to supervisory relationships and the outcomes of supervision. Ambiguity about the role of supervisee paired with the inherent power differential and stress regarding evaluation leaves supervisees ill-prepared and vulnerable. In a study of 176 clinical supervisors and supervisees, the authors administered the Supervision Utilization Rating Form (SURF) to investigate the use of effective supervision at various supervisee developmental levels. Findings suggested a difference in what supervisors and supervisees considered effective behaviors in supervision. Vespia and colleagues noted the discrepancy between supervisors' expectations for supervisees' to contribute to the supervisory relationship and the supervisees' knowledge of their ability to do so. The authors suggested using the SURF as supervisors engage in role induction with supervisees (Vespia et al., 2002), in order to promote knowledge and application of effective supervisee behaviors and characteristics.

In a conceptual piece, Pearson (2004) considered the supervision literature to offer suggestions for pre-practicum students preparing for supervision. Pearson illuminated supervisees' potential to affect the quality of the supervisory relationship, ultimately promoting effective supervision. Supervisees should come to the first meeting prepared to share

information about themselves, their educational requirements, strengths and weaknesses, theoretical orientations, interests, and goals. Functional issues must also be addressed, including schedules, agency rules, documentation, informed consent, confidentiality with clients, and emergency/crisis procedures. Pearson (2004) suggested that following the previously mentioned recommendations would enable supervisees to contribute to and ensure strong supervisory relationships from the beginning. Further elaboration on recommendations for students transitioning to supervision follows in subsequent sections.

Not only is it important to consider effective supervisee characteristics and their understanding of their roles and contributions to supervision, but also attention to supervisees' preferences for feedback and evaluation in supervision is paramount in ensuring effective supervision. Heckmann-Stone (2004) conducted a review of empirical and conceptual literature regarding trainees' preferences for feedback and evaluation in multiple fields including counseling, psychology, and social work. The author identified constructive feedback as an effective agent of change, specifically in skills development, and is preferred by supervisees as compared to didactic instruction. Effective feedback was clear, objective, frequent, consistent, credible, and reciprocal. The author also attended to the importance of matching feedback and evaluation to supervisees' developmental levels. In a pilot study conducted by Heckmann-Stone (2004), 40 supervisees from clinical psychology, counseling psychology, and master's level counseling programs completed the EPSI, a Likert-type measure of feedback and evaluation, as well as open-ended questions regarding good and poor experiences in an interview. Descriptive and content analyses supported balanced, accurate, and immediate feedback, as well as a collaborative relationship and availability of the supervisor. Heckmann-Stone (2004) suggests supervisors and supervisees be clear about goals and objectives, make space for supervisee self-

evaluation, and begin formal evaluations by processing positive feedback and progress to negative feedback.

Hoffman, Hill, Holmes, and Freitas (2005) also investigated the effect of feedback on supervision from the supervisor's perspective. Fifteen supervisors described their experiences with fifteen supervisees in semi-structured interviews. Researchers analyzed the data using Consensual Qualitative Research (CQR). Overall, supervisors found it easier to provide feedback to some supervisees than others. The ease of providing feedback was related to the supervisees' openness. Supervisors were hesitant to give constructive feedback to supervisees perceived as defensive, resistant, immature, and fragile. Supervisees described as open to feedback desired positive and critical feedback, were eager to learn, committed to doing well in therapy, willing to admit a problem, mature, well-functioning, and psychologically healthy. Furthermore, feedback was more comfortably given and received within the contexts of strong supervisory relationships. When providing feedback regarding the supervisory relationship would have been difficult or caused additional issues, supervisors chose not to provide difficult feedback. Hoffman et al. (2005) suggested providing workshop for supervisees to understand what to expect from feedback, how to ask for feedback, and how to respond to feedback.

Supervisees enter supervision with backgrounds and personal characteristics that undoubtedly affect their views of their supervisors, clients, and the processes of supervision and counseling. As their lack of experience produces an inherent vulnerability within supervision, it is important for supervisors have an awareness of supervisees' individual characteristics and how they impact the overall effectiveness of supervision. Supervisors and counselor educators must also demonstrate efforts to conduct supervisee role induction and demonstrate sensitivity to supervisees' preferences for and reception of feedback.

As previously detailed, nurturing the supervisory relationship is one of the most important considerations for promoting effective supervision. The characteristics and behaviors of supervisor considered most effective include empathy, competence, attentiveness, and structure. Supervisees' backgrounds and characteristics also influence the effectiveness of supervision, as does their perceptions of the supervisory relationship and willingness to disclose. Effective supervision encompasses a balance of nurturing the supervisory relationship and supervisors adapting their methods to meet the individual needs of their supervisees, along with supervisees' informed contributions to the process of supervision.

Ineffective Supervision

Research and theory pertaining to supervision continues to evolve (Watkins, 1997). Watkins suggested literature regarding ineffective supervision is lacking in volume, although some research on this topic exists. Watkins (1997) believed examining ineffective behaviors within clinical supervision was equally as important as identifying effective supervisor characteristics. This review continues by defining ineffective supervision, detailing aspects of the supervisory relationship reported to produce unfavorable outcomes, noting characteristics of ineffective supervisors, and highlighting efforts of supervisees who lack effective supervision to seek help in their times of need. In an effort to view the multiple facets of the supervisory relationship, including input from both the supervisors and supervisees, a shift in focus now expands to ineffective supervision.

The Ineffective Supervisory Relationship. In a literature review combined with their own experiences of supervision, Bartlett and Mercer (2000) investigated the supervisory relationship, focusing on power differentials. They found choosing to neglect attendance to power dynamics in supervisory relationships engenders the continued acceptance of ineffective

and sometimes harmful approaches to supervision and inhibits the development of positive relationships. Bartlett and Mercer described power relationships from three perspectives. First, supervision is often centered on the hierarchical metaphor of power in which the supervisor is the expert who must discipline the unknowing student. Second, familiar and widely accepted models of fraught discipleship, isolation, conflict, and trauma molded many supervisory relationships. Third, familial roles damaged these professional relationships. The authors recommended nurturing the supervisory relationship by attending to supervisees' diversity and developmental needs to empower supervisees and promote a positive supervision experience (Bartlett & Mercer, 2000).

In a study investigating supervisees' experiences of effective and ineffective supervision, Ladany, Mori, and Mehr (2013) used a mixed methods design to investigate best and worst supervisors in terms of effective and ineffective skills, techniques, and behaviors. Supervisors' ineffective client conceptualizations, along with a primary focus on evaluation and limitations, negatively affected the supervisory alliance. The authors encouraged supervisors to offer balanced interactions, demonstrate attentiveness, and provide task-oriented structure. They also recommended supervisees contribute to a more meaningful supervisory relationship experience by allowing for a lower frequency of nondisclosures. Ladany et al. (2013) also suggested supervisors set goals and provide formative and summative feedback to supervisees.

Ramos-Sánchez et al. (2002) also studied the supervisory alliance within the context of negative supervisory events. The authors surveyed 126 practicum and internship students to investigate interactions between supervisees' developmental levels, the working alliance, attachment styles, and negative experiences in supervision. The supervisory relationship was found to be the most influential factor in supervisees' perceptions of supervisory alliance

effectiveness. The authors suggested supervisors primarily focus on the supervisory relationship with beginning practicum students to prevent and manage negative supervisory events that may affect the effectiveness of supervision. Ramos-Sánchez et al. (2002) also recommended practicum and internship coordinators implement strategies to find best fits between supervisors and supervisees.

Olk and Friedlander (1992) expressed interest in the exploration of the roles within the supervisory relationship. The authors reported trainees are expected to carry out many roles, each with their own set of expectations. These roles include student, client, therapist, supervisee, and client. Therefore, Olk and Friedlander (1992) examined trainees' experiences with role difficulties. They also attempted to develop and validate an inventory to measure role conflict and ambiguity with trainees and supervisors in practicum, internship, and post internship settings. The authors developed the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI) in two phases. For the first phase, participants included six experienced supervisors and nine graduate-level psychology counselors-in-training from three levels: practicum, internship, and post internship. The second sample provided information to aid in the refinement of the items and the construction of the RCRAI. Participants in this phase consisted of five supervisors and five doctoral trainees in counseling psychology. Counselors in the early stages of their practicum and internship training experienced higher levels of role ambiguity than supervisees in more advanced levels of internship training. Additionally, beginning supervisees did not find role conflict problematic, whereas advanced supervisees did. Overall, Olk and Friedlander (1992) found role ambiguity and conflict produce unfavorable outcomes in supervision, affecting the supervisory relationship and related clients.

Nilsson and Duan (2007) also explored role ambiguity and conflict, within the context of culture and ethnic diversity in supervisory relationships. The authors used the Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory, a measure of counselor self-efficacy beliefs, the Majority-Minority Relations Survey to assess assimilation, and the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory to gather information from 69 U.S. racial/ethnic minority supervisees working with White supervisors to enhance knowledge regarding role difficulties in supervision, counseling self-efficacy, and perceived prejudice in U.S. racial and ethnic minority supervisees. The results suggested a link between supervisees' lived experiences and the presence of role ambiguity and conflict within their supervisory relationships. Nilsson and Duan (2007) recommended supervisors demonstrate sensitivity to supervisees' experiences of prejudice and how those experiences affect their clinical behaviors, including interactions within the supervisory relationship.

Supervisors and supervisees contribute to the effectiveness of the supervisory relationship, which influences the outcomes of supervision. Supervisors who failed to attend to power differentials (Bartlett & Mercer, 2000) and those primarily focused on evaluation rather than nurturing the supervisory relationship were considered ineffective (Ladany et al., 2013). Supervisees' higher levels of nondisclosure within supervision also contributed to ineffective supervisory relationships, as did events perceived as negative by supervisees (Hutt, Scott, & King, 1983; Ramos-Sánchez et al., 2002). Depending on supervisees' developmental levels and backgrounds, role ambiguity and conflict also engendered ineffective supervisory relationships (Nilsson & Duan, 2007; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). To consider contributions to ineffectiveness from both members of the supervisory relationship, characteristics and behaviors demonstrated by supervisors and supervisees are now detailed.

The Ineffective Supervisor. It is not only important to define and understand ineffective supervision; exploring factors that influence ineffective supervisors is also essential.

Considering the evolution of the counseling profession, specifically in supervision training, Scott, Nolin, and Wilburn (2006) explored barriers for counseling students and postgraduate counselors. The authors called attention to the need for adequate supervision training and the lack of such educational opportunities for counselors who go on to fulfill supervisory positions. Untrained supervisors often overlooked the concept of power differentials within the supervisory relationship. They also risked ignorance of boundaries and treated the supervisory relationship as a form of therapy for the supervisee. However, the supervisee's experienced power differentials as widely apparent. Supervisees' dependency on supervisors who paid little attention to ethics allowed opportunities for the misuse of power. This carried into the personal and professional lives of the supervisees. Supervisees also reported lesser likelihood to disclose possible mistakes and opportunities for growth during supervision, as the supervisory relationship was damaged. Consequently, supervisees lacked preparedness to notice and work against inappropriate feelings and behaviors in themselves and their clients. The absence of adequate supervision training subsequently affects not only receivers of supervision, but ultimately the consumers of counseling services (Scott et al., 2006). In an effort to prevent and/or avoid previously mentioned supervisory pitfalls, the authors advised some ways to reduce barriers to effective clinical supervision: models for supervision should be introduced in master's level training; consistency should be established between educational training and work environments, counseling disciplines, accrediting, certifying, and licensing boards; and supervision literature should be developed further (Scott et al., 2006).

Moving from training inadequacies to specific ineffective behaviors of supervisors, Watkins (1997) reported the findings of five studies identifying ineffective supervisory behaviors demonstrated by supervisors. These perceived behaviors involved lack of empathy and support, failure to consistently track supervisees concerns, lack of teaching or instruction, indirectness and intolerance, closed mindedness, lack of respect for differences, lack of praise and encouragement, sexism, and centralization on evaluation, weaknesses, and deficiencies. Watkins (1997) suggested increasing the knowledge base surrounding ineffective supervision would benefit the field of supervision by noting behaviors to diminish, identifying behaviors that are more than the opposite of positive behaviors, and satisfying desires for a theory of ineffective supervisory behavior.

To identify causes of poor supervisory behavior, Watkins (1997) introduced the Supervisor Complexity Model (SCM). This model illustrated supervisor developmental processes including Role Shock, Role Recovery/Transition, Role Consolidation, and Role Mastery. The author used stages of the process to explore variables that influenced ineffective supervisors. Notable variables included navigation of developmental stages, issues related to personal development, personality components, training and supervision, experience, and environmental structure. Watkins (1997) encouraged further research, specifically bringing attention to ineffective supervisory styles, related consequences to supervisees and their patients, and possible prevention.

Baker, Exum, and Tyler (2002) investigated the viability of Watkins' Supervisor Complexity Model (SCM). The authors used the Psychotherapy Supervisor Development Scale (PSDS) to measure the development of 12 counselor education doctoral students during their practicum experience compared to seven pre-practicum students. Retrospective interview

questions assessed the viability of the SCM's role shock, role recovery and transition, role consolidation, and role mastery. Results of the PSDS indicated support for the SCM. An analysis of the data from retrospective interviews offered moderate support for the constructs. The authors suggested the SCM is a useful tool for measuring supervisors' development during clinical supervision and in research related to supervisor development. The SCM and the PSDS may also be used enhance class discussion in supervision training and encourage supervisors to self-evaluate during the process of supervision (Baker et al., 2002).

In a study investigating supervisory training and development, Lyon, Heppler, Leavitt, and Fisher (2008) elicited participation from 233 predoctoral clinical and counseling psychology interns using a questionnaire, including the PSDS to assess developmental level. 72% of the participants conducted supervision. However, only 39% had completed a graduate level supervision course. The authors noted a cause for concern, citing the APA's ethical requirements for competence in supervision. In addition, only 47% indicated a graduate level course on supervision was offered in their program and only 28% reported a supervision course was required for their clinical or counseling psychology program. Despite lack of training, participants reported a sustained interest in providing supervision and willingness to use any training activities offered to promote their development. The findings of a multiple regression analysis indicated the total number of supervision training activities and number of hours of supervised supervision predicted supervisor development. Lyon et al. (2008) suggested program directors incorporate supervision training courses and additional training activities to doctoral students prior to and during their practical experiences providing supervision.

Rapisarda, Desmond, and Nelson (2011) investigated the experiences of doctoral level supervisors-in-training in counselor education and supervision programs. The authors used a

collective case study design to interview seven doctoral students who completed the graduate level supervision course and were transitioning into the role of supervisor. Results of the constant comparative method indicated supervisors were surprised and overwhelmed by the amount of personal time that was dedicated to their new role. They also reported challenges in fostering supervisee growth and providing evaluative feedback. Rapisarda et al. (2011) suggested counselor educators use this information to better facilitate supervisor training by emphasizing supervisor reflection on their current and past experiences as supervisees, engage group processing, and ensure supervision of supervision with an emphasis on parallel processing,

Beyond lack of training and supervisor skill development, Gazzola, De Stefano, Thériault, and Audet (2013) illuminated other challenges and difficulties experienced by supervisors-in-training. Ten doctoral level supervisors-in-training completed interviews regarding their supervisory experience with master's level supervisees. Consensual Qualitative Analysis resulted in five categories of difficulties (1) managing the "gatekeeping" role, (2) simultaneously managing multiple processes, (3) experiencing an ongoing attempt at establishing a supervisory stance, (4) self-doubt about their abilities as supervisors, and (5) managing dynamics with their co-supervisors. The authors suggested these developmentally appropriate difficulties echo those of counselors-in-training as they adjust to the challenges inherent beyond skill development. They suggested increased support for doctoral level supervisors-in-training as they assume their roles and realize the unpredictable realities of supervision. Additionally, as doctoral supervision is often provided in a group setting, consideration for group dynamics should also be addressed. Gazzola et al. (2013) also proposed that supervision training be postponed until doctoral students gain competencies in other areas, to provide support for their self-efficacy.

Magnuson et al., (2000) questioned what behaviors led to the classification of ineffective supervision and aimed to identify patterns within such behavior. The authors attempted to answer this inquiry by interviewing 11 professional counselors with at least five years of practice, 10 of whom were clinical supervisors. The data yielded six principles of poor supervision, which were further categorized into three general spheres. The six overarching principles included supervisors who were unbalanced, developmentally inappropriate, intolerant of differences, poor models of personal and professional attributes, untrained, and professionally apathetic. The data also enabled the classification of three general spheres of the ineffective supervisory relationship. The first sphere, *Organizational/Administrative*, contained supervisors who failed to clarify expectations, provide standards for accountability, assess supervisee needs, prepare for sessions, provide purposeful cohesion, or establish equality in supervisee group settings. The second sphere, *Technical/Cognitive*, described supervisors who were perceived as unskilled as practitioners and supervisors, unreliable professional resources, provided feedback that was abstract and vague, primarily focused on micro skills and techniques, operated from a single model, or were unappreciative of supervisees' theoretical orientations. The final sphere, *Relational/ Affective*, identified supervisors who were intrusive and created an unsafe environment, provided too little or too much corrective and/or affirming feedback, were insensitive to supervisees developmental and professional needs, avoided issues within the supervisory relationship, were led by external criteria, or imposed their personal agendas. The authors regarded this information as a sufficient starting point for research pertaining to the call for a theory of ineffective supervisory behaviors. Magnuson et al. (2000) also noted the importance of the potential bias of supervisees, insisting further research was necessary to identify concrete supervisory behaviors to avoid.

Greer (2003) wrote a case description of his ineffective supervision experience while working with a suicidal client to suggest implications for individuals involved in similar relationships. As a novice therapist, inadequate supervision left him feeling isolated and professionally insecure. He questioned his response options due to the inherent power differential in the supervisory relationship. In his case study, Greer spoke of the desire for supervision during his practicum at an inpatient psychiatric hospital and lack of formal meetings. While working with a patient troubled with alcoholism, depression, and suicidality, Greer felt he received little support and feedback from his supervisor, but turned to other staff on the unit. Ultimately, the patient committed suicide on the unit, leaving Greer feeling responsible and questioning his clinical abilities. In reflecting upon his experience, he highlighted the importance of self-awareness and networking for support. Greer (2003) recommended supervisors and supervisees formulate mutual expectations of their relationships and establish contracts as reminders to supervisors of their legal and ethical responsibilities to supervisees and mental health consumers.

In a previously mentioned study, Wallace et al. (2010) studied the best and worst experiences of supervisees. The authors intended to develop an instrument to determine whether the domains of “lousy” supervision identified by Magnuson et al. (2000) could be validated quantitatively. The findings of their factor analysis failed to provide validation of the three domains of lousy supervision identified by Magnuson et al. (2000). The authors proposed expanding the instrument to include more items for validation would prove to be beneficial. Practical information may also be taken from their study. They suggested an increased awareness of ineffective strategies provided a framework for what not to do in supervision. The worst supervisors failed to integrate and manage the multiple functions and foci of supervision to

yield productive outcomes. Failure to manage these aspects of supervision effectively could be a critical aspect of nonproductive supervision (Wallace et al., 2010).

Overall, multiple factors lead to supervisees' subjective conceptualization of ineffective supervision. Supervisor characteristics most commonly reported as ineffective include lack of empathy, investment, and competence (Allen et al., 1986; Greer, 2003; Magnuson et al., 2000). The causes of poor supervisory behaviors are varied, but include lack of adequate training as well as disruptions in navigating supervisory roles, personal characteristics, training, experience, and the environment in which supervision occurred (Watkins, 1997). A number of supervisory behaviors affect the supervisory relationship and overall effectiveness (Scott et al., 2006). Therefore, supervisors must not only monitor the behavior of supervisees and their clients, they must also attend to their own behaviors and continue to develop both personally and professionally.

The Supervisee in Ineffective Supervision. The few studies focused on the supervisee's role in ineffective supervision tend to examine the supervisory relationship overall. Within intrapersonal development, Magnuson et al. (2000) detailed supervisees' limitations including personality characteristics, psychological limitations, and unresolved issues. These limitations left supervisees unwilling to meet challenges of personal growth and resistant to change. Considering interpersonal development, supervisees' contributions to lousy supervision were influenced by their social limitations and lack of sensitivity and respect. These factors engendered difficulty in reflecting upon their clients' perspective, accepting feedback, and indicated defiance and avoidance in supervision. Supervisees' cognitive development was hampered by limited cognitive and intellectual ability, lack of cognitive complexity, and limited ability to analyze information. Within this category, supervisees lacked the ability to

conceptualize and were viewed as rigid by supervisors. Finally, supervisees' contributions to lousy supervision were characterized within the context of counselor development. This included limited skills, knowledge, motivation for learning, and understanding of the counselor process. Supervisors reported trainees with these limitations often had a mechanistic focus and were unwilling to grow and change. (Magnuson et al., 2000) suggested supervisors use this information to identify supervisees with potential to struggle with these limitations within supervision, avoid counterproductive behaviors, and formulate methods for remediation.

Wilcoxon, Norem, and Magnuson (2005) continued exploring supervisees' role in ineffective supervision in a second study. The same research team and methods from the Magnuson et al. (2000) study were employed here. Researchers interviewed 12 counselor supervisors regarding their experiences of supervisees within ineffective supervision. Participants reported supervisees exhibited characteristics or behaviors within supervision that negatively affected their personal and professional development. These included intrapersonal development, interpersonal development, cognitive development, and counselor development.

For trainees to be properly supervised during their development, they must disclose information about interactions with clients to their supervisors. Mehr, Ladany, and Caskie (2010) examined the content of and reasons for trainee nondisclosure in supervision and the influence of trainee anxiety and perception of the supervisory working alliance on amount of nondisclosure and willingness to disclose. Researchers collected qualitative and quantitative data from 204 trainees about their most recent supervision session. Eighty-four percent of trainees withheld information from their supervisors within the supervision session on which they reported. Trainees reported an average of 268 nondisclosures per session. Multiple reasons for nondisclosure included anxiety, weak supervisory alliance, and power imbalance.

Supervisees also reported certain issues were too personal or irrelevant and noted they avoided issues that involved overly negative feelings. Trainees refused to disclose in order to avoid shame, embarrassment, unfavorable reactions by supervisors, and negative evaluations. Negative supervisory experiences produced the most common nondisclosures. Trainees' perceptions of better supervisory working alliances were related to a lower frequency of nondisclosures and increased overall willingness to disclose in supervision. The authors posited failure to disclose reduced supervisory and clinical effectiveness and inhibited opportunities for personal and professional growth (Mehr et al., 2010).

