The Supervisory Relationship: How Style and Working Alliance Relate to Satisfaction among Cyber and Face-to-Face Supervisees

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Dedication

This is dedicated to my loving family who always believed in me and encouraged me.

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I would like to express sincere appreciation to Dr. Melinda Gibbons, who demonstrated great patience and guidance while working with me. Without which, I am not sure how I would have completed my dissertation. I would also like to thank my family, they are my biggest fans and have always supported and encouraged me. I would not be where I am today if it was not for their lifelong encouragement. My mom, who recruited multiple prayer warriors to pray for me throughout this process. Jesse, my fiancé, who has an amazing ability of helping me to focus and stay grounded when I need it the most. I still have my sanity because of him. Finally, to Dr. Shawn Spurgeon, whose commitment to students as well as the counseling profession is inspiring.

Abstract

Online supervision, or cyber supervision, is an emerging field in counselor education, however, little is known about the differences of the relationship of FtF and cyber supervision. The purpose of this dissertation study was to examine counseling supervisees perceptions of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship and how those perceptions compared for supervisees in face-to-face (FtF) and online, or cyber, supervisees. In doing this, the variables that relate and/or predict satisfaction were studied. These variables were those from the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI) and the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI). The dependent variable of satisfaction came from the Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ). Correlation analyses indicated that all variables were highly correlated with each other and to satisfaction with supervision. Two-tailed t-tests were then conducted for each independent variable and the dependent variable along with comparison by format of supervision (i.e., cyber or FtF). Results indicated that cyber supervisees reported higher satisfaction ratings than their FtF counterparts. Lastly, a series stepwise regression analyses indicated that the independent variables of rapport, interpersonally sensitive, and attractiveness were predictors of satisfaction for FtF supervisees, while the independent variable of interpersonally sensitive was the only predictor of satisfaction for cyber supervisees. Discussion of findings, implications for counselor educators and supervisors, and future research were discussed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Developing a strong supervisory relationship is considered the cornerstone for all successful work in supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014; Corey, Haynes, Moulton & Muratori, 2010). In fact, research indicates that the perceived support and confidence experienced by a supervisee within the supervisory relationship has the potential to change the perceptions of supervisees in regards to their self-confidence, passion for profession, counseling self-efficacy, and cognitive complexity (Goodyear & Bernard, 1998). Traditionally, counselors conduct supervision in a face-to-face format, however, the number of online mental health counseling programs is increasing, thereby increasing the number of supervisees receiving supervision online, or cybersupervision (Coker, Jones, Staples, & Harbach, 2002). Given the relatively new, yet ever expanding, area of cybersupervision, limited research exists examining the supervisory relationship within cybersupervision and how that compares to the supervisory relationship in a face-to-face format.

According to the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998), Level 1, or early-stage counselors-in-training, supervisees have unique and specific needs that make them more vulnerable than advanced supervisees. The need for supervisees to feel competent, and that their supervisor deems them so, is more important in the beginning of their training than with more advanced students, who often prefer to discuss personal styles and use higher order skills in their work with clients (Bernard & Goodyear, 1998). Research (Efstation, Patton, & Kardash, 1990) demonstrates that the supervisory relationship is paramount to a successful supervision experience, and with the growing number of online programs in existence, this study seeks to compare perceptions of the supervisory

relationship of supervisees engaged in face-to-face supervision and those engaged in cybersupervision.

The Supervisory Relationship

Supervision is an important part of counselor training, yet many experts in the field describe supervision in different ways. Corey, Haynes, Moulton, and Muratori (2010) defined supervision as a "consistent observation and evaluation of the counseling process provided by a trained and experienced professional" (p.3). Scott, Ingram, Vitanza, and Smith (2001) defined supervision as "a pivotal role necessary to the advancement of skills necessary to become a professional" (p. 404). The supervisory relationship is perhaps best explained by Bernard and Goodyear (2014) as being "an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession" (p.7) that is "evaluative, hierarchical…extends over time" (p.9), and also serves as a way of monitoring client welfare. The relationship that forms between a supervisor and supervisee is deemed crucial to the work and learning experiences of the supervisee, as well as providing a buffer to challenges and critical moments that occur in supervision (Borders & Brown, 2005).