As previously mentioned, supervisees' past experiences affect their perceptions of the supervisory relationship and the effectiveness of supervision. It is essential for supervisors and supervisees to process the roles of prejudice and self-efficacy within both the supervisory and counseling relationships (Nilsson & Duan, 2007). Supervisees are also developmentally sensitive to unclear expectations within supervision, including role ambiguity and role conflict (Olk & Friedlander, 1992). Supervisees' lack of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship contributes to higher frequency of nondisclosure, perpetuating the cycle of ineffective supervision (Mehr et al., 2010).

Harmful Supervision

In order to further understand contributing factors to problematic supervision, Ellis (2001) reviewed the studies of Gray et al. (2001) and Nelson and Friedlander (2001). Although a large proportion of supervisees experienced harmful supervision, Ellis concluded it is a taboo subject with little research support. In his review, Ellis articulated a distinction should be made between ineffective, or bad, supervision and harmful supervision. He defined bad supervision as ineffective supervision that does not harm or traumatize the supervisee. Supervisors' failure to

meet supervisees' professional training needs, often involving a poor supervisory relationship, lack of investment, and/or lack of communication constitutes *bad* supervision. In contrast, *harmful* supervision is supervision that harms or traumatizes the supervisee (Ellis, 2001).

As noted in the above review of the literature, the supervisory relationship is at the core of perceived effectiveness of supervision. Supervisory relationships characterized by personal and professional supervisor characteristics and behaviors considered offensive or inadequate by supervisees lead to ineffective supervision. Supervisees' perceptions of the relationship and their supervisors' behavior affect the manner in which they interact within supervision. Supervisees not actively engaged in having their needs met in supervision consider the supervisory relationship ineffective and lack preparedness to actively change the course of supervision. Contexts of supervision that lead to harm or traumatization of supervisees is considered harmful supervision. In order to prevent and manage ineffective and harmful supervision, supervisors and supervisees must join in their awareness of these factors and make efforts to process interactions to move forward.

Harmful Supervision

The previously detailed information provides a solid foundation of knowledge regarding the history of supervision along with the current status and conceptualization of the practice. With a thorough understanding how of the supervisory relationship, the supervisor, and the supervisee impact the effectiveness of supervision, the focus now turns to the nuances of harmful supervision. Although the field of research is limited, information regarding the contexts of harmful supervision, including abuse of power, multicultural incompetence, and inappropriate relational issues within the supervisory relationship, and contributions from supervisors and

supervisees is now explored. Reported outcomes of harmful supervision for supervisees are detailed as calls for future research are illuminated.

The Harmful Supervisory Relationship

The supervisory relationship is at the core of supervision. Harmful contexts within supervisory relationships increase ruptures in the supervisory working alliance and negatively affect the outcomes of supervision. Harmful contexts include transference, countertransference, emotional distress, conflict, counter productivity, dual relationships, multicultural incompetence, and abuse of power. Empirically based information detailing these contexts and their related outcomes, along with implications for preventing and managing their detrimental effects provide the rationale for further investigation of the lived experiences of such situations.

Considering the significance of mandates regulating clinical training and supervision practice, Pearson (2000) noted the relevance of the supervisory relationship as such relationships currently last much longer than in the past. In a review of literature regarding clinical supervisory relationships, Pearson explained conflicts within the supervisory relationship often occur due to the nature of supervisors' responsibilities to promote the development of supervisees and to ensure client welfare. Contributing factors from the supervisor and supervisee that harmed the supervisory relationship included transference with supervisors such as viewing the supervisor as an overly critical parent, creating resistance and resentment; countertransference with supervisees such as overly protecting vulnerable supervisees and limiting autonomy and responsibility; parallel process, with supervisees exhibiting behaviors of clients during supervision or of their supervisors when working with clients; and supervisees' general anxiety and resistance. The author suggested supervisors engage in ongoing assessments of the supervisory relationship with supervisees and ensure that their own needs are not being

met by supervisees. Supervisors must recognize strong feelings towards their supervisees, desires to treat certain supervisees differently than others, and abnormal responses or behaviors from supervisees during supervision. Pearson (2000) also suggested supervisors approach supervisees' poor coping mechanisms related to anxiety and resistance, with warmth, empathy, genuineness, respect, and immediacy to protect against defensive reactions and detrimental, or harmful, effects on the supervisory relationship.

Gray and colleagues (2001) investigated trainees' experiences of counterproductive supervision and its effects. Researchers interviewed 13 psychotherapy trainees about a counterproductive event that occurred in individual supervision. The authors defined a counterproductive event as an experience that was unhelpful, hindering, or harmful in relation to the trainee's growth as a therapist. Counterproductive events not only affected the supervisory relationship, but may ultimately negatively affect the supervisees' clients. Trainees related counterproductive events to their supervisors being dismissive of their thoughts and feelings. Most trainees felt their supervisors were unaware of the counterproductive nature of such events. Trainees typically did not disclose the counterproductive event with their supervisor, and counterproductive events weakened the supervisory relationship. They also changed the way in which they approached their supervisors, further affecting the supervisory relationship in a negative way. These events impacted the trainees' relationships with clients, as well. Gray and colleagues (2001) suggested supervisees openly discuss counterproductive events with their supervisors and take measures to build the supervisory relationship following harmful events.

In a study investigating supervisors' experience of providing difficult feedback in cross-ethnic/racial supervision, Burkard, Knox, Clarke, Phelps, and Inman (2014) illuminated detrimental effects to the supervisory relationship, considering behaviors of the supervisees and

the supervisors emotional reactions to the events. Researchers interviewed 17 clinical supervisors and analyzed the data using consensual qualitative research (CQR). Supervisors whose racial and cultural background differed from those of their supervisees often reported strained relationships prior to difficult feedback events, specifically addressing the negative effects of supervisees' lack of cultural difference awareness and sensitivity with clients to their clinical work. Problematic relationships with supervisees included personality differences, supervisees' lack of goal setting and openness, and defensiveness by supervisees. The strained relationships were often task-oriented, lacking elements of rapport. Following the supervisors' difficult feedback, some supervisees resisted, but eventually accepted and used the feedback constructively. However, some difficult feedback events served as profound detriments to the supervisory relationship. Supervisors reported their supervisees became defensive, questioning, angry, and guarded. The authors recommended supervisors engage in multicultural discussions prior to providing difficult feedback related to multicultural issues with supervisees, including goal setting specifically related to multicultural competence. They also suggested supervisors provide feedback that is clear and specific, with confidence, as to eliminate possible negative effects to the supervisory relationship and detriments to the outcomes of supervision. Finally, Burkard et al. (2014) encouraged supervisors to explore techniques for managing multicultural impasses within the supervisory relationship.

Nelson and Friedlander (2001) explored supervisory relationships within the context of conflict. Thirteen practicum and internship students completed the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory, as well as the Supervisory Styles Inventory, and engaged in qualitative, phenomenological interviews. Overall, supervisor's lack of investment in the supervisory relationship resulted in detrimental effects for supervisees. The harmful outcomes included loss

of self-efficacy, uncertainty about the supervisee's career choice, and chronic extreme stress. Nelson and Friedlander (2001) suggested supervisors attend to power differentials within the supervisory relationship, clarify expectations, address conflict without defensiveness, and process detrimental events within supervision.

Upon surveying research related to harmful supervisory relationships, Pearson and Piazza (1997) found a list of specific boundary violation scenarios was too specific to be collectively useful to professionals. Instead, they chose to investigate the ways in which dual relationships developed and created a classification system for these relationships within the helping professions. The authors report dual relationships are common sources for ethical dilemmas by supervisors and ethical complaints by supervisees. Although concrete categories were presented, dual relationships are dynamic and often develop over time. The complex nature of dual relationships within supervision was primarily attributed to the inherent power held by the supervisors. Although dual relationships were not always abusive, a relationship in addition to the professional one of supervision provided opportunities for supervisors to abuse their power. The authors described several types of dual roles that may harm the supervisory relationship, including circumstantial roles occurring out of coincidence and structured multiple professional roles that are inevitable for counselor educators. They also warned of the evaluative nature of teacher and supervisor and its particular sensitivity, as well as the untenable nature of a faculty member or supervisor providing therapy to a student or supervisees. Pearson and Piazza (1997) recommended discussing the roles, seeking consultation, and establishing clear boundaries for each role.

Other dual relationships described by Pearson and Piazza (1997) displayed more potential for harm. Shifts in professional roles often occur with changes in organizational structure, for

example, former students hired by the program in which they were previously enrolled. The risk for harm in these types of situations often involved feelings of resentment, lack of appropriate use of newly assigned power, inadequate supervision and harm to clients. Another role conflict with potential for harm occurs when individuals who initiated contact in a professional setting develop a personal relationship, for example, a supervisor and supervisee become friends. The potential for harm is particularly notable as the risk for sexual relationships increases. The authors noted a professional who holds the power has the ability to coerce the subordinate into personal relationship in which they may not actually wish to engage. These role conflicts may also create resentment for favoritism exhibited by other subordinates. The final, and most harmful, category of dual relationships outlines by Pearson and Piazza (1997) involved predatory professionals. These individuals abuse the power of their professional roles for their personal benefit, for example, supervisors or faculty members who exploit their supervisees or student to engage in sexual relationships during the course of supervision or instruction. Overall Pearson and Piazza (1997) indicated using this information as proactive measures buffers against the harmful potential of the complex dual relationships of which supervisors are sure to enter with supervisees at some point in their practice.

Miller and Larrabee (2012) also investigated the harmful nature of sexual relationships within counselor education and supervision. Three hundred fifteen female participants responded to a questionnaire surveying demographics, ethical preparation, and opinions of sexual contact between students and educators or supervisors. Nineteen women (6% of the sample) reported sexual experiences with instructors, supervisors, and/or advisors. Retrospectively, supervisees viewed the sexual relationships they experienced with their instructors or supervisors as more coercive and harmful to their working relationships than they

did during the experiences. The authors suggested the power differential within the supervisor/educator and supervisee/student relationship eliminates the subordinates' potential for true consent, further evidenced by the finding that participants were more aware of the coercion and harmful effects as they were distanced from the relationships. Miller and Larrabee (2012) insisted sexual relationships within supervisory relationships should be strictly prohibited by the ACA. Furthermore, they suggested counselor educators and supervisors remain congruent to the profession by avoiding sexual involvement with students.

Continuing considerations of power within supervisory relationships, Markham and Chiu (2011) investigated discourses of power, specifically examining the helpful and harmful effects of power differentials on supervisory relationships. The authors combined a literature review with their personal experiences, along with contributions from colleagues, to conceptualize manifestations of power within supervision. Their findings indicated professional status, gender, and races of which privilege is inherently established produced difficulties for individuals in positions of less power. Such difficulties included sense of doubt, worry, inadequacy, and fear of advocating for self. Markham and Chiu (2011) recommended directly addressing discourses of power and related issues to lessen their potential for harmful influence on the supervisory relationship. They also suggested illuminating oppression to empower supervisees.

Many issues can negatively affect supervisory relationships, thereby increasing potential for harm to supervisees. These issues include abuses of power, multicultural incompetence, and inappropriate relational issues, such as transference, countertransference, emotional distress, conflict, defensiveness, counter productivity, and dual relationships. To be more specific about the two sides of harmful supervisory relationships, contributions from both supervisors and supervisees are now detailed.

The Supervisor in Harmful Supervision

The contexts of harmful supervisory relationships were primarily characterized by interactions between both the supervisor and supervisee. However, the commonly accepted notion that supervisors are responsible for establishing positive supervisory relationships and have a significant influence on the effectiveness of supervision implies a necessity to narrow the focus more specifically on contributions to harmful supervision from supervisors. The following studies specifically focused on the supervisor role in contributing to harmful supervision experiences.

In relation to the potential for harm, Jacobs (1991) viewed the supervisory relationship as hierarchical in nature. The author conducted a review of the literature centered on violations within the relationship. He used information obtained from multiple studies to explain the nature of the relationship by highlighting the involvement of instruction, support, and nurture of students by their supervisors. Jacobs (1991) found supervisors used their power to satisfy their own self-esteem needs. Supervisors placing their needs before those of their trainees resulted in parentification of supervisees. Supervisees who were mistreated, humiliated, coerced, devalued, criticized, frightened, or ignored by their supervisors were highly unlikely to protest. Additionally, students early in their training risked interaction replication within their other supervisory relationships. Thus, the cycle of harmful supervision, with contributions from both the supervisor and supervisee, continued. Jacobs (1991) explained this cycle continued into the supervisees' relationships with clients and their future supervisees, as well.

Kozlowski, Pruitt, DeWalt, and Knox (2013) also investigated supervisors' contributions to clinical supervision, specifically investigating the benefits of boundary crossing in the supervisory relationship. During semi-structured interviews, 11 practicum and doctoral students

reported demographic information and their experiences with boundary crossing within supervision. Although the authors conducted the consensual qualitative research study to investigate supervisees' positive experiences of boundary crossing, some reports of potentially harmful and clearly harmful experiences emerged. A number of participants reported feelings of sexual attraction from supervisors or supervisors using sexist language or behavior. For example, one participant reported feeling upset as her supervisor inappropriately *saddled up* close to her. Even if the boundary-crossing event was not clearly violating, supervisees experienced role confusion, as supervisors did not discuss the boundary crossing events. Kozlowski et al. (2013) suggested supervisors only engage in boundary crossing behavior if it benefits the supervisees, not the supervisor. They also insisted supervisors clearly discuss boundary-crossing events to determine if the events are helpful or detrimental to their relationships with supervisees.

In a study exploring critical incidents that helped or hindered cross-cultural clinical supervision, Wong and colleagues (2013) interviewed 25 visible minority graduate students and beginning counseling professionals. Participants reported negative critical incidents that embodied ineffective or harmful supervision. The authors divided these incidents into the following five themes: (a) personal difficulties as a visible minority, (b) negative personal attributes of the supervisor, (c) lack of a safe and trusting relationship, (d) lack of multicultural supervision competencies, and (e) lack of supervision competencies.

According to Wong et al. (2013), personal difficulties as a minority involved language and cultural barriers. Bad or harmful supervisors had negative personal attributes including being rigid, controlling, insulting, intimidating, judgmental, and critical. Harmful supervision was characterized by supervisors' behaviors that were unprofessional, unethical, and

irresponsible. When supervisees did not consider the supervisory relationship safe or distrusted their supervisors, they experienced anger, anxiety, confusion, helplessness, and significant stress. Supervisees reported feeling uncomfortable, unsafe, worried, withdrawn, and disillusioned with the counseling profession. One participant said,

“I felt very bad. I think that was one of the most negative experiences I have even [sic] gotten from this kind of setting. . . . The thing is he was in the position of power. . . . The thing is he did something very bad. He intentionally tried to put me down, tried to teach me a lesson.”

Participants also reported negative critical incidents with a theme of supervisors' lack of multicultural competence. These situations involved stereotyping, discrimination, racism, weakness in cultural competence, and lack of diversity in students, faculty, and curriculum of their graduate programs. Finally, lack of supervision competencies included failure to successfully navigate conflicts and discrimination, role ambiguity, dual relationships, personality differences, institutional or organizational politics (within offices and between programs and sites), and differences in counseling orientations, styles, and approaches between supervisor and supervisee.

As they noted the nature of harmful supervision invariably involved violations of trust, Wong and colleagues (2013) illuminated the necessity for supervisors to create supportive and trusting environments while developing strong working alliances with supervisees. The authors recommend using a person-centered mentoring model in supervision to build a trusting and safe environment, provide space for supervisees to express their cultural beliefs, and promote self-evaluation and self-actualization.

Constantine and Sue (2012) also explored harmful supervision within the context of multicultural incompetence. The authors interviewed 20 self-identified Black doctoral supervisees regarding their perceived microaggressions by White supervisors. Racial microaggressions, expressed verbally, behaviorally, or environmentally, were defined as subtle exchanges, with or without intent, that communicated shame and disgrace to individuals of color. These exchanges were not always easily identifiable, but were immensely offensive to individuals possessing higher levels of racial and cultural awareness. In general, racial microaggressions created emotional turmoil and negative health effects.

Constantine and Sue (2012) used Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis to identify seven themes of microaggressions: invalidating racial-cultural issues, making stereotypic assumptions about Black clients, making stereotypic assumptions about Black supervisees, reluctance to giving performance feedback for fear of being viewed as racist, focusing primarily on clinical weaknesses, blaming clients of color for problems stemming from oppression, and offering culturally insensitive treatment recommendations. Supervisees found these microaggressions to be personally detrimental. They also reported the behaviors negatively affected the supervisory relationship. Constantine and Sue (2012) recommended supervisors be open to the possibility that they may hold and display biases, assumptions, and preconceived notions that are discriminatory and detrimental to supervisees and their clients. Supervisors must continue to raise their awareness, have open discussions, and work through these issues.

Behaviors and beliefs demonstrated by supervisors' behaviors that were driven by abuse of power, boundary crossing, lack of multicultural competence, and collective violations of trust solely contributed to harmful supervision. Due to hierarchical nature of supervisory relationships, such behaviors had profound impacts on supervisees and the outcomes of

supervision. Information about and implications of these situations fail to uphold the ethical standards established by ACA and ACES to regulate the actions of supervisors.

The Supervisee in Harmful Supervision

While contributions to harmful supervision are relatively easy to identify when investigating supervisory relationships and concrete effects of supervisors' beliefs and behavior, the nuances of supervisees' contributions are not so clear. However, recognizing the nature of supervision establishes the need to consider what supervisees bring to all types of supervision.

Marmarosh et al. (2013) suggested supervisees' attachment styles influenced their ability to rely on supervision and benefit from supervisory relationships. The authors investigated the connection between supervisees' adult attachment styles and the supervisory relationship. They also considered the effects of supervisees' adult attachment and attachment to supervisor on their reports of counseling self-efficacy. Fifty-seven graduate student supervisees provided responses to various measures of the supervisory alliance, attachment styles, and counseling self-efficacy beliefs. Results indicated supervisees' reports of fearful attachment negatively affected the supervisory alliance and their perceptions of counseling self-efficacy. Additionally, avoidant attachment demonstrated variations in counseling self-efficacy. The authors suggested avoidant supervisees are less likely to disclose their feelings within supervision. As such, supervisors should adapt their styles to meet the needs of these supervisees by viewing counseling tapes in session to process reactions. Marmarosh et al. (2013) also encouraged supervisors to attend to subtle indicators, such as body language and supervision attendance patterns to assess for withdrawal. Doing so will help decrease the likelihood of supervisees' avoidant-fearful attachment styles negatively affecting the supervisory relationship and outcomes of supervision.

In a study investigating personal issues in supervision, Rosenfeld (2010) found supervisees' background, patterns for coping with emotional stress, and previous interpersonal experiences caused difficulties in their relationships with clients and in collaborating with their supervisors. The author interviewed 12 supervisees regarding their experiences of addressing personal issues in supervision. She used consensual qualitative analysis to conceptualize her reports. The author identified themes for the negative feelings experienced by supervisees that were associated with interactions in their supervisory relations. These themes included feeling judged, attacked, and even abused by their supervisors, in instances of abuse of power. Rosenfeld (2010) recommended supervisors use the detailed descriptions provided in this study to determine how supervisees' personal issues affected their professional development. Specifically, the author suggested building supervisory relationships based on understanding, validation, acceptance, respect, safety, and trust. Overall, supervisors should encourage open communication with supervisees, elicit feedback, and adapt their methods to bolster supervisory working alliances and promote positive outcomes in supervision (Rosenfeld, 2010).

Although supervisors inherently occupy positions of power over supervisees, both parties interact within the domains of that power. Quarto (2002) suggested supervisors and supervisees share power as interactions evolve. Furthermore, factors such as supervisees' competence, experience, and developmental levels influence those interactions. Quarto investigated interaction patterns and supervisees' perceptions of control and conflict in supervision. Seventy-two supervision dyads responded to the Supervision Interaction Questionnaire and the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory. Results indicated beginning supervisees perceived greater amounts of control and conflict within supervision than did supervisees who were more experienced. Supervisees' perceptions of conflict negatively affected the development of the

supervisory working alliance, which, ultimately, decreased the efficacy of supervision. Quarto (2002) recommended supervisors recognize the developmental appropriateness of supervisees' efforts to take control in supervision, resisting defensiveness, and exploring the purpose of those efforts. For example, a supervisor must be aware of each supervisees' level of shame to determine if the supervisee is shifting the focus of discussions to avoid certain sensitive topics. They must also recognize supervisees' attempts to lead as steps toward autonomy, rather than disrespect for authority. Finally, Quarto (2002) recommended supervisors and supervisees must take responsibility for addressing and working through conflictual interactions to promote the effectiveness of supervision.

Following the notion that supervisees must be trained to recognize their power within the supervisory relationship, Weatherford, O'Shaughnessy, Mori, and Kaduvetoor (2008) explained beginning supervisees often lack preparedness for addressing conflicts with supervisors. Supervisees often fail to advocate for appropriate supervision as they are unaware of their rights and to whom they should report such concerns, particularly in site supervision. The authors insisted educators must train supervisees to approach conflictual situations. Educators should empower beginning supervisees to voice their opinions and define clear expectations of their own and their supervisors' roles (Weatherford et al., 2008).

Although supervisees do not directly harm themselves, aspects of their behavior, including attachment style, personal issues, reactions to control and conflict, and lack of awareness regarding their rights may exacerbate the detrimental effects of harmful supervisory relationships. Counselor educators and supervisors must demonstrate a working understanding of these possible challenges. Supervisees must also learn to recognize these behaviors within themselves while advocating for their needs within supervision.

Outcomes for Supervisees

In an effort to specifically attend to the implications of harmful supervision for supervisees, the focus shifts to reported psychological, physical, person, and professional harm reported by supervisees. Unfortunately, the empirical representation of outcomes of harmful supervision is minimal (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). The following studies describe information that supports the critical nature of those outcomes for supervisees. The severity of detrimental outcomes listed, along with the ethical standards regulating supervisors and counselor educators, promotes a timeliness of calls for future research in this area.

In perhaps one of the most notable studies of harmful supervision, Unger (1995) reported that 15% of supervisees noted being traumatized by supervision. The author found supervisors were often focused on supervisees' therapeutic experience, rather than the manner in which they interacted within supervision. Similarly, supervisees were often more aware of their supervisors theoretical orientations rather than their supervisory training or approach. He warned of the problematic outcomes of such negligence. The effects of harmful supervision included symptoms of psychological trauma, and supervisees were burdened with a prevailing sense of mistrust and fears described as debilitating. The supervisees spoke of feeling shameful and guilty and engaged in self-derogation. Supervisees experienced functional impairment in their professional or personal lives, as well as a conspicuous loss of self-confidence. Supervisees also reported debilitating general mental or physical health as a result of the supervisory incident or experience. Additionally, some early stage counselors left the profession due to the detrimental effects of harmful supervision. Unger (1995) insisted supervisors should be adequately educated and trained on the process of supervision. Supervisors should be sensitive to trainees' tendencies to view supervisors as role models and are sensitive to the power differential inherent to

supervision. Unger also suggested offering supervision education and training to supervisees to inform their expectations of the supervision process. Supervisees should guard themselves against supervisors' intrusiveness while remaining open about their concerns to offer their own protection from harmful supervision (Unger, 1995).

Similarly, the previously mentioned literature review conducted by Jacobs (1991) illuminated additional detrimental outcomes experienced by supervisees involved in harmful supervisory relationships. Supervisees subjected to sexual relations with their supervisors experienced damaging psychological effects similar to incest. Due to the nature of the power differential within the relationship, inherently vulnerable supervisees rarely advocated for themselves during these extreme boundary violations. Jacobs (1991) insisted trainees be encouraged to talk about the interactions within their supervisory relationships.

The traumatic and detrimental outcomes of harmful supervision for supervisees cannot be ignored. Counselor educators and supervisors have an ethical duty to protect supervisees and ensure client welfare. Engaging in behavior that promotes harmful supervisory relationships, abuses the inherent power possessed by supervisors, or ignores the vulnerability can lead to counselor and client harm. Counselor educators, supervisors, and counselors in training must be aware of these situations and methods for preventing and managing their detrimental outcomes.

Furthermore, a gap in the literature exists regarding the lived experience of harmful supervision. The literature offers categorical information and specific examples of supervisory relationships considered harmful by supervisees. We also know the typical characteristics and behaviors from supervisors and supervisees that lead to harmful supervision. Although limited, we even know the dire consequences of harmful supervision. However, empirical evidence illuminating the emotional experiences of supervisees, particularly those considered most

vulnerable during the early stages of their training, during harmful supervision does not exist. This information is pertinent for counselor educators to train supervisors and prepare supervisees to enter supervision, for supervisors to recognize and adapt their methods during supervision, and for supervisees to advocate for their needs within supervision.

The Integrated Developmental Model

As previously detailed, the outcomes of supervision are affected by the supervisory relationship, which is influenced by contributions from both the supervisor and supervisee. Along with ensuring client welfare, supervisors serve to foster the development of supervisees (ACA, 2014). Effective supervision is characterized by supervisors adapting their approaches to meet their trainees' needs (Worthen & Isakson, 2003). Within the clinical supervision literature, supervisees' needs are often characterized developmentally (Jacobsen & Tanggaard, 2009). In an effort to explore supervisees developmental characteristics at a more in-depth level while promoting an awareness of how supervisors may adapt their methods to best serve supervisees individually, I selected the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987) as the theoretical foundation for my study.

To begin exploring the development of this theory, an explanation of the Counselor Complexity Model (CCM) details the foundational theory originally conceptualized by Cal Stoltenberg during his graduate studies in 1981. The CCM was Stoltenberg's first attempt at categorizing counselor development into four levels (Stoltenberg, 1981). In 1987, Cal Stoltenberg and Ursula Delworth used the information presented in the CCM to offer a more detailed picture of supervisee development. They refined the CCM's developmental levels by adding an assessment component from stage theory (Loganbill et al., 1982) along with Piaget's (1970) concepts of assimilation and accommodation to explain supervisees' processes of

integrating new information into their existing worldviews and adapting those schemas to arrive at new understandings of the world and the knowledge they possess. They also detailed eight functioning domains to define aspects of competence needed to advance developmentally. Stoltenberg and colleagues (1998) later explored progression through the developmental levels, using the three constructing and the eight functioning domains, and offered explanations for regression to formerly passed levels is presented. These new additions resulted in the development of the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM).

Theory Development

Research and theory suggest supervision is best understood through an integration of human learning and interaction (Stoltenberg, Bailey, Cruzan, Hart, & Ukuku, 2014). Over 30 years ago, scholars began conceptualizing the developmental process of supervision (Stoltenberg, 1981). This developmental description of the supervision process combines schema theory, cognitive and emotional processing, social psychology, motivation, and the development of expertise (Stoltenberg et al., 2014). Later, the CCM provided the philosophical foundation for the Integrated Developmental Model (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987), which has since been expanded (Stoltenberg et al., 1998).

The early supervision models focused primarily on the development of skills, theoretical understanding, and counseling within supervision (Stoltenberg, 1981). Recognizing a deficit in the supervision literature during his doctoral training in Counseling Psychology, Stoltenberg conceptualized supervision from a developmental perspective. Using the work of Hogan (1964) and Hunt (1971), Stoltenberg presented the Counselor Complexity Model (CCM) to describe the process of supervision in terms of sequential stages through which counselors-in-training develop expertise. The CCM primarily focused on counselors' cognitive development within

each level. The IDM (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987) describes the levels of development in terms of autonomy, motivation, and self-other awareness, specifically considering counselors in training as *supervisees*. The IDM also adds an understanding of the manner in which supervisees progress and, sometimes, regress between the levels. The expanded version of the IDM (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) is both descriptive of supervisees' development and prescriptive in offering appropriate interventions for supervisors to employ at each level.

CCM Development. From the beginning of training to the epitome of expertise in practice, Stoltenberg (1981) suggested counselors in training experience four levels of development, based on Hogan's (1964) four-stage model. The CCM outlined the unique counselor characteristics and optimal environments supervisors may provide to foster the growth of supervisees at each level.

Stoltenberg (1981) explained supervisors must identify the level at which their supervisees function and promote development of the skills necessary to progress towards the next level of functioning. He included implications for supervisory methods at each level of counselor development based on Hunt's (1971) Conceptual Systems Theory. Within each level, the effective supervisor demonstrates developmentally appropriate skills and creates a supervision environment conducive to the growth of supervisees. In fact, Stoltenberg used Hunt's (1971) theory to support the claim that the speed at which counselors progress through each developmental level is largely dependent not only on their personal skills and attributes, but also the environment provided by supervisors. The supervisor should discriminate between environments, provide opportunities for autonomy in supervision and counseling, tend to the supervisory relationship, and track defensive and progressive behavior on the part of the supervisee (Stoltenberg, 1981). Specifically considering the characteristics of the counselor in

training, supervisors should assess and adapt methods based on the counselor's cognitive, motivational, values, and sensory orientations. Cognitive orientation is the conceptual level at which the supervisee functions. Motivational orientation is identified by assessing the type of feedback direction supervisees prefer. Supervisees' value orientations are centered on their preferred types of objectives for training. Finally, supervisors may determine their trainees' sensory orientations by assessing learning style. The CCM identified four levels of counselor functioning and provided suggestions for the most effective supervisory environments for counselors to grow (Stoltenberg, 1981). Level 1 counselors are dependent on supervisors and function well with encouragement for autonomy and normative structure. To create an environment conducive to counselor growth and development, the supervisor demonstrates sensitivity to the counselor's tendency towards dependency while encouraging the counselor to be independent. The supervisor also provides structure to alleviate feelings of anxiety. Level 2 counselors experience dependency-autonomy conflict and function well in environments that are highly autonomous with low normative structure. Here, the supervisor provides an environment that is primarily focused on counselors' independence, offering significantly less structure than provided in Level 1. The supervisor is also empathetic and flexible as the counselor experiences tension between dependency and autonomy. Level 3 counselors experience conditional dependency and function well autonomously with opportunities to provide their own structure. In this stage, supervisors adjust the environment based on the independent or dependent behaviors of the supervisees. They also provide space for and encourage trainees to take control of supervision based on their needs. Level 4 counselors exhibit mastery of counseling with high awareness and personal insight, interdependency, high professional standards, and strong

collegial supervision. Supervisors function as colleagues to Level 4 counselors, being available as a sounding board for trainees to process their decisions (Stoltenberg, 1981).

Stoltenberg insisted effective supervisors are skilled in moving from one developmentally appropriate environment to the next, as counselors progress through developmental levels. Stoltenberg (1981) called for future research to continue the investigation of the complexities of counselor development and to test the model empirically.

The impact of Stoltenberg's (1981) Counselor Complexity Model was immediately relevant to the field of clinical supervision (Sanbury, 1982). Scholars quickly started testing its validity (Tryon, 1996). In an effort to further investigate the process of supervision through a developmental lens, Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) went on to use the CCM, along with other theories related to development, to formulate the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM). The inception of the IDM will now be elaborated upon, along with empirically based knowledge created following its original development to expand the model. Additionally, research specifically exploring beginning supervisees' experiences is visited. Later, the link between the IDM and harmful supervision, or lack thereof, is explored.

The IDM

Although the CCM is simple and relatively easy to understand, Stoltenberg (2005) suggested it lacks the breadth necessary for supervisors to fully grasp the entirety of supervisees' unique experiences and needs. Although the philosophical assumptions that guide the IDM were derived from the CCM, the IDM has much more to offer in terms of understanding supervisees at each level, assessing competence within each level before progressing to the next, and identifying specific interventions supervisors may use to meet trainees in their developmental

process. The IDM moves beyond the understanding of counselors' development (CCM) to focus on the specific experience of developing as a supervisee within the context of supervision.

From Loganbill and colleagues' (1982) model of assessment and intervention in supervision, Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) considered assessment for the IDM with attention to the supervisor, supervisee, their relationship, and the environment in which supervision occurred. The developmental issues outlined by Loganbill et al. (1982) addressed in the theoretical foundation of the IDM are competence, emotional awareness, personal motivation, and professional ethics. Supervisees function within these domains at four developmental levels (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). The IDM specifically describes the developmental process for supervisees in terms of *autonomy*, *motivation*, and *self-other awareness* at three major levels and one minor level (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). These constructs build upon the previous descriptions of the four CCM levels of development.

IDM describes Level 1 supervisees as beginning counselors who lack or have minimal clinical experience. They tend to be highly dependent on their supervisors, value structure, and focused on skills development. They are motivated by and sensitive to evaluation. Beginning supervisees also have little awareness of what they and their clients bring to the counseling relationship. Clients appropriate for Level 1 supervisees usually have mild issues to work through. Supervisors should provide an environment characterized by structure, manageable levels of anxiety, autonomy, and appropriate risk taking. Some beneficial interventions for Level 1 supervisees include support, encouragement, suggestions, skills training, role-playing, addressing strengths followed by weaknesses, and group supervision (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987).

Supervisees at Level 2 function more autonomously, but experience some conflict between independence and dependence (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). They have a greater ability to empathize, but risk enmeshment with clients. Appropriate clients for Level 2 supervisees can be more challenging, with more severe issues, and may cause supervisees to question their confidence. The supervision environment should include less structure, more autonomy, clarity, modeling, and allowance for regression and reactance. Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) suggested supervisors offer facilitative and prescriptive interventions along with confrontation, processing, attendance to countertransference, emotional reactions, parallel process, role-playing, and group supervision.

Level 3 supervisees function independently and view the supervisory relationship as collegial. They focus on the client while maintaining an awareness of self in decision-making. Supervisors must provide environments in which supervisees lead supervisory sessions, focus on personal professional integration, and engage in career decision making processing. Appropriate supervisor interventions include facilitation, occasional confrontation, and conceptualization, serving as a catalyst as supervisees experience blocks or stagnation, integration, peer and group supervision. Supervisors should work with supervisees to raise competence to reach Level 3i (integrated), the final level in which supervisees are considered to have reached “mastery” in counseling (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). Throughout the developmental Levels, supervisors also assess supervisee ability in eight functioning domains, described below.

The IDM also expands the understanding of developmental progression by viewing the CCM’s counselor developmental levels in terms of supervisees’ competence in eight functioning domains (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). Because viewing counselor development within four general developmental levels is too simplistic, the eight functioning domains reflect the reality of

professional practice (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2010). This reality encompasses diverse responsibilities and activities which may only be properly served by the appropriate skill set, knowledge, and experience. As such, the IDM presented concrete domains. Using the IDM, supervisors may assess trainees' competence development in the following areas: intervention skills, assessment techniques, interpersonal assessment, client conceptualization, individual differences, theoretical orientation, treatment planning, and professional ethics. In order for supervisors to provide the appropriate supervision environments across contexts, they must first assess supervisees' competence in terms of these functioning domains. Demonstration of increased competence in these domains indicates progression to the next level of functioning (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). Furthermore, supervisors are wise to attend to supervisees' development of cognitive complexity, or higher levels of thinking involving the development and refinement of schemas (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2010).

In order to understand higher levels of thinking, one must understand the process of arriving at those higher levels (Piaget, 1970). Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) used Piaget's (1970) explanation of assimilation and accommodation to detail additional psychological components of supervisees' advancement to higher levels of the IDM. Assimilation involves using reality in forming an individual's cognitive organization, or schema (Piaget, 1987). Accommodation is a process of altering that organization based on subsequent information received from reality. For example, supervisees may come to the counseling profession with preconceived notions about individuals from a different ethnic background than their own. Throughout their lives, they may have attended to information that fit their preconceived notions, or schemas, perpetuating assimilation (Piaget, 1987). However, working with clients from this ethnic background who do not behave in a way that supports the supervisees' preexisting

schemas forces supervisees to accommodate their cognitive representations of individuals from that background. Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) suggested Level 1 supervisees assimilate with clients, while accommodating with supervisors. Level 2 supervisees overly assimilate with supervisors and accommodate with their clients, leaving them feeling confused and conflicted. Level 3 supervisees typically find a working balance between assimilation and accommodation with both clients and supervisors.

IDM Expansion. In 1998, Stoltenberg, McNeill, and Delworth revisited the original development of the IDM to identify similar behaviors across levels, as well as progression and regression within the model. The authors explained progression in terms of each supervisee's unique journey to mastery: beginning at Level 1 and advancing towards Level 3i, in a non-linear fashion. Instances of regression, or demonstrating lower levels of development than previously achieved in a different situation, were offered to promote supervisors' expectations that supervisees' competence levels fluctuate based on the type of counseling in which they engage. Stoltenberg et al. (1998) explained supervisees progress within the developmental stage framework in a non-linear manner, with stagnation existing at various intervals. Additionally, the levels of IDM are not defined in terms of time. Each individual counselor functions at varying degrees of competence within each skills domain. Essentially, supervisors must not only assess the supervisee's overall development, but also level of competence for each domain (Stoltenberg et al., 1998). For example, a supervisee may function at Level 1 for one functioning domain and Level 2 for another.

Stoltenberg et al. (1998) also found supervisees at higher developmental levels in one type of counseling return to Level 1 when practicing a new type of counseling. For example, a counselor who demonstrates Level 2 development when practicing individual counseling may

revert to Level 1 development while learning group counseling. Stoltenberg et al. (1998) suggested supervisors adapt their methods multiple times throughout each supervision session to accommodate for supervisees' developmental fluctuations between various domains. Although this seems complicated, using Stoltenberg et al.'s (1998) implications will help supervisors better meet supervisees' individual needs in multiple ways by providing more structure in areas where supervisees are struggling and less structure in areas of higher developmental functioning.

The IDM, developed by Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) using information conceptualized in the Counselor Complexity Model (Stoltenberg, 1981), developmental psychology (Loganbill et al., 1982), and the work of Piaget (1970), provides a comprehensive developmental model of supervision. The current version of the IDM (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) includes the four levels of supervisee development in terms of self-other awareness, autonomy, and motivation, the eight functioning domains along with suggestions for optimal environments, information about progression and regression, and an explanation of the developmental progression of supervisors. According to Stoltenberg et al. (1998), supervisors also progress through four levels of development in terms of self-other awareness, motivation, and autonomy, which mirror that of the supervisee. For a comprehensive review, readers may consult Stoltenberg and McNeill's (2010) explanation of supervisor development and training. The current version of the IDM also includes calls for empirical support and further research (Stoltenberg et al., 1998).

Empirical Support for the IDM

The Integrated Developmental Model (IDM) is the most widely investigated developmental model of supervision to date (Stoltenberg, 2005). To offer a comprehensive review of the empirical representation of the IDM in the supervision literature, the focus of this

review turns to the IDM assessment tool (SLQ-R); the eight functioning domains; supervisee self-efficacy; influential developmental factors of the IDM, including cognitive complexity, education, experience, age, gender, and cultural background; and supervisee development based on attachment to supervisor. The findings from these studies not only validate the IDM, but offer additional areas of focus for supervisors to best meet supervisees' needs.

McNeill, Stoltenberg, and Romans (1992) recognized the need for a reliable and valid instrument to identify the development level at which supervisees are currently functioning within the IDM. They revised McNeill, Stoltenberg, and Pierce's (1985) Supervision Levels Questionnaire (SLQ), based off of Stoltenberg's (1981) CCM, to design an instrument to assess the theoretical constructs outlined by Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987). The Supervisee Levels Questionnaire—Revised included 47 self-report items with a 7-point Likert scale. One hundred five counselors in training, in either practicum or internship, participated in the study. The data demonstrated reliability and construct validity for the SLQ-R. Results indicated support for using the SLQ-R to assess and evaluate supervisees at various levels of education, training, and experience (McNeill et al., 1992).

Ashby (1999) also conducted a study to investigate the validity of the IDM. The author interviewed first and second year counseling psychology student supervisees and their supervisors at four to five week intervals over the course of one academic year, totaling six interviews per participant. Ashby conducted a thematic analysis to categorize commonalities using Stoltenberg's (1998) eight functioning domains.

Results supported the predictive implications for a number of the eight domains, specifically noting intervention skills competence, personal assessment, and theoretical orientation (Ashby, 1999). Results also supported the predictive nature of autonomy,

motivation, and awareness within the four developmental levels explicated by Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987). It is important to note that the majority of the data analyzed represented supervisees in Level 1 and Level 2, with one progressing to Level 3 in the final interview. Although individual differences awareness in beginning supervisees was represented, Ashby (1999) mentioned the lack of evidence for the other functioning domains across levels. He called for future studies, with more time and financial support, to investigate the domains not strongly supported, including assessment techniques, client conceptualization, treatment plans and goals, and professional ethics (Ashby, 1999).

Leach, Stoltenberg, McNeill, and Eichenfield (1997) assessed the IDM in terms of self-efficacy and counselor development within the intervention skills competence and individual differences domains. The authors elicited participation from 142 master's and doctoral level counselors-in-training. Participants read case studies of either clients with depression or history of sexually abuse. The counselors-in-training rated their beliefs while working with the client using five skills and awareness technique factors. They then completed the Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory and the Supervisee Levels Questionnaire-Revised. Leach et al. (1997) found significant differences between Level 1 and Level 2 supervisees regarding the five counselor belief factors. Level 1 supervisees reported lower self-efficacy in using microskills than did Level 2 supervisees. Results also showed consistency with the IDM's description of Level 2 trainees heightened understanding of process issues. Level 2 trainees also rated themselves higher in terms of self-efficacy in working with difficult client behaviors than did Level 1 supervisees. The authors suggested supervisees' expectations and behaviors within the counseling relationship should be analyzed throughout the practicum supervision experience,

with specific discussions centered on self-efficacy. They also recommended revisiting efficacy assessments as supervisees work with various populations (Leach et al., 1997).

In 1999, Lovell recognized validation of the IDM was primarily centered on educational training and experience. He noted a lack of empirical evidence supporting the cognitive complexity component of the IDM. The author used the Supervisee Levels Questionnaire – Revised (SLQ-R) to investigate 83 beginning counseling practicum students’ self-other awareness, motivation, and dependency-autonomy. Participants also completed the Learning Environment Preferences (LEP), an objective measure of cognitive development, to generate their Cognitive Complexity Index (CCI). The results validated the cognitive complexity component of the IDM. Results also suggested trainees’ previous experience in supervision accounted for higher levels of cognitive complexity. Lovell recommended supervisors consider this component, number of hours of practical experience, and number of course hours completed when assessing cognitive complexity within the developmental levels of the IDM and adapting their methods to best meet supervisees’ needs (Lovell, 1999).

Bang (2006) also explored education and counseling experience, but added influences of diversity. Although a significant amount of research validates the use of developmental models of supervision for the Western culture, with Caucasian participants widely represented, little empirical research exists supporting their use with ethnically diverse supervisees. Noting this discrepancy in the literature, Bang (2006) sought to test the three constructs of the IDM, while considering supervisees’ age, gender, education, and counseling experience. One hundred and eighty-one Korean counseling supervisees completed the SLQ-R. Results supported use of the IDM for Korean supervisees. Results also indicated age, education, and experience had positive effects on the three constructs of the IDM, but gender did not. Bang (2006) suggested

supervisors consider influences of cultural and ethnic backgrounds while assessing supervisees' developmental levels and providing optimal supervision environments.

Foster, Lichtenberg, and Peyton (2007) studied the supervisory relationships effect on supervisees' development. Specifically, they investigated the attachment bond within the relationship and how that bond influenced supervisees' self-awareness, motivation, and autonomy as they progressed through the stages of the IDM. Participants included 90 supervisory dyads. Supervisees completed the SLQ-R and supervisors completed the Supervisee Level Scale, which is consistent with the IDM. Quantitative analysis yielded results. First, the supervisory attachment relationship was similar to attachment style in other close relationships supervisees experienced. The supervisees self-reported higher levels of their developmental functioning than did their supervisors. The authors suggested this discrepancy may be attributed to supervisees' focusing more on the strong positive attachment relationship with supervisors, rather than their own areas of weakness. Foster et al. (2007) encouraged supervisors to continue to build positive relationships with supervisees to promote motivation, but also to focus on self-awareness and skills deficits when processing evaluations.

Empirical support for the IDM is represented well in the literature. Studies investigating the SLQ-R and the eight functioning domains offer validation of the model. Supervisee self-efficacy and influential developmental factors of the IDM, including cognitive complexity, education, experience, age, gender, and cultural background, were also elucidated. Finally, considering supervisee development within the contexts of attachment to supervisor also offered support for the IDM. Understanding the multiple areas of investigation for the validation of the IDM allows for a focus specifically on considerations for beginning supervisees at Levels 1 and 2.