Though many different variations exist on how supervision is conducted and what it actually entails, most agree that the primary functions of supervision are to foster professional development of the supervisee and monitor client welfare (Bornsheur-Boswell, Polnyi, & Watts, 2013; Corey, Haynes, Moulton, & Muratori, 2010). Bernard and Goodyear (2014) stated that teaching, consulting, and evaluating are the key roles of a supervisor that aid in promoting counselor growth while maintaining client safety. Supervisors play an important role in promoting professional identity and clinical skills, while acting as gatekeepers of the profession.

A good amount of research regarding supervision focuses on how the supervisory relationship impacts supervisee's development. Research indicates that beginning supervisees' needs are far different than advanced supervisees, and the relationship between a supervisee and supervisor plays a significant role in the development of supervisees and the allegiance they feel towards the profession (Goodyear & Bernard, 1993; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Additionally, negative experiences in supervision, which can be attributed to not having a strong working alliance, connect to supervisees feelings of anxiousness, exploitation, and self-doubt (Barrett & Barber, 2005). Similarly, a strong working alliance can provide a firm foundation to increased confidence, competence, and professionalism (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001; Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). When expectations of supervision are discussed within a strong working alliance, supervisees feel less ambiguity regarding their role in supervision (Ladany & Friedlander, 1995).

A strong working alliance serves as a model that supervisees can use to develop working relationships with their clients (Bordin, 1983). This relationship includes elements such as trust, self-disclosure, transference, countertransference, parallel processing, boundaries, power differentials, and attention to diversity which, when addressed appropriately in supervision, demonstrates how supervisees can address or handle these issues as they arise in session with their clients (Borders & Brown, 2005; Corey, Haynes, Moulton & Muratori, 2010). Supervision is now moving towards utilizing a variety of different formats, such as cybersupervision, in which the relationship and working alliance still plays an integral part in the success of supervision.

Cybersupervision

Training programs utilize cybersupervision as a way to provide access to supervision no matter where students are geographically located (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). It is considered cybersupervision if the supervisor and supervisee are engaging in supervision via a means other than face-to-face contact, such as videoconferencing, online chatting, and e-mail (Watson, 2003). According to Bernard and Goodyear (2014), this form of supervision is rapidly growing in popularity, bringing with it a growing list of advantages and disadvantages. Some disadvantages, or barriers to using cybersupervision, include uneven technological competence between supervisors and supervisees, cost of equipment or software, broadband issues, state laws and regulations governing online supervision, susceptibility to breaches of confidentiality, as well as a loss of nonverbal cues if formats such as email are used (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). In addition to serving more supervisees in differing geographic areas, other advantages to cybersupervision include the ability of supervisors to have much more immediate access if clinical crises arise in which they are needed, opportunity for more convenient scheduling, more opportunity for diverse clinical placements, and more effective use of time due to limiting travel time to and from supervision (Corey, Haynes, Moulton & Muratori, 2010; Chapman, Baker, Nassar-McMillan, & Gerler, 2011). Understanding that the supervisory relationship is crucial to supervision, it is important to study how supervisees in cybersupervision view this relationship as compared to face-to-face supervisees.

In response to the growing number of distance education counseling programs, online method of instruction and supervision were added to the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) Standards, resulting in access to accredited institutions that may have been previously unavailable. The American Counseling Association's

Code of Ethics (2014) also was recently revised to include online supervision, noting that supervisors must be competent in the technology that is being used, as well as take necessary precautions to protect confidentiality of any information transmitted electronically (F.2.c.). As the number of programs using cybersupervision increases, so does the number of counseling students receiving this form of supervision.

Cybersupervision and the supervisory relationship. Supervisees in practicum are in typically in the early stages of their counselor identity development, and have similar needs that should be addressed. The supervisory relationship is important regardless of the format used in supervision (Kanz, 2001). Wetchler, Trepper, McCollum and Nelson (1993) developed a model of distance supervision that involved sending videotapes through the mail and using the telephone to have a supervision session. In this model, the authors provided suggestions for building the supervisory relationship through an initial phone call to get to know one another, discuss goals, and develop a supervisory contract. Orr (2010) found in her review of the literature that there is limited research that explicitly focuses on the relationship in cybersupervision and speculated that the relationship building would require more effort if the supervisor and supervisee had never met outside of their sessions. Though there is limited research, the literature (e.g., Vaccarro & Lambie, 2007; Olson, Russell, and White, 2002; Kanz, 2001) does offer reasons for the relationship requiring more work such as the inability to pick up on perceptual, affective, or visual cues which could lead to misinterpretation of information and potential conflict.

Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision

Developmental models of supervision stem from the somewhat recent exploration of how counseling supervisee developmental level impacts the supervisory relationship (Ronnestad &

Skovholt, 1998). Recent research suggests that, in order to guide supervisees on a journey of professional competency, the supervisor must understand the developmental level of the supervisee and utilize appropriate interventions accordingly (Stoltenberg, 2005). The IDM of supervision is a well-known model that focuses on the supervisees differing needs as they progress through their training and development.

The IDM has four levels of development beginning with Level 1, which refers to beginning counselors-in-training, who have had little or no experience in the area in which they are being supervised (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998). In this level, as it is with each level of the IDM, supervisees are characterized by three constructs, *self and other awareness, motivation*, and *autonomy*, and changes to these constructs signifies growth and potential movement to the next level of development. Stoltenberg (2005) described the *self and other awareness* of supervisees in Level 1 as limited, with a strong self-focus on their own thoughts, emotions, and behavior, with apprehension towards evaluation, and lack of awareness of their individual strengths and weaknesses. *Motivation* in this level is high, as is the focus on learning specific clinical skills and techniques, along with high levels of anxiety. *Autonomy* has not yet developed in these supervisees and they are dependent upon the supervisor for guidance, in addition to having a need for positive feedback with minimum direct confrontation.

Stoltenberg (2005) characterized beginning supervisees as being anxious, which results from their own negative perceptions of their ability to help clients. Supervisees depend on supervisor feedback and consider the supervisors to be clinical experts to which they seek direction (Bornsheur-Boswell, Polnyi, & Watts, 2013). Stoltenberg (1981) described the role of a supervisor working with Level 1 supervisees as one that encouraged autonomy and self-expression while providing the structure that the supervisees are seeking. A strong supervisory

relationship provides the foundation for Level 1 supervisees to increase confidence and self-efficacy in relation to their clinical abilities.

Statement of the problem

Researchers consider the supervisory relationship to be the most important factor in successful outcomes and fostering growth and confidence in supervisees (Corey, Haynes, Moulton, & Moratori, 2010; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). According to the IDM, beginning counselors-in-training are considered to be Level 1 supervisees (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998). Individuals in this level often lack confidence and skill in their abilities and need guidance and structure from their supervisor. They are often anxious and unsure of what to expect in supervision, which can lead to negative experiences if they feel the supervisor is ambiguous or unsupportive of the relationship (Barber & Barrett, 2005; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). Research conducted by Nelson and Friedlander (2001) indicated that these negative experiences can lead to extreme stress, self-doubt, and in some cases, even leaving the field altogether.

Supervision has primarily been a face-to-face interaction up until the past decade or so when cybersupervision was introduced. In fact, according to the CACREP online directory, there are currently 16 accredited, online counseling programs. Though relatively new to the field of counseling, research suggests that cybersupervision can be a valuable modality to engaging in supervision due to the freedom it allows both supervisors and supervisees (Chapman, Baker, Nassar-McMillan, & Gerler, 2011). Research, however, is limited regarding supervisee's perceptions of satisfaction with the supervisory alliance in comparison to supervisee's receiving face-to-face supervision.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this quantitative comparison study was to examine supervisee's perceptions of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship regarding face-to-face supervision versus cybersupervision. More specifically, how the supervisee's perception of supervisory style and working alliance contributed to their overall perception of satisfaction, and how that compared in FtF and cyber- supervisees. The participants in this study were counseling students enrolled in a CACREP-accredited or CACREP-based, master's level counseling program who were currently in practicum, or who completed practicum within the past 6 months. Students in both face-to-face and cybersupervision models were participants in the study. According to the IDM, these participants were in Level 1 of their development, which indicates a strong need for a supportive relationship with their supervisor in order to build self-confidence in their clinical skills (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Delworth, 1998). This study can benefit counselor educators by offering data on perceived differences in perception based on the approach used when providing supervision.

Research Questions

The following questions are answered in this study (see Table 1.1 for reference):

1. How does the perception of supervisory style affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?
    - What are the differences in supervisee's perception based on the type of supervision received, either face-to-face or cyber?
2. How does the perception of the supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

- What are the differences in supervisee's perception based on the type of supervision received, either face-to-face or cyber?

3. How does the perception of supervisory style and supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?
   - What are the differences in supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship between those receiving face-to-face and cyber-supervision?