Beginning Supervisees IDM Research

Empirical evidence detailing beginning supervisees' experiences in practicum supervision, sets the foundation for considerations in exploring Levels 1 and 2 practicum and internship supervisees' experiences of harmful supervision. This section combines research based on Stoltenberg's original developmental conceptualization (CCM), scholarly considerations for counselors in training preparing for practicum, and studies investigating experiences of beginning supervisees during practicum, often characterized by Levels 1 and 2 of the IDM.

In an early study, Borders (1991) investigated supervisees' development during practicum. She used Stoltenberg's (1981) original developmental framework, the CCM, to study 44 practicum students during their master's level training in counseling. Borders used the Supervisee Levels Questionnaire (SLQ) to assess supervisees' perceptions of their developmental levels. An analysis of covariance demonstrated a significant increase in supervisees' self-awareness, autonomy, and theory and skills competence upon completion of practicum, supporting Stoltenberg's (1981) proposed developmental constructs and the SLQ. Borders (1991) suggested supervisors use developmental awareness to foster growth in beginning supervisees during their practicum experiences.

Noting a lack of research regarding counselors-in-training prior to their practical experiences, Eichenfield and Stoltenberg (1996) reflected upon their professional observations of difficulties experienced by pre-practicum students' within the context of the IDM. They proposed a Sub-Level 1 for students who did not successfully develop into the role of counselor in a typically accepted time frame. These trainees lacked the basic skills necessary to begin work with clients, were unable or lacked motivation to learn, had unresolved personal or

relational issues, or experienced delays in cognitive, ego, and moral development. The authors warned supervisors against allowing students who lack basic skills to progress, as they may experience decreased self-esteem that affects professional development and may benefit with more time to develop those skills. Additionally, supervisees who lack motivation, have unresolved personal issues, and do not grow in areas of cognitive, moral, and ego development are unlikely to improve with more time prior to or during practicum. Eichenfield and Stoltenberg (1996) suggested educators use this information in student admission selection and in student-to-instructor or supervisor ratios, to serve as a preventative measure for pushing ill prepared students through to unwarranted levels of training and responsibility.

Anderson and Bang (2004) explored the progressive process of development through the stages of the IDM, with specific attention given to the skill sets associated with this progression for beginning supervisees. The authors conducted a literature review of information based on the IDM and substance abuse treatment to provide a framework for Level 1 and 2 supervisees in practicum supervision for substance abuse counseling. They recommended supervisees use this framework to identify areas of strength and weakness within the eight functioning domains to strengthen their skills sets and progress to higher levels of developmental functioning (Anderson & Bang, 2003).

Abney (2003) studied practicum students' levels of self-awareness when working with clients. As self-awareness is a primary construct within the IDM, this study illuminates useful information in understanding beginning supervisees' experiences in training. Participants included 29 counselor education master's and doctoral practicum students, four faculty supervisors, and eight doctoral supervisors. The author used the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and the Counselor Evaluation Rating Scale (CERS). Factor analysis and results suggested

counselor self-awareness was correlated to counselor effectiveness. Abney (2003) emphasized the need for self-awareness training during practicum supervision. These results indicate support for the IDM's emphasis on self-other awareness as overarching principle of supervisee development (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) and the importance of competence in the functioning domain interpersonal awareness.

IDM notes that counseling students often feel incompetent and vulnerable as they notice their lacking skill sets in transferring their classroom knowledge into practice with clients for the first time. Attending to the negative effects of unmanaged anxiety and stress on development, Fitch and Marshall (2002) investigated the use of cognitive interventions in group supervision to promote the emotional health of practicum students. In their literature review, the authors explained excessive anxiety impedes skill development and functioning for beginning counselors-in-training and engenders burnout. They insisted learning to manage emotional reactions is an essential skill for counselors in training and practice to possess.

Furthermore, Fitch and Marshall (2002) differentiated between useful anxiety from accurate self-appraisal that promotes change and detrimental performance anxiety or stress from confrontation in session that may negatively affect supervisees' counseling relationships. The authors suggested supervisors attend to emotion regulation and irrational thinking while avoiding dual relationships by focusing on the cognitive interventions' benefit to supervisees' professional development. In group supervision, supervisors may address supervisees irrational thought patterns by verbally processing fears, considering the natural consequences of their fears, identifying intervening thoughts and beliefs, and restating thoughts in a rational way (Fitch & Marshall, 2002). Considering the IDM, these results align and may be particularly useful with Level 1 supervisees who experience anxiety regarding evaluation and with Level 2 supervisees

who experience conflict between autonomy and dependency with supervisees (Stoltenberg et al., 1998)

Chapman, Baker, Nassar-McMillan, and Gerler (2011) studied supervisee development over the course of practicum related to competence and confidence while assessing the utility of cybersupervision. Five master's-level practicum students and one supervisor participated in the study. Synchronous and asynchronous methods of providing online supervision via a 14-week WebCT course included discussion boards, electronic mail, VHS videos, and text chats. Sessions included counseling experience sharing, follow-up questions, feedback, supervisor-led discussion topics, supervisee-led presentations, and case study analyses. Supervisees' competence rating increased over time, as did counseling confidence and satisfaction with the cybersupervision format. Competence and confidence are directly related to supervisee development based on the IDM.

Supervisees entering or progressing through their first clinical counseling experiences in practicum are easily identified as Level 1 or 2 of the IDM. They often lack self- and other-awareness, are dependent on their supervisors, and are motivated by sensitivity to evaluation (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). It is essential for supervisors to understand their developmental tendencies to provide the most effective supervision (Borders, 1991). When working with beginning supervisees, supervisors should focus on skill development (Anderson & Bang, 2003), self-awareness (Abney, 2003), irrational thought patterns (Fitch & Marshall, 2002), and competence and confidence (Chapman et al., 2011). Additionally, counselor educators may benefit by assessing students' potential for personal and professional growth prior to practicum (Eichenfield & Stoltenberg, 1996) and alternative methods for the delivery of practicum supervision (Chapman et al., 2011).

IDM Section Summary

Attempts to conceptualize counselor development began with the work of Hogan (1964) and Hunt (1971). Stoltenberg (1981) used these models to explain counselors' cognitive development. The original IDM used the CCM to conceptualize counselors' growth within the process of supervision (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987) and offered suggestions for assessing competence as supervisees progress to higher levels of functioning in terms of autonomy, self- and other- awareness, and motivation. The expanded version of the IDM (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) provided an understanding of the manner in which supervisees move between the Levels as they increase competence in the various domains. Finally, research primarily investigating supervisees' practicum experiences offered a more refined view of the unique characteristics of beginning counselors in training. This information serves as the foundation for the exploration and understanding of beginning counselors' experiences of harmful supervision.

Summary

Due to the deleterious outcomes of supervision (Ellis, 2001; Unger, 1999), the heightened vulnerability for beginning counselors in training (Stoltenberg et al, 1998), and lack of research linking beginning supervisees and harmful supervision, the primary focus of this study was the lived experiences of beginning supervisees at Levels 1 and 2 of the IDM. With a focus on the emotional experiences of those counselors in training, the author elicited participants who completed their practicum or internship training in mental health counseling. A qualitative investigation into their lived emotional experiences using phenomenology (van Manen, 2014) was conducted in hopes of offering practical implications for the prevention and management of harmful supervision to supervisors, supervisees, and counselor educators. Details of this investigative approach immediately follow in chapter 3.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Ellis (2001) called for the development of a unifying construct and a conceptual framework to guide theory, research, and practice as related to harmful supervision. He encouraged additional studies that provided more descriptive and demographic data about the contexts in which harmful supervision occurs. The current study provided a response that elucidates the emotional experience of harmful supervision for supervisees, particularly beginning supervisees who may be considered the most vulnerable (Stoltenberg et al., 1998). I hope offering multiple considerations for precursors and exacerbating conditions informs efforts to prevent and manage harmful supervision.

This section includes a discussion of the philosophical underpinnings of qualitative research in general and phenomenology in particular. I provide detailed explanation of the development, purpose, goals, and limitations of phenomenology, along with ethical considerations for the researcher and notes about trustworthiness of the data. Finally, information about recruitment and a step-by-step presentation of the phenomenological approach used, including data collection and analysis, is presented.

Qualitative Research

Philosophical Assumptions

“Qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2007; p. 73). The nature of qualitative research has moved from its historical roots in social constructivism to interpretivism to issues of social justice. The major characteristics of qualitative research include naturalistic inquiry, inductive analysis, a holistic perspective, qualitative data, personal contact and insight, dynamic

systems, unique case orientation, context sensitivity, empathic neutrality, and design flexibility (Patton, 1990).

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) explained qualitative researchers use interpretive, material practices to observe the world. Representations of the world exist in field notes, interviews, conversations, multimedia, recordings, and memos that transform the world (p.3). This naturalistic, interpretive approach encompasses identifying the structure and making sense of the meanings individuals attach to phenomenon. The focus is always on identifying the meanings formulated by participants, rather than meanings created by researchers (Creswell, 2007).

My intentions to gain an understanding of beginning supervisees' experiences in harmful supervision were served well by the focus on individuals' subjective experiences provided by qualitative research methods (Creswell, 2007). Rather than gathering quantitative information about harmful supervision (i.e. prevalence or contexts in which supervision occurs) I was interested in knowing what occurs within the supervisory relationship and the impact these interactions have on vulnerable supervisees. Although Unger (1995) and Ellis (2001) provided useful information about the detrimental outcomes of harmful supervision, this information is limited. An awareness of the outcomes of these experiences is essential for calling professionals in the field to attention. However, in order to offer implications for the prevention and management of harmful supervision, we must learn what precedes those outcomes. Knowing what to attend to prior to and at the onset of supervision, along with what to look for while supervision is progressing are the only ways to reduce the potential for such detrimental outcomes to occur. Furthermore, efforts to identify the types of situations or behaviors found to be ineffective or harmful are already present in the literature. The missing piece is how ineffective supervision is experienced as harmful by some, but not all supervisees. It was my

opinion that this crucial information lay in the emotional reactions to those ineffective situations and behaviors.

Several individuals' common or shared experiences of a phenomenon are appropriately investigated using phenomenology as a research methodology (Creswell, 2012). The methods of this study served to yield a rich description of supervisees' experiences of harmful supervision, including emotional aspects, called for by Watkins (1997) and Ellis (2001). The phenomenological approach, presented by van Manen (2014), built upon transcendentalism with a systematic procedure, supported my efforts to fill the gap in the literature related to harmful supervision experienced by beginning supervisees' in Level 1 or 2 of the IDM.

Phenomenology

Development and Description

The origins of the phenomenological approach are set in philosophy, psychology, and education (Creswell, 2007). In order to conduct phenomenology, one must first understand the philosophy of phenomenology (van Manen, 2014). Phenomenology rejected the 20th century notion of positivism, which explained reality as orderly, logical, and rational. Exploring the essence, or essential structure, of human experience is the primary focus of phenomenological inquiry (Hatch, 2002). The underlying philosophical assumptions of phenomenology involve a combination of objective and subjective realities (Creswell, 2007).

Two primary types of phenomenology exist: descriptive/transcendental phenomenology and hermeneutic/interpretive phenomenology (Tesch, 1990). Descriptive, or transcendental, phenomenology, pioneered by Edmund Husserl, is grounded in human consciousness (van Manen, 2014). The researcher attempts to suspend personal knowledge in an effort to understand participants' perceptions of reality, rather than identifying what *really* happened. In

opposition to the thought that individuals possess the capacity to remove their own preconceived notions from the process of qualitative inquiry, Martin Heidegger developed interpretive phenomenology (LeVasseur, 2003). Hermeneutic, or interpretive, phenomenology involves the researcher as a knowing subject charged with interpreting, or making sense, of the data (Lopez & Willis, 2004).

Goals and Purposes

For the purpose of this study, existential phenomenology, a version of transcendental phenomenology, was used. This approach is informed by Husserl's (1913/1962) philosophy and expanded upon by Merleau-Ponty (1945/1962), Moustakas (1994), van Manen (2014), and Thomas and Pollio (2002). For clarity, the foundation is the same across all approaches to transcendental phenomenology (van Manen, 2014). Intricacies of their procedural differences will be elaborated upon later.

Valle et al. (1989) explained the *natural attitude* as an unquestioning stance in which human beings assume the world exists independently from them, turning to the notion that individuals understand the world objectively. However, Husserl (1913/1962) insisted researchers must move away from their natural attitudes to a *transcendental attitude* in which they set aside their own thoughts and beliefs. Only then are they ready to fully understand each individual's uniquely perceived experience of the phenomenon. Husserl's philosophy focuses on how an individual experiences a phenomenon and the creation of knowledge regarding that experience, rather than concretely measuring the facts of the experience or the resulting knowledge (van Manen, 2014). Husserl (1913/62) explained lived experiences have a transformative impact on individuals. In the transcendental attitude, the philosophy of human existence builds upon perception and extends to a holistic view of the individual's experience

(van Manen, 2014). Merleau-Ponty emphasized existence in terms of the individual interacting with the world, and the people in it, creating a reactionary cycle of being. A number of individuals used this collective philosophy to guide procedural approaches to phenomenology. Although a great number of types of phenomenology exist (Caelli, 2000), this study primarily focused on the philosophical assumptions provided by Merleau-Ponty's (1945/1962) existential phenomenology, with overlap in Moustakas' (1994) approach, attention to emotion within the lived experience (Heidegger, 1927; Sartre & Frechtman, 1939), and specific recommendations from Thomas and Pollio's (2002) model.

Existential Phenomenology

Conducting research using existential phenomenology begins with formulating the research question and determining if this method is appropriate for the purpose of the study (van Manen, 2014). In order to do so, one must consider if the proposed methods will provide the data needed to answer the research questions. Next, the researcher identifies aspects of positionality prior to gathering research (Hatch, 2002). This involves recognizing how one's background shapes interpretation of the data, or how one makes sense of the meanings others have about the world (Creswell, 2012). Before collecting data, bracketing involves raising one's awareness of thoughts, feelings, and attitudes regarding the topic and setting them aside to limit the impact on what is being studied (Hatch, 2002). Throughout the research process, the researcher must continually reflect on her thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and background; and how these things may impact the process (Creswell, 2012). This may be achieved by reflective writing, or maintaining field notes, after each interview.

After formulating the research questions, determining appropriateness of the methods, and initially identifying positionality, the researcher reviews the existent literature pertaining to

the topic, writes the research proposal, and seeks approval from the institutional review board (Creswell, 2012). Upon approval, the researcher elicits eligible participants, preferably 5 – 25 individuals. In an investigation centered on data saturation and variability, Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) determined the basic elements for meta-themes were found in six interviews, with saturation typically occurring in the first twelve interviews. Multiple in-depth, open-ended interviews, using broad, general questions (van Manen, 2014) allow participants the opportunity to construct their own meaning.

Following transcription, the researcher begins analyzing the data by reviewing the transcripts while listening to the tapes (Moustakas, 1994). This allows the researcher to check for tone, continually going back into the data to validate the identification of subjective meaning. The process continues by underlining significant phrases and making notes about the essence of the phenomenon in the margins (Hatch, 2002). Next, the researcher begins coding the data. According to Moustakas (1994), horizontalism involves breaking down the underlined statements into the smallest group of words possible. It also involves making lists of meaning units, similes, metaphors, and figures of speech. Coding continues with grouping the lists into theme clusters (Creswell, 2013). Finally, the researcher develops the thematic structure, a descriptive story of how the themes relate to one another (van Manen, 2014). The researcher notes the primary pattern running through the data, highlights the meaning the participants have derived from their collective experiences, and identifies collective themes across participants. The researcher also notes unique themes for individuals.

After allowing participants to review and add to the data analysis to ensure validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the researcher presents the findings by labeling and defining the theme with illustrative narratives to support the results. The discussion section relates the results to the

theories presented in the literature review. In phenomenological research, the goal is to provide an exhaustive description of the lived experiences of the phenomenon (van Manen, 2014). The researcher discusses limitations of the study, implications for practice, and calls for future research to extend the understanding of the phenomenon studied (Creswell, 2012).

Limitations

The limitations inherent to the chosen methodology include the potential for researcher bias, subjectivity throughout the study, and the inability to generalize outcomes (Creswell, 2007). In phenomenology, generalizability is called in to question due to small sample sizes and lack of representativeness of the sample (Magnuson et al., 2000). This notion transforms generalizability into a question of which settings we can generalize the results (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In this case, findings are generalized to clinical supervision in mental health counseling. Additionally, each participant's comfort level and willingness to share may have limited the information gathered. Although extensive measures to ensure anonymity were utilized, the sensitive nature of the information being sought in this study may have been met with resistance due to the sociopolitical nature of the counseling field.

Phenomenological Research on Supervision

Although phenomenology is a popular methodological approach for investigating issues in the behavioral sciences, and counseling, specifically (van Manen, 2014), recent phenomenological research on clinical supervision is limited. This pool is even more limited in counselor education and supervision. However, a brief review of the literature that does exist provides some context and support for the current study.

Worthen and McNeill (1996) investigated supervisees' experiences of good supervisory events. The researchers used phenomenological procedures to interview eight intermediate and

advanced counseling supervisees. Themes of good supervision included the following: 1) existential baseline, 2) setting the stage, 3) good supervision experience, and 4) outcomes of good supervision. Collectively, Worthen and McNeill (1996) suggested supervisors establish a strong supervisory relationship as the foundation to effective supervision.

As previously highlighted in Chapter 2, Nelson and Friedlander (2001) investigated supervisees' experiences of conflictual supervisory relationships using phenomenology and the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory, along with the Supervisory Styles Inventory. The themes that emerged from the data were the perception of supervisor's lack of investment, lack of supervision, feelings of being over worked, expectations to support their supervisors, and extreme stress and self-doubt. The qualitative themes aligned with scores on the inventories. Nelson and Friedlander (2001) insisted supervisors discuss power differentials, clarify expectations, process conflict, and discuss detrimental events in supervision to promote effectiveness within the supervisory relationship.

Starling and Baker (2011) conducted retrospective phenomenological interviews to explore supervisees' perceptions of supervision theory. The researchers used Stoltenberg's (1981) Cognitive Complexity Model to illuminate the developmental characteristics and vulnerabilities of supervisees. Four counseling supervisees in practicum group supervision detailed their experiences through semi-structured interviews. The themes of supervisees' experiences in practicum group supervision identified in data analysis were 1) decreased confusion and anxiety, 2) clearer goals, 3) increased confidence, and 4) valued interaction with and feedback from peers. Starling and Baker (2011) suggested supervisors engage in focused observations of supervisees in session with clients, role play, case analysis using various

theoretical perspectives, and use of descriptive metaphors to promote the development of theoretical orientation in group practicum supervision.

Vallance (2007) used phenomenology to investigate supervisees' perceptions of the impact of supervision on their clients. Six supervisees participated in semi-structured interviews. Emergent themes included relationship dynamics and self-awareness, professional development, emotional support, clients not discussed in supervision, and the quality of the supervisory relationship. Results indicated supervision affects clients, as perceived by supervisees, in both helpful and unhelpful ways. Vallance (2007) suggested supervisors attend to congruence and confidence within the supervisory relationship to model such interactions within the counselor-client relationship.

Impellizzeri (2012) conducted a phenomenological study to illuminate the experiences of supervisees in Christian Integrative Supervision. The researcher used interpretive phenomenological methodology with 12 supervisees in their second and third years of a clinical psychology program. Data analysis uncovered six themes: 1) lack of integration 2) meaning making within the supervisory relationship, 3) safety within supervision, 4) integration between the multiple relationships of supervisor, supervisee, and client, 5) like characteristics of supervision, and 6) professional outcomes of supervision. Implications highlighted the importance of the supervision contract, diversity, integrative learning within supervision, modeling, and the desire for explicit interventions. Furthermore, Impellizzeri (2012) suggested supervisees should engage in Christian thought during supervision, rather than simply focusing on skills competence.

Recent phenomenological research related to counseling supervision, while limited in amount, offers variety in aspects of the supervision experience for supervisees. Investigations

into the lived experiences of good supervision, conflictual relationships, theoretical orientation development, supervisees' perceptions of the impact of supervision on their clients, and specific types of supervision used offer insight into the common themes of supervisees' experiences. The literature also offers perspectives from both individual and group supervision for supervisees of multiple developmental levels.

As phenomenological methods focus on the unique perspective and experience of each individual (Creswell, 2007), the previously detailed studies add depth of understanding about supervision that qualitative studies do not. Counselors and counselor educators are called to consider multiple perspectives (ACA, 2014), making qualitative data essential. Furthermore, phenomenological studies investigating harmful supervision are not significantly represented in the literature. In order to conceptualize the nuances of harmful supervision and offer implications for prevention and maintenance, a holistic view of supervisees' lived experiences is paramount.

Role of Researcher in the Current Study

Ethical Considerations

Plans for this study were presented to and approved by the University of Tennessee's Institutional Review Board to ensure all ethical considerations were present prior to conducting research with human subjects. Using an informed consent document, I provided the following information to participants: purpose of the study, nature of the data, time required, options for withdrawal, benefits, and possible risks.

Researcher Bias. As a responsible researcher, I must also attend to issues of positionality (Creswell, 2012). This process began with an awareness of my place in space. For this study, I am a White, female, doctoral candidate in counselor education and supervision at a

major southeastern university. I also possess a possible power differential in relation to the participants I interviewed. Positionality also involves raising my awareness of my experience and subjective meaning regarding the topic of harmful supervision (Creswell, 2012).

I was drawn to the topic of harmful supervision as I experienced harmful supervision during my Master's level internship. The relationship with my supervisor, who was conducting supervision for the first time, was temporarily detrimental to my personal and professional well-being. She demonstrated little respect for personal boundaries as she repeatedly asked unwanted questions about my personal life, used that information as evidence for her perception of my ineffectiveness as a counselor, and shared that information with professionals on-site and in my counseling program. She focused primarily on counseling me and evaluating me based on her requirements for me to practice her theoretical orientation. Finally, she encouraged me to terminate with a client I feared was experiencing suicidal ideation.

As a result of these interactions, I found myself feeling sick on the mornings we had scheduled supervision. I avoided interacting with her outside of supervision and eventually became very resistant within our sessions. I also questioned my fit for counseling, or counseling's fit for me. Above all, my greatest concern was my client. I had a very strong connection with her and I knew something was not quite right. I also knew she trusted me and that I was the only person she was speaking with about her difficulties. I was not willing to terminate and advocated for her on several occasions with my supervisor and the site director. My client expressed her detailed plan to kill herself the same day my supervisor insisted, despite my rationale and with support from the director, that I terminate her. I went with my client to the psychiatric hospital and continued to see her for two more months at another site. She worked through the majority of the issues she faced and learned coping mechanisms for future

challenges. We terminated with her feeling happy, which was my greatest accomplishment as a counselor.

I attribute a part of the downward progression of our supervisory relationship to her lack of experience and appropriate training in supervision and my lack of courage to speak up early when she violated my trust. I also never sought support regarding our relationship from outside sources, as I was acutely aware of the power differential. Through a series of conversations with my chair and other researchers, I noticed biases based on my own experience. The greatest realizations were that harmful supervision was not solely the result of abuse of power and that supervisees' characteristics may exacerbate the harmful effects of an ineffective supervisory relationship. I used this recognition of my biases and presuppositions regarding harmful supervision to approach the data analysis from a fresh perspective, as insisted upon by Husserl (1913/1962).

Trustworthiness. In order to accurately discover and report participants' unique experiences, researchers must set aside their preconceived notions regarding the phenomenon (Husserl, 1913/1962). This process, called *epoche* or bracketing, is achieved by a constant comparative analysis of biases and presuppositions during planning and organizing the study, analyzing the data, and providing implications based on the results without corruption from analysis or interpretation based on the researcher's personal experience (Creswell, 2007). Husserl also suggested researchers must engage in reduction, as they recognize their own experience of the phenomenon they study (as cited in van Manen, 2014). Unearthing the meaning of a lived experience from the pure perspective of an individual or group of individuals is at the core of the phenomenological approach (van Manen, 2014)).

I demonstrated efforts to ensure trustworthiness in the previous discussion of my experience and continued to do so in conversations with my chair and the phenomenology group throughout the data collection and analysis process (van Manen, 2014). I engaged in constant comparative analysis as I elicit feedback from participants following the data collection process. I asked participants to review their transcripts and add or clarify information. Upon analysis of the data, I asked participants to review the analysis and add or edit any information (Creswell, 2007). I attended an interdisciplinary phenomenological analysis group to review transcripts and discuss codes and themes. Eliciting feedback from experts in phenomenological research, along with other researchers with experience conducting phenomenology, bolstered methodological rigor and trustworthiness (Creswell, 2007).

Using phenomenological methods to conduct this study illuminated the lived experience of harmful supervision for mental health counseling students in Level 1 or 2 based on the IDM. Understanding the unique and shared perspectives of the participants offers insight into identifying risks for, preventing, and managing harmful supervision for supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators.

Participants

Participants were found through a purposeful sample that includes mental health counselors enrolled in practicum and/or internship courses who self-reported experiences of harmful supervision. In phase one, snowball sampling through word-of-mouth referrals through mental health counseling agencies initiated the participant recruitment process. Phase two continued recruitment through mental health counseling programs in East Tennessee (see attached solicitation for participation posting). In phase three, recruitment concluded by using COUNSGRADS, a professional listserv for masters and doctoral level students in counselor

education. CESNET-L, a professional listserv for counselors, counselor educators, and supervisors, was intended for additional access to potential participants, but was not needed. . Participants were required to be currently residing in the U.S., enrolled in or graduated from a mental health counseling program having completed practicum or internship and identified as receiving harmful supervision. Because this is a phenomenological study, no other restrictions were made regarding potential participants. I recruited a total of 8 participants, with the actual number of participants based on when saturation of the data findings occurred. As I used snowball sampling through contacts at mental health counseling agencies and mental health counseling programs in East Tennessee, word of mouth sampling at the American Counseling Association Conference and Expo in Orlando, Florida, and purposeful sampling using COUNSGRADS, the sample includes participants in community counseling agencies in East Tennessee, current or former counseling students in East Tennessee, attendees at the American Counseling Association Conference and Expo in Orlando, Florida, and former or current counseling students who subscribe to the COUNSGRADS listserv.

Procedures

Prior to submitting the proposal, I completed the CITI training for Ethics in Human Subjects Research. Prior to beginning the research, I submitted a proposal and received approval from the University of Tennessee's Institutional Review Board. This electronic form included details of the study and plans to protect participants.

Prior to collecting data, I participated in a bracketing interview, similar to the interviews intended for participants, led by a fellow doctoral student in Counselor Education and Supervision. During this analysis, I openly discussed my personal biases and preconceived notions about the experience of harmful supervision. Participating in a bracketing interview

prior to conducting interviews illuminated my biases and presuppositions regarding harmful supervision (van Manen, 2014). I analyzed my bracketing interview for themes and sub-themes.

Data Collection

Step 1: Local Recruitment. To begin the recruitment process in phase one, I contacted supervisors at mental health counseling agencies in Knoxville, TN. Unfortunately, this method did not yield results. One supervisor left a message explaining she was unable to pass my recruitment message along to the counselors at the agency, as they were busy with clients and families. I did not receive return calls from the other agencies in the area. In phase two, I contacted mental health counseling programs in East Tennessee.

Step 2. National Recruitment. In phase three, I expanded my recruitment to counselors nationally. Upon approval of the UTK IRB, I distributed a flier with the details of my study at the American Counseling Association Conference and Expo in Orlando, Florida. I also utilized a listserv to recruit participants. COUNSGRADS is utilized by graduate students from across the country to communicate with one another regarding coursework, internships, research projects, and ideas about the profession. Darcy Haag Granello, a counselor educator at The Ohio State University, is the list owner. I also planned to use CESNET-L, a listserv created by Marty Jencius (Jencius, 2009) by which professionals in the Counselor Education and Supervision field communicate via email in an open forum regarding issues relevant to counseling, teaching, supervision, research, and service. Membership is free and may be obtained by visiting the CESNET-L website. However, I reached the desired number of participants for saturation prior to the posting of my recruitment email to CESNET-L.

Using COUNSGRADS, I contacted the potential participants via email sent through the listserv. All subscribers receive emails sent from other subscribers. The recruitment email sent

to participants in phases two and three explained the purpose and methods of the study. See Appendix B for this email solicitation for participation. The email included a request for participation, a description of the study, ways the researcher would protect participants related to confidentiality and anonymity, and an informed consent. It also contained an offer for each participant to receive a \$15 gift card. This offer served as incentive to participate in the study. Participants answered demographic questions to provide information related to sex (M/F), age (20 – 30, 31 – 40, 41-50, 51 – 60), race (White, Black, American Indian, Alaskan Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian, Other Pacific Islander, Some other race, or Two or more races), level of training (current Master's level student, Master's degree, current Doctoral student, Doctoral degree), and years of experience (1 – 5, 6 – 10, 10 – 15, 15 – 20) and contacted me via arhineh3@vols.utk.edu to schedule an interview, if they wished to participate.

Step 3. I conducted in-depth phenomenological interviews in a private, quiet area with limited distractions in person, via skype, and by telephone. Interviews took 1 to 1.5 hours, concluding when the interviewer determined the exploration of significant aspects of the experience was complete. Due to the sensitive nature of the inquiry, I attended to the physical and emotional comfort of the interviewees.

I used the following format to conduct interviews. I began by prompting and asking the participants, “Tell me about your experience of harmful supervision. What aspects stand out to you?” During the interview, I allowed adequate time for responses to open-ended, non-directive questions. Follow-up prompts promoted elaboration regarding topics presented by each participant such as “Please tell me more about that.” “Please provide a specific example.” “Tell me what that was like for you.” Phrases summarizing main points helped ensure clarity and promoted additional elaboration. I concluded by asking, “Is there anything else you would like

to add about your experience?” I requested permission to contact participants with follow-up questions to validate findings and to express appreciation. Each participant agreed to this request. After the completion of each interview, I wrote field notes. I recorded the interviews with an audio-recording device on my personal computer called *Sound Recorder*.

Step 4. A transcriptionist signed a confidentiality agreement and transcribed the interviews. I labeled the audio files with numbers to protect anonymity. I stored the data on a disk containing only similar files used in this study. Electronic documents, disks and transcripts are stored on a password protected computer in my home and in a locked file located in Dr. Melinda Gibbons’ office at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Within three years after completion of the study, I will sanitize the data by using a program called Data Destroyer. This program, which is available for download online, overwrites the data so that the data cannot be recovered by any means.

Data Analysis

I analyzed the data using the procedural approach for phenomenology presented by van Manen (2014). I chose this method to capture the “essence” of beginning supervisees’ experiences of harmful supervision. The systematic steps for data analysis provided clarity in organizing and conducting the study. Van Manen’s (2014) recommendations for presenting the textural and structural descriptions found in the data also served me well as I reported participants’ experiences.

Step 1. I created initial codes for each participant that protected their identity. I discussed one transcript with an interdisciplinary phenomenology group at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. This group is led by Drs. Sandra Thomas and Howard Pollio, scholars in existential phenomenology. The group offers suggestions for the interviewer to grow as a

researcher, identify meaning units, and formulate initial considerations for themes that emerge from the data. I was pleased to find similarities in my own line of thinking regarding the participant's experience as those in the phenomenology group. The study composition and my interviewing techniques were verified by Dr. Sandra Thomas.

For each transcript, I started by reading for a sense of the whole while making notes in the margins. The coding process then began by identifying meaning units. Meaning units are words and phrases considered significant to understanding the experience of harmful supervision (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

After highlighting meaning units on the transcript of each interview, I compiled a list to begin the process of clustering similar thoughts or themes. I reviewed the list and identified figural themes, as well as the existential grounds of each participant's experience. According to Merlau-Ponty, attending to figural themes and existential grounds allows for a holistic view of the individual and their unique lived experience (as cited in Thomas, 2005). Figural themes emerged from aspects of the experience predominant in each participant's perspective. I considered the grounds using Thomas and Pollio's (2002) explanation of the contextual background in terms of *Body*, *Time*, *Others*, and *World*. *Body* includes a focus on the participant's physical interpersonal existence, such as their physical well-being and interpersonal meaning making. *Time* influences an individual's perception in terms of contexts such as personal and professional development and decision-making. *Others* encompasses the effects of interactions and relationships with individuals within the contexts of participants' lived experiences. Finally, *World* is identified by the participant's current subjective environment, such as occupational or home setting. This added dimension provided direction and further

organizational guidelines for systematically organizing the data (Thomas, 2005). At the end of this step, I compiled a master list of figural themes and existential grounds.

Step 2. The next step consisted of identifying themes and subthemes. Here, I intended to capture the “meaningful essence” intertwined within the data, as described by Morse (2008). I described themes with a sense of polarity, for example “*self-efficacy or lack thereof*.” I compared the themes to the findings of the pre-data collection interview. Doing this comparison, I allowed space for the continued consideration of my personal biases and presuppositions (Husserl, 1913/1962). I discussed my field notes in relation to the emerging themes with the phenomenology group. I conducted member checking by contacting participants to review their individual transcripts and the themes identified and to provide feedback as needed. I took this feedback into account and reworked my analysis as indicated.

Step 3. Finally, I developed the thematic structure, including global themes from all interviews. In this section, I related themes common throughout the data to explain the overall meaning of the experience of harmful supervision. Exploring the data further, I asked, “What does the information gathered here tell us about the meaning of the supervisee’s experience of harmful supervision?” I also sought to answer the question of, “What do the unique perspectives of supervisees suggest regarding the experience of harmful supervision?” This process allowed me to arrive at an overall understanding of the experience.

Validation and Trustworthiness

Validation. Methodological rigor is ensured by verification and validation (Creswell, 2012), upheld with plausible and illuminating findings. I ensured these standards by conducting a thorough literature review, bracketing, using an appropriate sample, recording field notes, and maintaining fidelity to the chosen method. I ensured continued methodological rigor by

consulting with my chair and the phenomenology group throughout the process. I completed member checking by continuously asking, “What is the data telling me about this experience” and negotiating emergent themes. In addition, I sought feedback from participants during the analytical process. I provided opportunities for participants to add more information to their descriptions, provide feedback on findings, and share any insights gained during the process (van Manen, 2014). I used this feedback to guide my conceptualization and representation of the meaning participants formulated regarding their experiences, individually and collectively. All of these procedures helped me give an ethical presentation of the data.

Ethical Considerations. No risks were anticipated as a result of participating in this study. However, it was possible that participants experienced discomfort or stress as a result of discussing their experience with harmful supervision. As I am a trained counselor, I was prepared to provide support and promote safety if participant discomfort occurred, although I did not offer counseling, just general support and empathic listening. I was also prepared to refer participants to the National Board for Certified Counselors website (www.nbcc.org/directory) for links to their State Board Directory of licensed professional counselors, although this was not needed. One participant mentioned previously seeking counseling to cope with the effects of her harmful experience in supervision.

Use of the Data. To ensure protection of data and participants, a transcriptionist signed a confidentiality agreement and transcribed interviews. My dissertation chair and I also signed a confidentiality agreement. I labeled the tapes with numbers to protect participant anonymity. Participants were be informed that they may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. A disk containing only similar files used in this study stores the data in my password locked computer in my home. All data will be secured for 3 years and then destroyed using a

program called Data Destroyer. This program, which is available for download online, overwrites the data so that the data cannot be recovered by any means. Data for the project was be stored on my password protected personal computer. The computer is in my home, 5709 Poston Way #217, Knoxville, TN 37918. Informed consent data is be stored in Dr. Melinda Gibbons' office, 441 Claxton Complex. These data is in a locked file. Only Dr. Gibbons has access to informed consent data. The record of the names of participants and the numbers assigned each is kept in a separate locked file and stored in Dr. Gibbons' office, Claxton Complex.

This chapter provided the philosophical foundations of qualitative research, specifically existential phenomenology, fit the call for descriptive research related to harmful supervision, called for by Ellis (2001). The focus on a holistic lived experience, specifically illuminated by Merleau-Ponty's (1945/1962) existential phenomenology, and emotional aspects highlighted by Heidegger (1927) and Sartre and Frechtman (1939) serve my furthered inquiry into the lived experiences of beginning supervisees in harmful supervision. The methodological procedures explicated by van Manen (2014) and Thomas and Pollio (2005) provide a clear explanation of the manner in which I elucidated those experiences. Finally, the ethical considerations previously discussed protected participants and ensured methodological rigor as I fill the gap in the clinical supervision literature by describing the lived experience of beginning counselors in harmful supervision.

Chapter Four: Findings

The purpose of the present study was to elucidate beginning counselors' experiences of harmful supervision. The research question guiding the study was, "What is the lived experience of beginning counselors in harmful supervision?" Eight individuals, six females and two males, who were or are enrolled in a mental health counseling program and identified as having had a harmful supervision experience either during practicum, internship, or both, participated in the study. Data from the eighth participant was not included in the study, as the harmful supervision experience occurred after internship.

In existential phenomenology, each phenomenon, or experience, is described and understood in terms of a figure and ground (Shattell, Starr, & Thomas, 2007). The figure is at the forefront of the experience. In the present study, harmful supervision stands out as the figure. For participants, harmful supervision was the overarching issue discussed. The ground (themes) encompasses the context of that experience, or the background of which that experience is lived (Thomas & Pollio, 2002). For the participants in this descriptive study, the ground included perceptions of not getting what they needed, feeling attacked, being isolated, experiencing both self-efficacy and lack thereof, and impairment. Therefore, harmful supervision was experienced against the background of these themes. Although each experience was unique, the progression of the experience, commonalities across participants' experience, and the essence of the lived experience of harmful supervision for beginning counseling supervisees resulted in similar themes. This detailed description of the phenomenon addresses the present study's research question "What is the lived experience of beginning counselors in harmful supervision?"

Progression of Experience

Each participant experienced perceived harmful supervision in a unique way, under different circumstances, and with various reactions. Interestingly, the progression of their experiences was described similarly by each participant. Beyond explaining the contexts of the situation, including events, systems, individuals, and time relevant to their personal and professional development, participants described their perception of harmful supervision beginning with their supervisor's actions, followed by their own reactions, then described the damage to the relationship, and ended with outcomes for supervisees. Noting the contexts, supervisor and supervisee characteristics and behavior, impacts on the supervisory relationship, and consequences illuminates a systematic understanding of the experience of harmful supervision of these participants. In the next two sections, participants' individual experiences are outlined according to this progression, as are the thematic descriptions of their collective experiences.

Participants' Individual Experiences

To fully capture and understand the lived experience of harmful supervision, each participant's unique experience of the phenomenon was broken down into parts, or meaning units (Thomas & Pollio, 2005). These meaning units were organized into categories, or themes, representing patterns of the experience that were common within each individual's description. Before describing the themes, however, it is necessary to provide a description of each participant's unique harmful supervision experience. Each participant's subjective experience is outlined in Table 2 and described in detail below within the progression explained in the above paragraph. Because experiences of harmful supervision were solicited only from supervisees, all descriptions are those 'perceived' by the participant.

Table 2

Participant Descriptions Related to Harmful Supervision

Participant Pseudonym	Practicum/Internship	Contexts of Harmful Supervision*	Demographics	Current Age
Mary	Practicum	Relationship: - Conflict in the relationship - Personality differences - Neglect – questioning career choice - Abuse of power – teacher and supervisor (theoretical imposition) Supervisor: Abuse of power – placing her needs above supervisee with theoretical imposition	Caucasian, female	30
Karen	Both	Supervisee: loss of self-confidence Relationship: - Neglect – loss of self-efficacy Supervisor: Abuse of power – humiliated, devalued, highly unlikely to protest Supervisee: Traumatized, prevailing sense of mistrust, loss of confidence, left the profession	Caucasian, female	38
Lisa	Both	Relationship: Neglect – loss of self-efficacy Conflict in the relationship - Personality differences Supervisee: Felt devalued	Caucasian, female	24
Eric	Internship	Relationship: Abuse of power – professional status Supervisor: Used power to satisfy her needs, coerced, humiliated	Caucasian, male	29

Table 2. Continued.

<i>Participant Descriptions Related to Harmful Supervision</i>				
Participant Pseudonym	Practicum/Internship	Contexts of Harmful Supervision*	Demographics	Current Age
Ben	Internship	Relationship: • Neglect • Abuse of power – multicultural privilege Supervisor: • Difficulties as a visible minority, lack of trusting relationship and multicultural supervision competence; • Distrusted supervisor – anger, withdrawal • Microaggressions – invalidating racial-cultural issues, blaming clients of color for problems stemming from oppression, and offering culturally insensitive treatment recommendations. Supervisee: Functional impairment in professional life	Asian, male	31
Taylor	Practicum	Relationship: Neglect Supervisee: Traumatized, prevailing sense of mistrust, debilitating fears, functional impairment personal	African-American, female	35
Callie	Internship	Relationship: Abuse of power – professional status Supervisor: Placing her self-esteem needs above supervisee's needs, highly unlikely to protest Supervisee: Functional impairment personally and professionally	Caucasian, female	55

Note: * = Based on themes identified in chapter 2.

Mary. Mary experienced her perceived harmful supervision during practicum with her faculty supervisor. Mary explained that her faculty supervisor did not set clear expectations at the beginning of and throughout the semester, repeatedly imposed her own theoretical orientation, and failed to connect on an interpersonal level. Mary also reported feeling judged

by her site supervisor for her personal appearance, which added to the harmful experience. Related to Mary's own personality, she described herself as having a tendency towards lack of confidence and limiting her self-disclosure. Upon the conclusion of Mary's practicum training, during her final evaluation, her faculty supervisor informed her she would not recommend her moving onto internship. This news came as a shock to Mary, as she did not feel she was given guidance, feedback, or opportunities to improve throughout the semester, exemplifying the damaged supervisory relationship. As a result of these circumstances, Mary questioned her intelligence, doubted her self-efficacy, and experienced significant emotional distress regarding her inability to progress to internship training.

Karen. Karen experienced her perceived harmful supervision during her practicum and internship training with her site supervisors. Karen described feeling neglected and marginalized by her site supervisor. She also felt personally and professionally attacked by her regional supervisor. Considering her personal characteristics, Karen described herself as having a tendency to fluctuate between strong counseling self-efficacy and lack thereof. She noted often reacting to the perceived neglect and marginalization experienced during supervision by internalizing her feelings. Due to the neglect, attacks, and feeling that she was not getting what she needed, the supervisory relationship was permanently damaged and notably harmful. As a result, Karen experienced and continues to experience emotional distress, lack of counseling self-efficacy, and overall negative professional outcomes. She is not currently working as a counselor.

Lisa. Lisa experienced perceived harmful supervision during her practicum and internship training with her site supervisor. Lisa reported that her site supervisor was very tough, did not have much time for her, and connected more with the social work interns at the internship

site. Lisa described herself as having a strong belief in self as a counselor and self-worth as an individual and noted that she continued to pursue supervision with a positive attitude. However, the neglect and isolation she continued to experience, despite her attempts to advocate for herself, damaged the supervisory relationship. As a result, Lisa felt isolated and experienced negative professional outcomes, as she felt she missed a critical period of learning in her training that could not be replaced.

Eric. Eric experienced perceived harmful supervision during his internship with both his site and faculty supervisors. In addition to providing crisis counseling, Eric's site supervisor attempted to coerce him into selling products from a "pyramid" company to his clients. When he turned to his faculty supervisor, he did not receive support. Eric explained, "he just [sat] back and said this is your problem. You're the one who chose this internship site, you need to handle this on your own." Eric felt that trying to sell products to his clients was taking advantage of their vulnerability and therefore unethical. He voiced his concerns and refused to engage in selling products. The supervisory relationship was immediately terminated by the site supervisor and Eric was let go from the internship. As a result, Eric experienced emotional stress and doubt about the supervisory process. In addition, he believed he was "blacklisted" from other internship sites in his city and reported having to go above and beyond to get minimal work at a new site. He felt angry and helpless, although he advocated for himself. Eric felt isolated for trying to do the right thing.

Ben. Ben experienced perceived harmful supervision from his site and faculty supervisors during his internship training. Ben explained he went to his supervisor following three separate experiences of racism from clients at his site. His supervisor neglected him by failing to process his openly expressed concerns about being marginalized by clients' racism.

When Ben experienced despair and feelings of helplessness related to his supervisor's neglect, he chose to not report to his site for two days. When Ben spoke to his faculty supervisor regarding his feelings and absenteeism, his faculty supervisor failed to provide emotional support and instead placed blame on Ben. Due to his perceived neglect and lack of support, the supervisory relationships between Ben and both his site and faculty supervisor were damaged. As a result, Ben felt isolated, experienced emotional distress, and missed out his opportunity to grow professionally.