4. What do participants say contributes to their level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

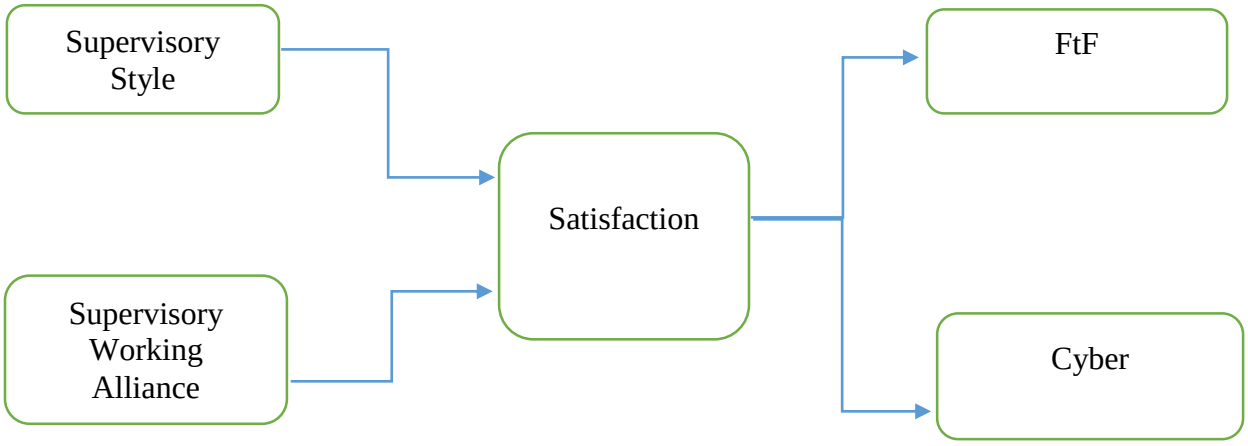

Figure 1.1 Relationship of Constructs being Studied

Definition of Terms

The Supervisory Relationship is described by Corey, Haynes, Moulton, and Muratori (2011) as a "…model for the relationships that supervisees develop with their clients" (p. 52) by learning to authentically connect with others in a meaningful way.

Supervisory Working Alliance is defined by Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) as the "sector of the overall relationship between the participants in which supervisors act purposefully to influence trainees through their use of technical knowledge and skill and in which trainees act willingly to display their acquisition of that knowledge and skill" (p.323).

CACREP Supervision Guidelines refers to the guidelines for conducting supervision set forth by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP; 2009). These guidelines are as follows: engages in at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision.

Face to Face (FtF) Supervision for the purposes of this study, comprises any clinical supervision conducted with the supervisor and supervisee(s) being physically present in the same space at the same time.

Cybersupervision is defined as the process in which supervision occurs over the internet (Watson, 2003).

Delimitations of the Study

Due to the number of master's mental health and school counseling programs in existence, for the purpose of this study, participants were recruited from programs that are CACREP-accredited or that met CACREP supervision guidelines, in an effort to make the results more consistent. The theoretical framework, IDM, was chosen because of the concise levels of experience by which supervisees were characterized. Given that the participants were practicum

students with little to no clinical experience, or Level 1 of the IDM, characteristics specific to this population were described in the model as well as their needs as they relate to supervision. This guided the study in terms of participant recruitment and consistency.

Limitations

The purpose of this study was to provide additional information regarding the supervisory relationship, however, there were limitations that were addressed. First is the concept of perceptions of the supervisee as they relate to the supervisory relationship. Although this study attempted to regulate responses by using a valid and reliable assessment, personal dispositions, biases, and other factors could be present in responses. It should also be noted that supervisory styles were different across the programs surveyed and could therefore have affected participants self-reports. Additionally, the original number derived from the power analysis was not met, and there was little variance in the demographic of the participants which limits generalizability. Lastly, the time of year was a limitation in that data was being gathered in the summer months and many students may not have had access to their e-mails and the invitation for participation.

Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter served as an introduction to the study, as well as an overview of the importance of the supervisory relationship, cybersupervision, and the theoretical framework used. The purpose of the study was addressed and key terms were defined in this chapter. Delimitations and limitations of the study were also discussed. Chapter two serves as a literature review of the main constructs of the study: supervision, the supervisory relationship, and cybersupervision. Chapter three serves as a report of the methodology used in the study. The method, procedure, instrumentation, and data

collection and analysis were addressed. Chapter four describes the results of the data analyses and chapter five is a discussion of the results, implications, and ideas for future research.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the current study. The first section reviews clinical supervision including the history, purposes of supervision, and cybersupervision. The next section reviews literature related to the supervisory relationship and includes early studies conducted on the relationship. Additionally, Bordin's (1983) model of the supervisory working alliance is described along with evaluative measures developed to assess the working alliance and current studies on the supervisory relationship. The last section includes literature related to the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM) giving particular attention to the literature on Level 1 supervisees and the supervisory relationship.