Taylor. Taylor experienced perceived harmful supervision with her site supervisor during her second practicum training. Her supervisor abandoned her with an agitated client diagnosed with schizophrenia. She feared for her safety, had ethical concerns related to working with her client, and lost trust in her supervisor. She also simultaneously experienced a significant life stressor of working full-time while attempting to complete her Master's degree. As a result, the supervisory relationship was severed and Taylor left the site. The negative outcomes for Taylor were professional as she left the site, along with personal including trauma, shame, and feelings of helplessness. Taylor continues to engage in counseling to work through her harmful supervision experience.

Callie. Callie experienced perceived harmful supervision with her faculty supervisor during her practicum training. Her supervisor had a "boot camp" mentality with "academic hazing" threats about not moving forward if students asked questions. Callie felt intimidated by her supervisor and asked to move to another section, but her request was denied. Callie's father also passed away in the same semester, leading to grief and loss issues. Callie had concerns about transference with clients but was unwilling to disclose to her supervisor due to lack of

support within the supervisory relationship along with fear of failure and scrutiny. As a result of this experience, Callie felt emotional distress along with professional impairment.

Thematic Description

As previously mentioned, the figure of a phenomenon exists against the ground of that experience (Shattell et al., 2007). Participants of the current study, beginning counseling supervisees, experienced harmful supervision similarly in a number of contexts. From the point of identifying meaning units and themes within each transcript, recurring themes present within all participants' descriptions were identified and organized into the thematic description (Thomas & Pollio, 2002). This thematic description was validated by a number of participants. The ground, or background, of which they lived through harmful experience included the subjective experiences of *not getting what they needed, feeling attacked, feeling isolated, maintaining or losing belief in self*, and *negative professional and/or personal outcomes*. Each of these themes ran through the data in significant ways, and related to one another to create overall themes. Each theme is described in detail below.

Not Getting What I Needed

All participants talked about *not getting what they needed* from their supervisors. Some talked about feeling neglected, others talked about lack of support and guidance, while others talked about seeking support outside the supervisory relationship, but that outside help was not enough to satisfy their developmental needs. Regardless of their response to the situation, every participant noted that they believed their supervisors did not give them the support and assistance they needed.

Neglect. Taylor's experience represents the participants who felt neglected, a sub-theme of *not getting what I needed*. Taylor talked about feeling neglected when her supervisor left her with an agitated, psychotic client.

I was terrified. I mean, I just, I ended up talking to another intern that was on site with me, you know, just telling her and processing what just happened. You know I talked to my therapist about it. I talked to just a couple of different people. My supervisor didn't really say anything else about it other than to say yeah, we couldn't really help that person. Our facility isn't really equipped to help her. Blah blah, this and that, but I was just like. I did not feel comfortable being left in the room with that client. Like I just didn't. Like I feared for my safety.

Taylor's experience of feeling neglected stemmed from her supervisor not investing in their relationship, as did Karen's.

Karen also spoke of feeling neglected.

The site supervisor was very, 'I don't have time for a Practicum student, so you're basically going to be cheap labor.' And so we talked a little bit more about that, and I said what my requirements are for my client hours for Practicum, and we talked about that.

And she said but I basically don't have time.

For Karen, neglect was represented by her supervisor failing to invest the time and energy needed to promote the supervisory relationship. As described below, others also felt their needs were not met in a similar way, with an added element of lack of support.

Lack of support. A second sub-theme that emerged within *not getting what I needed* was lack of support. One example of this collective experience is found with Ben, who

described himself as a visible minority, talked about lack of support as he went to his supervisor regarding his experience of racism from his clients on three separate occasions.

They were calling me sensei and bowing, and I was like okay well I'm not [race referral]. So I felt very uncomfortable with that, and I brought it up to my supervisor. She was like, 'well what would you like to be called?' I was like, [name]. She was like 'okay well there you go'... I brought it up to my supervisor again, and she just, she was like 'well this is likely to happen here'.... when I went back to my supervisor, she said, she repeated herself. She said that '[client] needs respect. It's a secure environment. These things will happen, and obviously these are lower functioning clients.'

Ben's interactions with his supervisor and the lack of attention he wanted regarding multiculturalism left him feeling disappointed and invalidated.

It was a shock and it was difficult to manage because I couldn't really talk to anyone about this. I couldn't express what I really felt or thought. And it was just, I felt it was a mixture of loneliness, anger, kind of confused a little bit. About like how should I really act? Who should I be? I didn't feel safe being my cultural self.

Ben's perception of lack of support was also present with his interactions with individuals in his counseling program. Other participants described their experiences in similar ways. Therefore, seeking outside support did not feel like a viable option.

Seeking outside help. A third sub-theme emerged related to how participants tried to compensate for the lack of effective supervision. Often, when participants felt they were not getting what they needed from their supervisors, they explained the process of turning to others to meet their needs. They sought outside help from other students, faculty, and other mental health professionals at their sites. Participants spoke of seeking outside help, but not feeling as if

it filled the gap left by their lack of effective supervision with their primary supervisor. In one example, Callie spoke of attempting to elicit another faculty member's help in discreetly changing her schedule to avoid a potentially harmful faculty supervisor, the faculty member responded via email, "I have contacted your supervisor and let her know you are trying to get out of her class, and I have sent her all of the emails." Because of this, Callie perceived a preconceived judgment from her supervisor going into supervision. Similar to Callie and other participants, Lisa also spoke of seeking outside help, but not as a safeguard from harm.

The harm to me professionally centered around not being able to have like a second hand in my experience with my clients. I wasn't able to get as much of like a professional input from my supervisor with my work with my clients, and I think that really has deterred me from maybe my progress in figuring out my style and my, definitely theory ... I feel like a lot of my discomfort or like my lack of contentment in that regard is directly correlated with not being able to talk about it in supervision. And I feel like I am comfortable talking about it with other people who are not my supervisor but that only is, that can only be done by my interns at my site and another professional that has been in this program and was in my position as an intern there, but not as a veteran professional in the field, which I value. I would value that input and I would value that support. So I feel like, I don't want to say that I'm not confident in my development or my skills or anything like that, but I feel like I would be maybe like a little bit stronger if that. You know what I mean? I'd be that much stronger or that much confident if I had had that time with her.

Another example came from Karen.

It was that in the context of on every angle there wasn't that support. I mean the support I was getting was from a graduate of this program, but even so it wasn't, you know what I mean, it wasn't on that level. You know, she wasn't playing the role of that or tending to my professional growth.

Although participants described not getting what they needed within various contexts, including neglect, lack of support, and seeking outside support that was not the help they felt they needed, all participants considered this a salient aspect of their experience. In a number of ways, they explained their perceptions that their supervisor was the only person who could fully meet their developmental needs as beginning supervisees.

Feeling Attacked

A second theme arose related to participant reactions to the harmful supervision. All but one participant talked about *feeling attacked*. They all talked about feeling attacked in different ways. Some spoke of repeated interactions in which they felt their supervisors abused their power to attack them, others spoke of one or two main events in which they felt directly attacked. For example, Callie spoke of feeling continuously attacked by her faculty supervisor with repeated intimidation and threats to not graduate.

It was getting to the point where my anxiety level was so high. And the way I would describe it felt like academic hazing where it was like this boot camp mentality, and it was she ruled us with fear.

Callie's supervision experience began with her perception of intimidation and continued with subtle threats. This left Callie feeling vulnerable and defensive as she anticipated additional attacks.

Lisa also went into supervision anticipating negative interactions with her supervisor, as other students spoke of their previous supervision experiences with her supervisor. Lisa explained her supervisor “has this way of like staring into your eyes and deep into your soul like you are stupid.” Despite Lisa’s attempts to think positively and advocate for getting what she needed from supervision, she felt repeatedly attacked in her interpersonal exchanges with her supervisor.

Many participants spoke of one primary event or particular situation in which they felt attacked by their supervisor. In one example of this collective experience, Karen spoke of feeling attacked by her regional supervisor following a counseling session.

She just flew up and said ‘that should’ve never happened. Them sitting together should have never happened. You needed to take mom and set her over here, and you needed to take the client and set her over here. Put on your teacher’s cap, pull out some worksheets, and that person said bullshit doesn’t work. You can tell your professors it f-cking doesn’t work; in fact, it can be damaging to the client.’ You know, and so, I was I said, ‘Oh, okay I didn’t see it that way. I saw it as processing where they were.’ But I didn’t really say much because I was really stunned and blindsided by her strong reaction, and you know the attack on the professors....You know, I thanked her and I left. But she was my last client. I went home, and it tore me; I mean I couldn’t stop crying. I was surprised. I mean it just cut me so deeply.

Although Karen spoke of feeling neglected and isolated throughout her supervision experience, this single event stood out to her as the most emotionally shocking and harmful. She not only felt personally attacked, but felt the core of who she was as a counselor and the

counseling profession as a whole was attacked. She felt confused, resentful, and doubting of her previously constructed understanding of the helping process and her own self-worth.

Eric, who entered supervision with a strong belief in self and dedication to ethical practice, felt attacked for standing up to his supervisor as she attempted to take advantage of their clients by selling products during their sessions.

I felt I was punished for doing the right thing. Yet if I did not say anything and went along with the wrong thing, I would have been punished eventually. So it was either take my licking now or take it later.

Although Eric felt confident in his ability and conviction to advocate for his clients, he felt discouraged about his ability to maintain his professional status following his supervisor's attack. This situation, which he considered to be inherently detrimental to him professionally, left him feeling discouraged about the ethical state of the counseling profession and the process of supervision.

Overall, participants felt shocked and discouraged following their perceived attacks by their supervisors. Due to their inherent vulnerability as beginning supervisees, a number of participants felt helpless. Even those that took action to advocate for their and their clients' needs felt discouraged due to the power differential within the supervisory relationship.

Feeling Isolated

Beyond not getting what they needed and feeling attacked, participants spoke of *feeling isolated* in a number of contexts. Isolation materialized sometimes at their site, sometimes from friends, and other times by being marginalized. This theme ran throughout the data, and was evident within the context of each of the other themes.

In one example, Karen spoke of being isolated at her site, not only from her peers, but also from clients and employees, “I was put in a back room, and taught how to do data entry. That was my job. That’s what I did for two months out of practicum.” Although Karen wanted to be productive and meet her supervisor’s request, being physically isolated left her feeling inadequate. Karen also felt marginalized by her supervisor, “According to her, she was saying not everybody will hire somebody your age is what she had told me, but I would hire you. But places won’t hire, [company name] likes them to be young and cute.” Being physically removed from the other interns and counselors at her site led to Karen’s feelings of doubt about her ability to progress at the site. Additionally, the perceived marginalization left Karen feeling as if her ability to pursue counseling in her career was hopeless. She felt alone in her situation, as well as in the field. Other participants spoke of marginalization beginning at their site and generalizing to the counseling profession. For instance, Mary reported feeling marginalized at her site due to her weight and appearance.

Every time I was around her ... [she would] make comments about [my weight], and I was just like. I would tell her, cause before I came to school ... my thyroid had gone overactive for like a few months. I lost 10 or 15 pounds or something, but then I was just starting to gain it back at that point and everything was good. So I would try to explain that but it was like constant that it would come up.

Mary reported feeling uncomfortable being at her site or around her site supervisor for extended amounts of time.

In each case, participants spoke of starting supervision with certain expectations about how things would go; how their experience at their site or in the classroom would be. Just as participants felt shocked by the attacks by their supervisors, they felt being isolated was not what

they deserved as supervisees. Rather than having their needs met, they were isolated and marginalized. Their experiences of harmful supervision led to both feelings of self-efficacy or lack thereof.

Maintaining or Losing Belief in Self

As participants described their reactions to the harmful supervision, they often spoke in terms of *maintaining or losing belief in self*. As I previously mentioned, some participants went into supervision with expectations or preconceived notions, not only about how things would go, but regarding their sense of agency as counselors and as individuals. Some advocated for themselves and attempted to maintain their belief in self, others lost their belief in self following not getting what they needed, being attacked, and/or isolated.

Maintaining Belief in Self. Lisa's description provides an example of other participants' reactions to harmful supervision. Despite repeatedly being neglected, Lisa spoke of continually seeking supervision.

I made sure to be really vocal about setting, you know, specific dates and times for supervision and for that to hopefully become a regular occurrence. Because seeing how the last semester went, I wanted to kind of go like take a 180 spin on it and really, you know. If I didn't seek her out as much, I wanted to make sure that I was 100 percent like determined to get that supervision, even if she doesn't show up at the time and date, you know, we set. As long as I am seeking that out personally, then I know that I did as much as I could to get that. So, it wasn't really on me.

Rather than giving up on the supervision process, or accepting the neglect and attempting to rely on others, Lisa never stopped asking for what she needed from her supervisor. She believed in

her ability to succeed as a counselor and as a supervisee. Lisa hoped her supervisor would respect her efforts and give her the attention she needed.

Eric also spoke of his belief in self by highlighting his desires to serve his clients and protect them from unethical treatment. He advocated for himself and his clients by standing up to his site supervisor, whom he considered to be behaving unethically.

I told her I wasn't comfortable because I felt as if I was taking advantage of their, of not only their mental anguish but also my role as a "expert," and I felt that wasn't appropriate to be receiving payment for pretty much dietary effects and treatment.

When his site supervisor suggested she provide the juicing options to his clients, Eric

Informed her that I still wasn't comfortable being associated with any of this.

She said okay.... Well, about a week goes by, I show up at the office, she's not there. She is not returning my phone calls. I can't figure out what's going on.

Nobody's telling me anything. About two weeks in, I'm able to actually get a hold of her, and she stated that she is not interested in having me as an intern anymore for her company.

Despite his conviction to stay true to who he was as a counselor and ethical decision maker, Eric was rejected by his site supervisor. His sense belief in self as a counselor was not damaged, but he began doubting the system and the process of supervision.

Losing Belief in Self. Participants also spoke of reactions to their harmful supervision experience involving a loss of belief in self. In some cases, participants began supervision with self-doubt. In other cases, they were confident in their abilities to be effective counselors, but not getting what they needed, being attacked, or feeling isolated caused them to doubt their

abilities and value as counselors. For some, this feeling persisted beyond the supervisory relationship.

For example, Karen said, “Even when I talk about it now, I mean it could almost bring me back to that feeling of, I mean, I just, can’t even describe it. Just being totally devastated and like do I even have; that’s what came up that night, do I even have anything valuable to offer?” Karen later said, “It just completely eroded the self-confidence and self-worth.” Karen initially trusted her instincts as a counselor and believed she was training well, but being attacked by her regional supervisor left her questioning her ability to move forward in the counseling field.

As a result of the harmful supervision, Mary also reported a loss of belief in self. She hoped to work through her lack of confidence during practicum, but was never able to connect to her faculty supervisor.

I think it was sort of stunting in like my growth as a counselor. For me, I mean, I was in grad school to do this. This is what I planned to do with my life, so it was really important that I get it and be able to progress in it, and then when I couldn’t, it just sort of reinforced that whole, I don’t know if I can do this. The whole self-doubt thing.

Mary was able to move on to another supervision experience in which she felt she got what she needed to grow as a counselor. However, she remains disappointed that her initial opportunity to develop in practicum was destroyed by the harmful supervision she experienced.

Overall, the theme of belief in self existed twofold within the experience of harmful supervision. Those who maintained their belief in self were still troubled with doubt following not getting what they needed, being attacked, or feeling isolated. Others who lost their belief in self had moments in which they believed in their ability to grow, but despairingly watched those

opportunities pass due to their perceived harmful supervision. This process, for both who maintained and lost their belief in self, led to negative outcomes.

Negative Outcomes

Participants reported negative outcomes in two veins. Negative professional outcomes were described in terms of not growing developmentally and not progressing in the field. Some spoke of not developing their counseling skills, others spoke of missing opportunities for employment following their experience of harmful supervision. Negative personal outcomes were related to negative feelings affecting their functioning in some way. A number of participants explained their need for and pursuit of personal counseling during and following their harmful experience. Beyond the initial shock and lack of development, some participants experienced long lasting professional detriments and emotional distress.

Negative professional outcomes. Negative professional outcomes were described in terms of missed opportunities. These missed opportunities included things such as developing counseling skills, growing as a counselor, and securing training and employment beyond the experience. Participants often framed supervision as beginning supervisees as a single chance to progress in the manner in which they expected.

For example, Lisa spoke of professional impairment by missing the chance to grow developmentally.

So I didn't get as much supervision as I wanted to. So I feel like it was harmful for my initial development as an internship counseling student to go through like a very important time frame of my experience and my internship and to not have that, have the presence of my supervisor there when I needed her.

Although Lisa maintained her belief in self as a counselor, she expressed feelings of despair as she considered how much she could have grown as a counselor during her training. She advocated for herself and endured the supervisory relationship, but was disappointed that she was not able to grow more during her internship experience. Others not only felt as if they missed a chance to develop, but also were prevented from progressing in the field of counseling by restricted access to other internship sites or full-time employment.

In a more direct instance of participants' experiences of negative professional outcomes, Eric reported his supervisor attempted to prevent him from continuing to work in the field, as an intern, after he left the site due to ethical concerns he had.

I finally get a hold of one site. I go for an interview. They ask for six references, and I say okay I have no problem providing you six references. May I ask why not the typical three references? And the person was very honest with me, he said quite frankly, [your supervisor] has called all of the local community mental health agencies informing us that you voluntarily stopped working for her as an intern, and she wanted to let us know that be careful of.

Eric reported feeling wronged and angry at the situation he found himself in. He was able to secure an additional site, but not without great sacrifice on his part to prove himself. Eric also carries a sense of doubt regarding the ethical compliance of the majority of supervisors in the counseling profession.

Karen also holds doubts regarding the counseling profession and her fit in the field. Karen said, "It was a very low point for me because I really felt like I don't see myself going forward with this, with counseling." She later explained, "I won't say that just judging still by my emotional reaction that that experience hasn't clouded my view of counseling or you know. I

mean, I'm not working right now." Karen explained she went into counseling as an adult student, holding the belief that this field was where she belonged. However, her shock following the attack on her intuition as a counselor, her training, and the field of counseling in general, along with her lack of success securing a full-time position, left her doubting her fit and her ability to succeed as professional counselor.

Overall, the negative professional outcomes experienced by participants was a disappointing reality that could not be reconciled. Some participants moved on to new sites, had opportunities to grow, but still felt a loss for the time they spent not having their developmental needs met. Others were unable to progress professionally and continue to doubt their ability to succeed as professional counselors. Along with this great disappointment, negative effects on personal functioning also influenced participants' long-term counseling self-efficacy and emotional well-being.

Negative personal outcomes. Going into the supervision experience with high expectations for support but having their expectations shattered by misuse of power, not getting what they needed, and feeling attacked and isolated led to emotional distress for all participants. This emotional distress is described as negative personal outcomes, as it goes beyond failure to develop and progress professionally. A number of participants spoke of feeling disappointed and discouraged, others spoke of anger and resentment, while a couple described feelings congruent with traumatization.

Speaking of feeling abandoned by her site supervisor with an agitated, psychotic client and not being able to work through her feelings of traumatization, Taylor explained, "I think I was traumatized more than I initially thought I was...It was just an immense sense of helplessness and maybe a little shame." Taylor spoke of not feeling safe with her supervisor, or

at her site. She also carried a sense of shame as she was not able to meet her client's needs. Taylor continues to work through her reaction to the trauma by seeking personal counseling. She also recognized her inability to currently process some of her feelings related to her harmful supervision experience.

Callie also spoke of the emotional distress that came as a result of her experience of perceived harmful supervision in which her supervisor often threatened that she would not graduate.

The dreams would, the bad dreams I was I would be kind of going to school and being naked kind of stuff, but it was same kind of well except that I would go to graduation and I, they would say I'm sorry but you didn't graduate.

Callie also explained her personal life challenges affected the way she approached supervision.

Well, I did try to get out of it. You know, and I also knew that reading it like you know that you've had tough professors in the past. You can deal with this. But I thought I really don't want to. Not at this point because my father had just died, and I didn't want it, and I didn't have the support. I was going to have to do it alone, and I just didn't want to do it.

Callie entered supervision with concerns about her ability to receive the support she needed. She also recognized her need for support beyond her preconceived notions of the supervisory relationship, as she had just experienced the loss of her parent. The vulnerability she experienced due to the combination of being a beginning supervisee and going through the grieving process was too much for her to handle her supervisor's continued attacks.

Karen also felt ill-equipped to handle the interactions she perceived as attacks by her supervisor. Karen, who reported feeling isolated and attacked by supervisors at her internship

site, continues to experience emotional distress related to her experience as she asks herself, “Is there any going forward from here?” The emotional distress remaining present in Karen’s experience was evident during the interview for this study. Her presence was very heavy. She became overwhelmed with sadness and despair as she cried recalling the events and outcomes of her harmful experience in supervision.

As detailed here, the outcomes of harmful supervision were notable for these participants. Not only were they robbed of their right to progress developmentally, they experienced detriments in their abilities to continue training and secure employment beyond their supervisory experience. Not getting what they needed, being attacked, and feeling isolated also led to their experiences of negative personal outcomes as they faced emotional distress related to trauma and their belief in self.

Outliers

Although the common themes of participants not getting what they needed, feeling attacked, being isolated, maintaining or losing belief in self, and negative outcomes ran throughout the data, two participants experienced harmful supervision in contexts not common to any other participant. However, it would be remiss to fail to attend to their unique experiences, which add to the overall understanding of the lived experience of harmful supervision. Their experiences are significant in terms of the phenomenological method of understanding participant’s holistic experience.

Ben was the only participant who expressed experiencing multicultural invalidation and racism. Ben’s experience of marginalization fits within the theme of isolation, along with Karen’s marginalization due to her age. However, Ben’s perception of the field of counseling

lacking multicultural sensitivity stretches beyond the immediate experience of marginalization by a supervisor. Ben explained,

Because I felt as if like they're talking about all these great things about diversity and multicultural supervision. It sounds really beautiful but the actual practice it's kind of, it's very rigid. It's just you do this or you're not meeting our expectations.

Ben expressed a desire for his story to make a difference for students like him, who are treated differently because they talk differently.

There's no social justice for minorities in the [counseling] field. And there's not much we can do about it. There's not really much that I can say that can have any weight in terms of making any sort of changes.

In this vein, a sense of despair was apparent in Ben's experience.

Mary also experienced imposition of her supervisor's worldview through her theoretical orientation. This is notable as it is a common theme in the literature regarding ineffective supervision (Kurpius & And, 1991). Mary described the way her group practicum supervision went with her faculty supervisor.

At the end she would talk to us, but I feel like maybe part of it was like just her perspective on counseling and the way she did things. Because she would talk to us a lot about [her] style of counseling and things like that and try to get us to process back through whatever was happening in the session... That was kind of difficult sometimes because, I mean, we had just learned about a lot of those theories or were just learning about some of them in her class that she was teaching that semester.