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is the foundation from which counselors-in-training develop their skills, competence, and self-confidence (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). A review of the literature on counseling supervision provides a multitude of definitions for the concept of clinical supervision. What appears to be the most accepted definition is that of Bernard and Goodyear (2009), who defined supervision as "an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession" (p.7). Bernard and Goodyear's (2009) definition is the one which will be used for the purpose of this study. Expanding on this definition, the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Programs (CACREP, 2009) defines supervision as "a tutorial and mentoring form of instruction in which a supervisor monitors the student's activities in practicum and internship, and facilitates the associated learning and skill development experiences" (p.62). Regardless of the definition, supervision is a specific intervention that serves to provide guidance and feedback to supervisees

while protecting client's welfare and serving as a gatekeeper to the profession. The following section will provide a brief history, different formats, and purposes of supervision.

The History of Supervision

The inception of supervision into the counseling profession began as early as the 1920s within the theory of psychoanalysis (Bernard, 2006). In her review of the development of supervision, Bernard noted Eckstein and Wallerstein's (1958) work as a seminal article, in which they likened supervision to a game of chess. In this analogy, they described supervision as having a beginning, where supervisors and supervisees assess the other's strengths and vulnerabilities; a middle, which is described as a time of interpersonal conflict, also known as the working stage of supervision; and an end, which is characterized by the supervisor being more silent and supportive of an increasingly independent supervisee. Other, more indirect, simulations of supervision were also developing within other theories, such as client-centered and behavioral, in which supervision consisted primarily of modeling appropriate counseling to supervisees (Bernard, 2006). According to Bernard (2006), this did not allow for many similarities in supervision given the unique nature of each of the theories being modeled.

The 1960s and early 1970s brought the beginning of supervision training and attention to microskills, with little to no attention being paid to the supervisory relationship (Ivey, 1971). The American Mental Health Counseling Association (AMHCA) developed a formal standard of training for clinical supervisors in 1989, and was the first counseling organization to employ ethical guidelines for supervision (Bernard, 2006). The Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) followed suit with their first version of supervision guidelines in 1993. Since this time, the American Counseling Association (ACA, 2014) and the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) adopted

similar standards that address supervision, with the most recent versions also addressing the standards and ethics of online supervision.

By the late 1970s and early 1980s, models of supervision were being developed, such as Bernard's (1979) Discrimination Model and Stoltenberg's (1981) Integrated Developmental Model. Another area of progress in supervision research was the contribution by Hess (1981), who underlined ethical, legal, and multicultural issues within supervision as well as relational variables as areas of importance to be considered in supervision. Bordin (1983) also developed his model of the Supervisory Working Alliance, which became foundational research in the area of the supervisory relationship. The 1980s proved to be the beginning of important research suggesting that the supervisory relationship was an integral component of successful supervision (Bordin, 1983; Friedlander & Ward, 1984; Heppner & Handley, 1982; Rickards, 1984). Current research focuses on individual differences and characteristics of supervisees and supervisors such as attachment styles, coping resources, perceived self-efficacy, perceived stress, as well as others that contribute to the satisfaction and success of the supervisory relationship (e.g., Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Gnilka, Chang, & Dew, 2012; Gunn & Pistole, 2012; Ladany, Walker, & Ancis, 2001; White & Queener, 2003). The advancement of research dedicated to supervision and the supervisory relationship provided a wealth of information to substantiate the importance of clinical supervision, no matter how it is defined.

Purposes of supervision. Unlike the definition of supervision, the purposes of supervision are more consistent in the literature. Bernard and Goodyear (2014) offered two purposes of supervision: "1. To foster the supervisee's professional development—a supportive and educational function 2. To ensure client welfare—the supervisor's gatekeeping function is a variant of the monitoring of client welfare" (p.13). Bradley and Boyd (2001) discussed fostering

supervisee's personal growth as an important component of professional growth. They characterized personal growth as increased self-awareness and how this affects clinical work with clients. Bradley and Boyd (2001) reported personal growth as having an indirect effect on each purpose of supervision. This corresponds with Pearson's (2000) research on successful supervision, which surmises that if supervisors address issues related to personal growth in supervision, supervisees tend to feel more competent in their clinical work as well as demonstrate an increased sense of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship.