Mary felt her supervisor carried the lessons from her other class and her primarily teaching role into supervision, which was a great disservice to Mary and the other supervisees in the class.

Mary spoke of her expectations going into practicum, “you would think that she would prefer for us to sort of think about things like in the way that we would naturally lean toward it and things like that, but that wasn’t what we had to do.” This lack of fit, paired with pressure to progress and Mary’s predetermined lack of belief in self, left Mary feeling vulnerable, “a lot of that still ties in with like me doubting myself and things like that. And thinking that maybe this will come with time.” Throughout her supervision experience, Mary craved guidance. However, the guidance she received was biased toward her supervisor’s theoretical orientation. Because Mary did not have the same worldview, but trusted the process of supervision, she ended up doubting herself and failing to progress developmentally.

In both Ben and Mary’s experiences, they felt the methods used in supervision were inadequate. They both questioned their supervisor’s competence and Ben questioned the multicultural practice of the field of counseling. These experiences went beyond ineffective supervision, as both Ben and Mary missed chances to grow personally and progress developmentally. They considered their experiences of invalidation and lack of support within their supervisory relationships harmful.

Relationship Among Themes

In an effort to promote clarity regarding the previously detailed findings, Figure 1 encompasses a visual representation among the themes. The collective experience of participants began with the supervisory relationship. Each theme, represented by open circles, related to one another in some directional manner. Within their relationships with their supervisors, participants experienced not getting what I needed, feeling isolated, and/or being attacked. Supervisees’ reactions to these experiences led to either maintaining or losing belief in self.

In a cyclical progression, their reactions impacted the contexts of the supervisory relationship. The context of the supervisory relationship, not getting what I needed, feeling attacked, and/or feeling isolated, and maintaining or losing belief in self led to negative outcomes. Within each theme, in each aspect of the experience, participants felt despair related to unmet expectations and misuse of power, represented by the large circle encompassing the essence of the lived experience of harmful supervision for beginning supervisees.

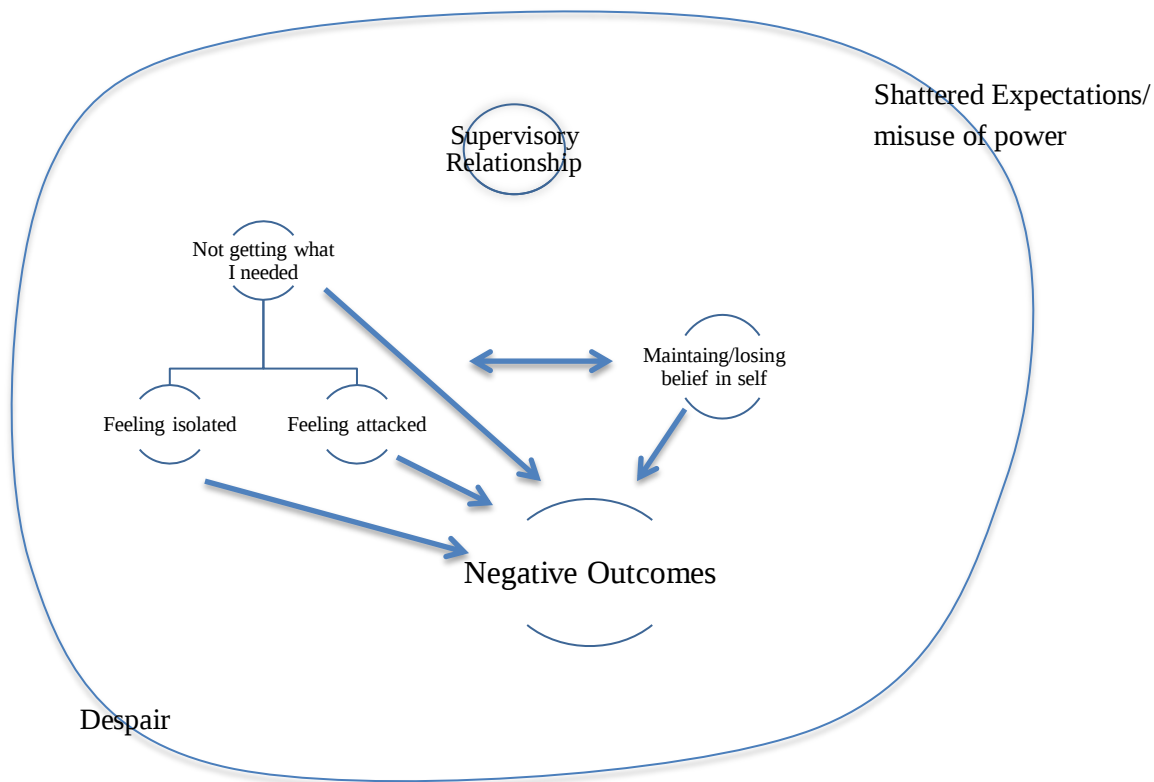


Figure 1: *Relationship Among Themes*

The Essence

The essence that emerges from multiple descriptions of the same phenomenon exists within every aspect of the collective experience (Thomas & Pollio, 2002). For the participants in the current study, the essence of harmful supervision was *despair related to shattered expectations*. Each individual went into their practicum or internship training expecting to improve their counseling skills, increase their counseling self-efficacy, and progress toward their ultimate goal of becoming a professional counselor. To get there, they expected to receive guidance and support as they focused on their development and meeting the needs of their clients, instead they experienced the effects of their supervisors' misuse of power.

According to the participants, their supervisor was the only person that could fill the role of building a strong supervisory relationship and promoting their growth and development. Participants explained they entered the supervisory relationship with preconceived expectations of what they thought supervision would be. These expectations were related to what they needed organizationally, professionally, developmentally, and personally. They expected guidance, support, and respect. Participants used words like "guidance on where I needed to be", "somebody to go through it with me", and "an investment on my supervisor's part in my professional development" to describe their expectations for supervision.

In these harmful supervision experiences, supervisors abused their power by neglecting, attacking, and/or isolating their supervisees. When participants experienced harmful supervision, they were shocked. They often reported their initial reactions of not even knowing what to do. For example, they spoke of "an immense sense of helplessness" and "worried about disrupting our personal and professional relationship, but afraid for any future endeavors [in the counseling profession]." Supervisees reacted by either maintaining or losing their belief in self,

coupled with emotional distress. As their belief in self either did not get them what they needed from supervision or eroded completely, they experienced negative personal and professional outcomes, leading to despair. They reacted with feelings of self-doubt, anger, disappointment, and fear. Even when they had outside help to survive the situation, the supervisory relationship remained damaged. No amount of support was able to give them what they needed.

In the end, supervisees felt isolated, attacked, and disappointed as their expectations for supervision were shattered by misuse of power and they were robbed of a critical and time-sensitive opportunity to receive support and to grow professionally. Throughout all of this, in each participant's individual experience, and through the collective experience of all, an underlying sense of despair colored their perspective of their supervision training, and, in some cases, their opinion of the field of counseling.

This chapter detailed the findings for this study on harmful supervision. Participants experienced a variety of issues that led to a perceived harmful supervision experience, but the themes of not getting what they needed, feeling attacked, feeling isolated, wavering belief in self, and impairment were evident for all participants. Throughout each element of the lived experience, the beginning counselors who participated in this study relayed an underlying sense of despair related to shattered expectations. In chapter five, implications drawn from previous literature and the detailed descriptions outlined in these findings are described for supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Implications

The purpose of this study was to provide a detailed description and meaning of beginning counselors' experiences in harmful supervision. The research question addressed was, "What is the lived experience of beginning counselors in harmful supervision?" Transcendental, existential phenomenology (van Manen, 2014; Thomas & Pollio, 2002) was the chosen method utilized to investigate seven participants' subjective experiences of harmful supervision during their mental health practicum and/or internship training with site and faculty supervisors. The significance of the study is twofold. First, I reviewed the previous literature and offered a reconceptualization explaining the outcomes of supervision as influenced by the supervisory relationship, with contributions from *both* the supervisor and supervisee. Second, the current research identified a detailed description of harmful supervision, as called for by Ellis (2001), from the perspective of the supervisee. In this chapter, I provide strategies for the prevention and management of harmful supervision for supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators. Finally, recommendations for future research are outlined.

Discussion

The collective meaning that emerged from this phenomenological investigation suggests that beginning counselors' lived experience of harmful supervision leads to professional and/or personal impairment and long-lasting despair related to shattered expectations. Even with resiliency and unwavering dedication to getting what they needed, supervisees were still harmed. This may be due to the inherent nature of supervision being contingent on the relationship between both the supervisee and supervisor (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998). I now offer a critical evaluation of the identified progression, themes, and essence of the experience of harmful

supervision combined with previous literature to identify supports for preconceived notions and illuminate new knowledge emergent from the findings of this study.

Progression

In existential phenomenology, Merleau-Ponty (1945/1962) emphasized existence in terms of the individual interacting with the world, and the people in it, creating a reactionary cycle of being. The progression of the experience of harmful supervision identified in Chapter Four began with an explanation of the contexts of the situation, including events, systems, individuals, and time relevant to participants' personal and professional development. Next, participants described their perception of harmful supervision beginning with their supervisor's actions, followed by their own reactions. A description of the damage to the relationship followed. The narrative concluded with outcomes for supervisees. This aligns with Merleau-Ponty's conceptualization of the holistic experience of a phenomenon, existing through a reactionary cycle between the individual and the world (van Manen, 2014). It also aligns with the reconceptualization of supervision presented in Chapter Two, which explained that the outcomes of supervision are contingent upon the supervisory relationship, with contributions from both supervisees and supervisors. Unprompted, supervisees discussed both their own actions and those of their supervisors as they described their harmful supervision experiences. This progression, along with other contexts related to the figure of harmful supervision, also aligns with the philosophical underpinnings of Merleau-Ponty's existential phenomenology (Thomas & Pollio, 2002) by identifying the emergent grounds of *not getting what I needed, feeling attacked, feeling isolated, self-efficacy and lack thereof, and impairment*. A more in-depth consideration of each of the emergent themes as they relate to existing literature is now presented.

Not Getting What I Needed

Participants spoke of not getting what they needed in terms of neglect, lack of support and guidance, as well as in seeking outside help. According to research on effective supervision, beginning supervisees prefer supervision that includes advice and clear and specific instructions on how to do the job, instruction on theoretical considerations, and support, affirmation and structure from the supervisor (Jacobsen & Tanggaard, 2009). Ineffective supervision literature suggests lack of clarity about the supervisors' expectations can lead to diminished self-efficacy (Olk & Friedlander, 1992). In the cases of these participants, supervision did not provide the characteristics needed to create an overall positive experience. Developmentally, beginning supervisees are highly dependent on their supervisors (Stoltenberg et al., 1998). Therefore, neglecting, failing to provide support and guidance, or pushing a supervisee to seek outside help during practicum or internship training is developmentally inappropriate, and, in the contexts of the theme of *not getting what I needed*, can be harmful.

In this study, the participants highlighted their intense need for support, structure, and assistance from their supervisors; the lack of these characteristics in their supervisory relationships created mistrust and inability to rely on supervision for their needs. Previous literature suggests that many factors influence the supervisory relationship. For example, Worthen and McNeill (1996) noted that good supervisors offer structure, caring, support, and understanding and Nelson et al. (2008) detailed the importance of supervisors' ability to identify their supervisee's developmental needs as critical for effective supervision. In the case of the participants, supervisors did not attend to developmental level nor did they demonstrate empathy and a nonjudgmental attitude toward their supervisees. Without these key factors, supervisees tried to seek help elsewhere, but ended up feeling abandoned and doubtful about their ability to

progress successfully. Participants described this experience with an overall sense of despair as their expectations were unmet.

Feeling Attacked

All but one participant talked about feeling attacked. Power differentials provide opportunities for conflict (Nelson et al., 2008). Literature addressing abuse of power explains supervisees who were mistreated, humiliated, coerced, devalued, criticized, frightened, or ignored by their supervisors felt violated but were highly unlikely to protest (Jacobs, 1991). As noted in the literature, effective supervisors attend to power differentials and manage conflict (Nelson et al., 2008). For example, Karen reported feeling attacked by her regional supervisor but ill equipped to fully work through the emotional and professional consequences of her harmful supervision experience.

Developmentally, beginning supervisees exhibit high self-focus, little awareness, and apprehensiveness about evaluation (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997). This understanding, paired with their decreased likelihood to protest mistreatment, makes them unable to fully address and process through attacks by their supervisors. It is important to note that supervisees' subjective experience of feeling attacked left them not only unprepared to successfully navigate the conflict, but inhibited their growth process. Beyond the detriment to their counseling self-efficacy and professional development, the emotional reactions to feeling attacked may also result in pervasive personal distress that impacts supervisee's personal functioning.

The previous literature on supervisees in effective supervision indicates that these supervisees disclose mistakes and insecurities, are open to feedback, and are willing to grow (Heckmann-Stone, 2004; Pearson, 2004; Rodenhauser et al., 1989). It may be that supervisees who experience harmful supervision lack these skills and characteristics. For example, Mary

noted her overall lack of self-confidence, Karen discussed her fluctuating counseling self-efficacy beliefs, and Ben mentioned his temporary avoidance of his internship site as he dealt with his situation. Even Lisa and Eric, who both indicated high levels of self-confidence, struggled when they felt their opinions and actions were not validated by their supervisors. It may be that some supervisees lack some of the characteristics needed to help promote an effective supervisory relationship. This, coupled with challenging behaviors from supervisors, may lead to harmful supervisory experiences.

Feeling Isolated

Participants also talked about feeling isolated by their supervisors. The literature suggests failure to attend to multicultural differences and related issues between supervisors and supervisees may promote harmful experiences for supervisees (McCleod, 2009), with effective supervision emphasizing the celebration of differences and focus on inclusivity. As Ben said, marginalization was related to feeling isolated, and he also illuminated the imposition of “Eurocentrism” in counseling supervision and the necessity for individuals from various cultures to adopt a white “persona” to fit in the supervision process. Rather than recognizing and celebrating differences, some harmful supervisory relationships may result from imposing the supervisor’s worldview and marginalizing supervisees.

Most of the participants, however, did not represent an ethnic minority, suggesting that isolation encompasses more than cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee. Although not directly discussed in the supervision literature, in this study, the participants all noted feeling isolated at their sites or from friends and colleagues. Feeling isolated by their supervisors contributed to participants’ perception of harmful supervision in a number of ways. Pearson (2000) suggested supervisors’ treating certain supervisees differently was harmful to

those supervisees. Although participants' reports of feeling isolated, such as discussing supervisees' appearance or assigning them an office away from others at the site, are different than the specific contexts of abuse of power in the previous literature (Miller & Larrabee, 2012), the foundation of supervisors abusing their power remains the same. Furthermore, the nature of isolation seeming to be, for the most part, a series of indirect attacks, may promote ambiguity and doubt in the supervisees' overall understanding of the degree of harm they experience, further exacerbating the tendency to not protest (Jacobs, 1991). Whether subtle or easily identifiable, this abuse of power is directly harmful to the supervisory relationship (Markham & Chiu, 2011), along with negatively affecting supervisees' development and sense of self-confidence.

Maintaining or Losing Belief in Self

Participants spoke of maintaining or losing their belief in self. The literature suggests decreased self-efficacy is detrimental. In effective supervision, supervisors serve students well by attending to their counseling self-efficacy (Leach et al., 1997), while ineffective supervision is noted by failure to attend to counseling self-efficacy levels (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). Supervisors who do not attend to the perceived abilities of their supervisees, or do so in a punitive rather than supportive manner, may be increasing the possibility of a harmful supervisory experience.

Developmentally, beginning supervisees experience low counseling self-efficacy (Stoltenberg, 2008). Stoltenberg and colleagues (1998) suggested supervisors serve supervisees and the supervisory relationship well by maintaining realistic expectations for supervisees' developmental progression and regression. Early stage counselors-in-training need support as they naturally experience their roles as beginning counselors. Remaining unaware of or not

addressing fluctuations in counseling self-efficacy and belief in self diminishes the opportunity to provide support and encouragement to Level 1 supervisees who are likely to experience anxiety and fail to disclose their concerns, and, ultimately, negatively affect clients (Scott et al., 2006).

Negative Outcomes

Participants also spoke of negative personal and professional outcomes. The literature suggests harmful supervision is detrimental to supervisee's personal well-being and professional progression (Unger, 1995). As noted in the literature, effective supervision promotes growth and development (Stoltenberg et al., 1998) and ineffective supervision fails to promote that development. In the minimal literature on harmful supervision, supervisees' negative experiences went beyond ineffective supervision in which they failed to get what they needed to grow (Ellis, 2001). Supervisees experienced ineffective relationships, reacted to the events present within those relationships, reported psychological distress, physical deterioration, and desired to leave the profession (Unger, 1995). Participants in the current study also experienced similar outcomes as they noted feeling traumatized, needed to seek help from mental health professionals, and despaired as their belief in self was destroyed and opportunities to progress professionally were negatively affected.

According to the IDM, beginning supervisees are highly anxious and exhibit low autonomy (Stoltenberg et al., 1998). They are ill-prepared to voice their concerns and act autonomously, or experience conflict between autonomy and dependence. In the current study, Callie noted the weight of her anxiety at the onset of supervision, while Ben and Eric identified concerns about professional consequences following attempts to go against their supervisors. All of the participants were ill-prepared to voice their concerns and act autonomously and were

disappointed when they attempted to exhibit autonomy. To expect Level 1 and 2 beginning supervisees to successfully manage such feelings and situations is in direct contrast with what is known about their personal and professional potential in the early stages of their training (Stoltenberg, 1998). In the end, negative outcomes were the result of these experiences.

Despair and Shattered Expectations

As mentioned in Chapter Four, the essence exists within each aspect of the collective experience of the same phenomenon (Thomas & Pollio, 2002). The essence of harmful supervision that emerged from participant's detailed descriptions was *despair related to shattered expectations*. Participants expected to be mentored, but instead felt there was a misuse of power that shattered these expectations. This underlying tone was present within each ground, or theme, and defines the figure of harmful supervision.

The common themes of participants not getting what they needed, feeling attacked, being isolated, maintaining or losing belief in self, and negative outcomes ran throughout the data. In each theme, despair about unmet expectations related to misuse of power was present. Although not stated directly, the detailed descriptions of each participant's experience within each theme had an underlying tone of surprise about unmet expectations and despair related to things not going the way they had anticipated, whether this was at the onset, during, upon the conclusion of, or after the harmful supervision experience. In fact, for many participants, the effects of the experience of despair remained present as they either continued training, pursued professional counseling, or left the field of counseling.

As detailed in the review of literature and in emergent themes from the current study, the experience of harmful supervision is a complex interaction of feelings and behaviors from both the supervisor and supervisee, which is influenced by the contexts of the supervisory relationship

and personal characteristics of both individuals. Defining harmful supervision as a single event is neither accurate nor helpful in understanding the holistic experience. Previous literature and the results of the present study suggest the supervisory relationship is conceptualized as a reactionary cycle between individuals and the world in which they interact. Therefore, viewing harmful supervision as a collection of harmful events, behaviors, interactions, and detrimental characteristics broadens the understanding of the lived experience for beginning supervisees.

Participants in the present study felt unheard, invalidated, and attacked by their supervisors. During this experience, they attempted to compensate for their unmet expectations, either by demonstrating a strong sense of self-efficacy in standing up for their ethical convictions, or persisting to get the support they needed. However, their attempts failed, and they were left feeling unsupported and with a sense of despair. Furthermore, the abuse of power and reactions to that abuse left supervisees feeling harmed and cheated out of a time-sensitive opportunity for optimal development during practicum and/or internship. For some, the detrimental effects of harmful supervision and despair related to their shattered expectations and misuse of power continued to negatively affect their personal and professional functioning long after the supervision experience ended.

Limitations

As with all studies, limitations existed with the current research. The limitations inherent to the phenomenological methodology include the potential for researcher bias, subjectivity throughout the study, and the inability to generalize outcomes (Creswell, 2003). To minimize these limitations, I intentionally considered my own biases, engaged in bracketing during analysis, and used a phenomenological analysis group to help boost my rigor and trustworthiness. Nevertheless, some bias may have unintentionally influenced my analysis.

Also, existential phenomenology does not use have specific, structured questions. This brings the possibility that there are pieces of information missed. However, attempts were made to use participant language, with the purpose of eliciting full, thick descriptions of the experience. The ability to use the results of this study to explain others' experiences of harmful supervision may also be restricted. For this study, the small sample size, along with convenience sampling, limits generalizability. Another limitation relates to the specific participants in the study. Although they were geographically and culturally diverse, supervisees self-nominated to participate in the study. This indicates a feeling of comfort in discussing their experience, possibly making these different from those with more traumatic experiences. Additionally, this study did not elicit supervisors' perspectives, creating bias to participant subjectivity. Finally, some participants were further removed from their harmful experience, meaning they may have processed the experience on a deeper level, allowing the time lapse to alter their memory of the actual experience.

Implications

The results of this study suggest that harmful supervision is a complex, interactive result of both the supervisor's and supervisee's actions and reactions. Additionally, supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators may be ill-informed and inadequately prepared not only to successfully approach and navigate the supervisory relationship, but also to prevent and manage harmful supervision. Setting expectations for effective supervision and vague understandings of ineffective supervision is not enough for supervisees to enter the relationship with a proactive attitude and realistic expectations for what might occur. This sets the stage for the possibility of harmful supervision.

It is important to recognize that supervisors are not solely responsible for harmful supervision, as explained by participants' reports that certain supervisors had effective supervisory relationships with other interns. Both the supervisee and the supervisor benefit from being aware of addressing potential weak points in the relationship. Therefore, supervisors and supervisees need to be informed about the ways to create an effective supervisory relationship before supervision begins.

Intentionally meeting the educational and training needs of supervisees and supervisors is paramount (ACA, 2014). In order to do so, supervisees and supervisors may benefit from learning about a number of supervision topics prior to supervision. To assume supervisors were taught or successfully grasped how to integrate effective strategies may be a mistake. Furthermore, education and training regarding harmful supervision is quite limited.

Supervisors and supervisees may be served well to learn about effective and ineffective behaviors and characteristics of those in supervisory relationships. They may benefit from learning effective strategies, recognizing ineffective strategies, and understanding how to process harmful supervision. Supervisees may value learning not only what to expect in effective supervision, but what to realistically expect, and also to identify supervisor behaviors and their own characteristics that may contribute to harmful supervision. It is important for both parties to understand how to prevent harmful supervision by being proactive, but also how to manage supervision when the relationship and experience crosses from ineffective to harmful.

These goals may be met in a number of learning environments. Workshops for students, supervisees, site supervisors, and faculty members may create the space for in-depth understanding and the attainment of practical strategies to employ prior to and during supervision, along with setting the tone that the supervisory relationship is a collaborative one in

which both parties are responsible for the progression and outcomes. Rather than simply reading the information, individuals may learn to integrate the information through personal reflections, group discussions, case studies, and group projects. Possibly the most important element is to raise awareness of all potential experiences of supervision in order to set realistic expectations and the opportunity for supervisees to receive developmentally appropriate training.

Furthermore, counselor educators play an essential role in setting up and influencing supervisory relationships for their students (ACA, 2014). Participants' experiences were not limited to relationships with site supervisors. Therefore, faculty supervisors may benefit in exploring their own roles as supervisors, but also in identifying at-risk students and potentially harmful supervisors. Counselor educators are also well served by maintaining an awareness of effective action strategies for managing harmful supervision as it is brought to their attention. As gatekeepers for the profession, counselor educators carry responsibility for both the supervisees and supervisors. For more information regarding this role, counselor educators may review Lumadue and Duffey's (1999) model for evaluating student counselor competence and Bhat's (2005) recommendations for improving gatekeeping in counselor education. New counselor educators may benefit particularly from Magnuson's (2002) suggestions for counselor educators performing gatekeeping functions in their first year.

Nurturing the supervisory relationship is at the core of effectiveness (Nelson, Barnes, Evans, & Triggiano, 2008; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Wallace et al., 2010; Watkins, 1997; Yager & Littrell, 1978). Worthen and Isakson (2003) reported mediating variables, including developmental levels and experience of the supervisor and supervisee, supervisor competence, and supervisee confidence level, had potential to affect the supervisory relationship. Understanding the progression, contexts, and essence of beginning supervisees' experiences

harmful supervision helps supervisees, supervisors, and counselor educators identify and attend to individual characteristics and situations that may lead to harmful supervision, employ preventative measures, and utilize strategies for working through harmful supervision to foster supervisee development and ensure client welfare.

Supervisees

Supervisees can display a number of behaviors and take action to decrease the likelihood for harmful supervision. Beyond building their knowledge base regarding the potential for despair related to shattered expectations and misuse of power in harmful supervision, supervisees may benefit from learning how to openly discuss counterproductive events with their supervisors. However, it is important to recognize this as a great challenge to supervisees, due to their vulnerabilities and the inherent power differential within the supervisory relationship. Supervisees may benefit from a strong support system as they attempt to advocate for themselves. They may also focus on rebuilding the supervisory relationship following harmful events. This process might begin with openness and honesty when discussing situations in which they feel uncomfortable, attacked, or isolated. Using I-messages or expressing their individual developmental needs are also helpful strategies.

Furthermore, it is imperative for supervisees from diverse backgrounds to maintain an awareness of their rights as supervisees, while advocating for their and their clients' needs. For example, supervisees can initiate conversations regarding their cultural background. Beyond this, they may recognize and plan to address their potential needs in their first supervision meeting. Taking an active role in getting what they need, counselors-in-training may also research multicultural models of supervision and brainstorm strategies for utilizing their chosen model with their clients.

Finally, supervisees may help promote effectiveness by identifying their level of counseling self-efficacy and personal characteristics, while recognizing the potential influence on the process of supervision. For example, they may engage in personal reflection outside of the supervision meetings to consider their personal anxieties, attachment styles, reactions to conflict, etc. Bringing these reflections to their supervisor's attention may provide the opportunity to discuss and work through any issues that may decrease their self-efficacy or negatively affect the supervisory relationship.

As a number of participants in this study spoke of being proactive to manage their harmful supervisory relationship with no avail, it is wise for supervisees to focus on their own counseling self-efficacy and belief in self. Being open and honest with both faculty and site supervisors and maintaining an awareness of their own personal characteristics that may influence the supervisory relationship can also help manage harmful supervision. Supervisees also need to consider their comfort level with self-disclosure. If they feel uncomfortable disclosing their concerns and feelings, they might engage in journaling to work through their reservations, organizing their feelings related to what their expectations were and what they were not getting. They might also practice expressing these feelings with another trusted person to prepare to approach their supervisor. Finally, identifying what they would like to have happen may help them frame their expectations and strategies for obtaining the support they need in a realistic, action-oriented manner.

Additionally, many participants sought outside help to survive the situation and personal counseling to process the experience. Participants, however, noted that this help often was unavailable or insufficient. To increase the effectiveness of outside help, supervisees might enlist the support of their faculty supervisor, another supervisor at their site, their mentor, or

program director. They may also speak with a friend, fellow student, trusted mentor, or family member about their reactions to the harmful supervisory relationship to process through their emotions. They may also benefit from setting up goals to function personally and progress developmentally.

Supervisors

Supervisors should demonstrate the appropriate supervisory behaviors while building positive relationships, protect supervisees from harm and neglect, and ensure client welfare (ACA, 2005). Supervisors may be wise to attend to mediating variables as they create, assess, and facilitate the supervisory relationship to ensure effective supervision with supervisees at various levels (Worthen & Isakson, 2003).

The prevention of harmful supervision begins with supervisors working to ensure effective supervision by adapting their style according to the individual needs of each supervisee (Jacobsen & Tanggaard, 2009). Adaptations may be influenced by supervisee developmental level and the personal characteristics of the counselor-in-training. Supervisors must understand counselor identity development and be able to tailor their supervision to meet the unique needs of supervisees at various developmental stages. Furthermore, attendance to power differentials may benefit supervisory relationships.

For beginning supervisees, supervisors must attend to competence levels, emotional awareness, personal motivation, and professional ethics (Loganbill et al., 1982). These issues must be considered in terms of supervisees' developmental progression through autonomy, motivation, and self-other awareness (Stoltenberg, 1998). For example, supervisors working with beginning supervisees must consider how comfortable supervisees are with taking initiative

at the site and with their own development, understand they may feel anxious much of the time, and focus on support and guidance rather than punitive evaluation.

As harmful supervision was reported within the contexts of multicultural incompetence, bias or prejudice, and lack of respect for diversity, supervisors may also benefit from continuous attention to possessing and demonstrating multicultural competence in supervision. Modeling respect for diversity may foster a positive working alliance, and serve as a model for their supervisees. Finally, addressing discourses of power and related issues to lessen their potential for harmful influence on the supervisory relationship may serve supervisors well (Markham & Chiu, 2011), as may illuminate oppression to empower supervisees.

For further recommendations for employing multiculturally competent supervision, supervisors may reference the following literature. Nilsson and Duan (2007) offer insight into the supervision experiences of racial and ethnic supervisees. Borders (2005) suggested supervisors focus on multicultural issues by integrating cultural awareness into theoretical approaches, addressing privilege, oppression, and racial identity development, as well as by offering bilingual supervision. Kissil, Davey, and Davey (2013) offered recommendations to boost supervisors' multicultural competence, along with diverse supervisees' satisfaction in supervision and counseling self-efficacy. Finally, Reid and Dixon (2012) introduced a model for multicultural supervision in higher education, which may benefit faculty supervisors.

Participants also identified their supervisors as solely responsible for meeting their needs on the level they expected going into supervision and that seeking outside help did not meet those needs. Therefore, it is sensible to suggest supervisors may also be the strongest influence in managing harmful supervision. Supervisors may best employ efforts to manage harmful supervision and ameliorate supervisory relationships by openly discussing contributions from

both sides, possibly with a third party involved. For example, it may be beneficial for both the faculty and site supervisors, along with the supervisee, to meet and discuss harmful aspects of the relationship, action plans for improving the situation, and tactics for meeting the developmental needs of the supervisee. This may include opportunities for personal reflection from both the supervisor and supervisee, identification of strengths and weaknesses, goals, and points for future evaluations from both sides to track progress in improving the relationship.

Counselor Educators

As counselor educators, it is our responsibility to promote the development of our students, ensure the welfare of our student supervisees and their clients, and function as gatekeepers for our programs, as well as the counseling profession (ACA, 2014). As faculty supervisors coordinating placements and relationships with site supervisors, it is imperative that we are aware of and assist in raising students' awareness of the defining characteristics of effective, ineffective, and harmful supervision. However, promoting awareness may not be sufficient. It may also serve well to have an awareness of methods for assisting student supervisees who experience harmful supervision with their site supervisors. This may include intervention, attempts to ameliorate the situation, or removal of students from the site.

Training for students. According to Bernard (1979), an inherent power differential exists in supervision. This may explain why supervisees are often reluctant to discuss ineffective supervisory events (Jacobs, 1991). However, lack of disclosure leads to damage to the supervisory relationship and, according to participants in the current study, led to a continuation of not getting what they needed, being isolated, and feeling attacked. Counselor educators may be wise to hold trainings for supervisees covering not only effective supervision, but realistic expectations for harmful supervision and strategies for prevention and management. As

mentioned previously, workshops should include a holistic conceptualization of supervision, including effective, ineffective, and harmful supervision. This may also be accomplished in the classroom, in introductory professional development courses, at the beginning of practicum, or during internship. Processing this information using techniques to reach various learning styles may be particularly advantageous. Supervisees may benefit from being able to process their anxieties going to in to supervision, recognize aspects of their supervisory relationships that are ineffective or harmful, and learn how to seek support beyond supervision to promote their personal and professional development.

Training for supervisors. Similarly, counselor educators may provide holistic supervision training to site supervisors. It is realistic to expect attention to the subject will help supervisors identify certain behaviors to be aware of and avoid, as well as strategies for identifying potentially vulnerable supervisees. In a workshop setting, providing an overview of the nature of supervision, with contributions from both supervisees and supervisors, along with detailed information about effective, ineffective, and harmful supervision may build or strengthen supervisors' knowledge base. Additionally, various learning activities to process and learn to implement the information provided may assist supervisors in integrating the material. Finally, providing the space for personal reflection coupled with a reiteration of ethical responsibilities may help supervisors establish and maintain an honest and open reflection on their own contributions to their supervisory relationships, while illuminating the necessity for continued consultation.

During the practicum and internship experiences, counselor educators can engage in management activities related to supervision. Using previous literature and the findings of the current study, I offer a three level process for counselor educators to manage harmful

supervision. 1) Process and Empower: In group supervision, encourage supervisees to express their feelings, discuss power differentials, review supervisees' rights and brainstorm action plan. Individually, counselor educators may work with supervisees to assess level of harm and outcomes, validate and encourage supervisees, and refer to the university counseling center for negative emotional consequences. 2) Mediate: counselor educators may begin the mediation process by understanding the student's contribution, advocating for student to supervisor and site, encouraging open communication, reviewing goals and standards, modeling appropriate professional behavior for student, and working to strengthen relationships between student and supervisor, site, and the counseling program. Sometimes, these actions are sufficient to help the supervisee.

In some irreconcilable cases, it may be necessary to go to the extreme of removing the supervisee from the site or class. 3) Remove: Begin by asking if other students experiencing challenges at the site or with this faculty member, consult with other faculty members and colleagues, review ethical standards, remove student from the site. Supervisees who are removed from their sites must understand their roles in the supervision process before moving to another internship site. Failing to consider the implications of changing sites or classes mid-semester may continue to serve as a detriment in some situations. These considerations include hours log, orientation, building caseload, removing site from site list, or address further action with faculty member.

Future Research

As the current study was limited to students or graduates from mental health practicum and internship training who self-reported harmful supervision, there are a number of possibilities for future research. Furthermore, the gap in the literature regarding harmful supervision offers

abundant space for a breadth and depth of information regarding the experience and outcomes of harmful supervision. As they are developmentally more advanced, perspectives from supervisees beyond practicum and internship training will add to the holistic understanding of harmful supervision.

As the findings in this study are limited to supervisees, and the literature suggests the relationship is affected by both the supervisor and supervisee, eliciting information from supervisors experienced in harmful supervision may offer perspective from the other side of their relationship. Future research can utilize the same methodology used in this study, only with supervisors as participants. It may be useful to illuminate site supervisors' experiences during supervision, but also their perceptions of the impact at their sites, including their own professional livelihood and the possible impact on clients or relationships with counselor education programs. Similarly, information regarding counselor educators' role in managing harmful supervision may offer further practical suggestions for faculty supervisors and gatekeepers in counselor education programs. This may include counselor educators' perceived success and/or challenges in ameliorating harmful supervisory relationships between their students and faculty and/ or site supervisors, along with implications for their programs. Finally, quantitative studies exploring identity development in those who experienced harmful supervision may add to the literature with larger sample sizes and greater generalizability.

Conclusion

Literature explicating effective and ineffective supervision is vastly available to the counseling profession. Limited existing literature and the findings of the current study support the notion that harmful supervision goes beyond ineffective supervision with long lasting, damaging, and traumatizing outcomes for supervisees. In Chapter Two, power differentials, lack

of cultural consideration, and inappropriate relational issues were linked to harmful supervision. Chapter Four added to the existing pool of knowledge by outlining the lived experience of harmful supervision, including *not getting what I needed, feeling attacked, feeling isolated, maintaining or losing belief in self, and negative outcomes*.

Previous literature identifying deleterious outcomes of harmful supervision, along with the unique developmental needs of beginning supervisees (Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998), call for counselor trainees and professionals to meticulously attempt to meet the expectations provided by our professional code of ethics (ACA, 2005). This study explored the lived experience of harmful supervision in current and past clinical mental health students. Multiple themes were identified that suggest harmful supervision is a complex experience resulting from both supervisor and supervisee behaviors, which leaves a long-lasting, negative effect on supervisees. The results of this study may increase understanding to promote supervisees' development and ensure client welfare by preventing and managing harmful supervision.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Oral Script for interacting with counselors in community agencies in Phase 1 and counseling graduate program faculty members in Phase 2:

Hello. My name is Alessandra Rhinehart. I am currently a Ph.D. candidate in Counselor Education and Supervision in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling in the College of Education, Health, and Human Sciences at the University of Tennessee. To fulfill the degree requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree, I am conducting a research study on harmful supervision experienced during Master's level counseling practicum and internship and ask for your participation. I am interested in investigating the perspectives of individuals who experienced what they perceived to be harmful supervision during their mental health counseling practicum or internship supervision experiences. I appreciate your assistance in recruiting participants.

Participants may be either current or former counseling graduate students who self-identify an experience of harmful supervision during their master's level practicum or internship experiences. They must be at least 22 years old to participate in the research study. The purpose of this research study is to fill the gap in the literature regarding harmful supervision (Ellis, 2001) by illuminating the lived experience of harmful supervision for beginning supervisees during their graduate studies. I will use the results to offer suggestions for the prevention and management of harmful supervision to counselor educators, supervisors, and supervisees, enrich the understanding of clinical supervision, promote effective supervision, safeguard supervisees, and, ultimately, ensure client welfare.

Participation involves completing a phenomenological interview regarding their experience of harmful supervision. Interviews are expected to last 60 – 120 minutes. Interviews with participants in the middle and eastern regions of East Tennessee will be conducted in person; in a private area with limited distractions. Interviews with participants beyond the middle and eastern Tennessee areas will be conducted via Skype. Interview questions and prompts involve requests for demographic information and sensitive information about experiences of harmful supervision. In order to participate, participants must consent to be audiotaped. However, all information is confidential and identifying information will be removed. Participation is voluntary. Participants have the option to end participation at any time without penalty or consequence and I will destroy your interview recording. Participants will be contacted following the research study to review and offer edits to their transcripts and to confirm the thematic structure. Following the completion of all interviews, participants will receive a \$15 Visa Gift Card. Each participant will receive a \$15 Visa Gift Card, even if they start, but decide not to complete, the interview.

Please assist me in eliciting participants by providing the contact information of counselors or counselors in training who may be interested in and qualify for participation, based on the

requirements previously mentioned. Please provide your contact information, so that I may send the recruitment message to you via email. You may forward the message to individuals who may have interest in participating in and qualify for the research study.

I greatly appreciate your willingness to help elicit participants for this research study. Do you have any questions?

Appendix B

Email to Counselors/students

Dear Current or Former Counseling Graduate Student,

My name is Alessandra Rhinehart. I am currently a Ph.D. candidate in Counselor Education and Supervision in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling in the College of Education, Health, and Human Sciences at the University of Tennessee. To fulfill the degree requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree, I am conducting a research study on harmful supervision experienced during Master's level counseling practicum and internship and ask for your participation. I am interested in investigating the perspectives of individuals who experienced what they perceived to be harmful supervision during their mental health counseling practicum or internship supervision experiences.

If you believe that you experienced harmful supervision during your practicum or internship experience, I would very much like to talk with you. Sharing your story will help inform the counseling profession about the context and effects of harmful supervision. I will maintain your anonymity and confidentiality if you choose to participate. All participants will receive a \$15 gift certificate as a thank you.

Participation Information

Participants may be either current or former counseling graduate students who self-identify an experience of harmful supervision during their master's level practicum or internship experiences. You must be at least 22 years old to participate in the research study. The purpose of this research study is to fill the gap in the literature regarding harmful supervision (Ellis, 2001) by illuminating the lived experience of harmful supervision for beginning supervisees during their graduate studies. I will use the results to offer suggestions for the prevention and management of harmful supervision to counselor educators, supervisors, and supervisees, enrich the understanding of clinical supervision, promote effective supervision, safeguard supervisees, and, ultimately, ensure client welfare.

Participation involves completing a phenomenological interview regarding your experience of harmful supervision. Interviews are expected to last 60 – 120 minutes. Interviews with participants in the middle and eastern regions of East Tennessee will be conducted in person; in a private area with limited distractions. Interviews with participants beyond the middle and eastern Tennessee areas will be conducted via Skype. Interview questions and prompts involve requests for demographic information and sensitive information about experiences of harmful supervision. In order to participate, participants must consent to be audiotaped. However, all information is confidential and identifying information will be removed. Participation is voluntary. You have the option to end your participation at any time without penalty or consequence and I will destroy your interview recording. Participants will be contacted

following the research study to review and offer edits to their transcripts and to confirm the thematic structure. Following the completion of all interviews, participants will receive a \$15 Visa Gift Card. Each participant will receive a \$15 Visa Gift Card, even if they decide not to complete the interview.

If you would like to participate in this research study, please contact me via email at arhineh3@vols.utk.edu or via phone at (423) 202-4256. Please include “supervision research study” in the subject line. I will reply with a request to schedule an interview. If needed, my dissertation chair, Dr. Melinda Gibbons, may be contacted via email at mgibbon2@utk.edu. This research study has been approved by the University of Tennessee’s Institutional Review Board.

Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate. Your involvement is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Alessandra Rhinehart

Doctoral Candidate in Counselor Education and Supervision

The University of Tennessee

Appendix C

Informed Consent

Title of research study: Lived Experiences of Beginning Counseling Supervisees in Harmful Supervision

Principal investigator: Alessandra Rhinehart

Mentor: Melinda Gibbons

Institute: University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Purpose of this research study

Purpose of the research study is to describe the experience of beginning counseling supervisees self-identified harmful supervision during practicum and internship in mental health counseling programs.

Procedures

The researcher will interview participants about their experiences of harmful supervision, analyze interview data using phenomenological analysis, and provide common themes and rich descriptions. In order to participate, participants must consent to be audiotaped.

Possible risks or benefits

Please be aware that all research carries risk. The standard minimal risk is that which is found in everyday life. I will provide referral information for local or national counselors to offer support if you experience discomfort as a result of the interview, Benefits are a \$15 Visa Gift Card and to add to the counseling profession's understanding of the effects of harmful supervision.

Right of refusal to participate and withdrawal

Participation in the research study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate and withdraw from the research study at any time without any repercussions. Each participant will receive a \$15 Visa Gift Card, even if they decide not to complete the interview.

Confidentiality

All information you supply during the research will be held in confidence to the extent provided by the law and unless you specifically indicate your consent, your name will not appear in any report or publication of the research.

Your information will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this number and this informed consent form will be kept in a secure place. When the research study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed. The transcriptions of the audio-recorded interviews and your signed informed consent will be kept in a secure, locked filing cabinet for a minimum of three years and then destroyed.

Available Sources of Information

If you have any questions you may contact Principal Investigator, Alessandra Rhinehart by e-mail (arhineh3@vols.utk.edu) or Dr. Melinda Gibbons at mgibbon2@utk.edu.

Furthermore, should you have any questions with regard to your rights of participation; you may contact the University of Tennessee, Knoxville Institutional Review Board's Compliance Officer at 865-974-7697 or ssulli20@utk.edu.

Participant's Consent Declaration

I understand that participation is voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or consequence. I understand that I may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of accrued benefits (Benefits are accrued in proportion to the amount of research study completed or as otherwise stated by the researcher) to which I am otherwise entitled. **I declare that I am at least 22 years of age.**

Participant's Signature: _____

Participant's Name: _____

Date: _____

Investigator's Declaration

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedures in which the subject (or legal representative has given consent) has consented to participate.

Principal Investigator's Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix D

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VITA

Alessandra Joy Rhinehart was born in Johnson City, TN. Her parents are Majorie and James Chambers, and Ronn Honeycutt. She is the fifth child, preceded by Arianne, Jacqueline, Andrew, and Derrick. Alessandra graduated from Elizabethton High School, Elizabethton, TN. She received her Bachelors of Science in Psychology, with a minor in Human Development and Learning from East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, TN. She also received her Masters of Arts in Counseling from East Tennessee State University. Upon completing a graduate assistantship in which she had the privilege of teaching and providing counseling, with some supervision, Alessandra decided to pursue her Doctorate of Philosophy in Counselor Education from the University of Tennessee. During her doctoral studies, she welcomed her son Braxton James. Alessandra enjoys serving the counseling profession by remaining actively involved as a member and leader in the American Counseling Association, Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, the Southern Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, Chi Sigma Iota International, and the North American Society for Adlerian Psychology. During her training, she received a number of awards including University of Tennessee's Counselor Education Program's Most Outstanding Doctoral Student, University of Tennessee Chancellor's Award for Extraordinary Professional Promise, and the Bruce Painter Graduate Fellowship. Alessandra is also a Southern Association for Counselor Education and Supervision emerging leader and a Chi Sigma Iota International leadership fellow. She recently accepted a tenure-track assistant professor of counseling position at Northern Kentucky University.