Bernard and Goodyear (2014) identified their purpose of fostering professional development as a "teaching-learning goal" (p. 14) in which the supervisor works to enhance the supervisee's professional competence. This purpose is broad in nature as supervisors and supervisees work together to determine the goals and needs of the supervisee, such as skill development, competence, or working towards state licensure. As the authors stated, fostering professional development is usually done through a combination of assessing supervisee's developmental needs, creating own goals for supervision, and understanding the supervisor's own theoretical orientation. Bernard and Goodyear (2014) defined *metacompetence* as one's ability to practice without supervision based on ability to self-supervise and seek consultation when encountering an issue in which expertise is lacking. Metacompetence is another important goal in supervision. Bradley and Boyd (2001) also argued that professional development had a role in supervision and training. They referred to professional development as including a strong counselor identity, a commitment to the profession, an appreciation for the profession's ability to meet the needs of society, and a commitment to the goals of the institution in which they are employed, while also acknowledging their ability to establish or amend said goals. Bradley and Boyd (2001) stated that it is equally the responsibility of the supervisor and supervisee to work

towards this professional development in supervision. While acknowledging the need for individual responsibility in supervision, Pearson (2000) stated that it was ultimately the supervisor's responsibility to address any issues or challenges that may arise that could inhibit the progress towards this goal. Although new or different formats for delivery of supervision are becoming more widely accepted, the purposes of supervision remain the same.

Cybersupervision. New to the field of supervision is the concept of cybersupervision, which incorporates the use of technology in delivering supervision. Wetchler, et al., (1993) were among the first to present a form of distance supervision, in which the supervisee would mail a videotape to the supervisor and they would discuss feedback over the telephone. This provided a new way of thinking about supervision and offered its availability to supervisees who previously lacked access to supervisors. Other technologies further developed and were integrated into supervision, including online supervision, in which the supervisor and supervisee meet via webcam, a recording of the supervisee's session is shared, and feedback is provided, all utilizing a virtual medium (Casey, 1994; Olson, Russell, & White, 2001; Watson, 2003). Further discussion about cybersupervision is included later in this chapter.

Supervision has made great strides since its origins in the counseling field. As evidenced above, researchers now understand the importance of and processes related to supervision, with the most current research focusing on individual differences and the supervisory relationship. Cybersupervision, the most recent format in which supervision is conducted, now provides opportunities for students who previously had no accessibility to counselor training programs. With this understanding of the history of supervision, I now move to a discussion of the supervisory relationship.

The Supervisory Relationship

As noted above, supervision primarily blends the functions of teaching, learning, and evaluating with much focus given to the relational dynamics that occur within supervision. Viewing the overall success of supervision as a result of a successful supervisory relationship greatly changed the path of supervision research. In the following sections, the development of the relationship, the supervisory working alliance, and current research on the supervisory working alliance will be addressed.

Early Studies of the Supervisory Relationship

The supervisory relationship was not always considered an important part of successful supervision. Historically, attention focused on the counselor-client relationship with little focus on the supervisory relationship. Altucher (1967), one of the first to discuss the importance of this relationship, noted the difficulties faced by most beginning counselors and underlined how the supervisory relationship could address these difficulties. He stressed the importance of supervisors displaying interest and understanding in the supervisee in order to help better prepare the supervisee for clinical experiences. Altucher (1967) stated that “the supervisor’s main function is to help him keep the door to learning open even in the face of discomfort" (p. 167) and an essential way of accomplishing this was for the supervisor to be aware of what was happening within the supervisory relationship. Acknowledging the supervisory relationship as being crucial to the success of supervision provided a uniquely different perspective on supervision.

Research attempting to identify the makeup of the supervisory relationship exploded in the literature in the 1980s. Heppner and Handley (1982) utilized previous work by Strong (1968) that indicated supervision was successful by going through two stages: 1) counselors enhance

their perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness to increase the potential for influence and then 2) use their power of influence to foster desired change in clients. Their study sought to examine the relationship between supervisee satisfaction with supervision and perceived supervisor characteristics of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Heppner and Handley found that supervisees' satisfaction with supervision was related to perceptions of supervisor expertise, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Their research postulated the concept that the interpersonal process of counseling supervision was complex and could not be specifically determined based solely on supervisor characteristics (Heppner & Handley, 1982).

Further exploration of this concept helped increase understanding of the interpersonal characteristics that attributed to the development of a strong supervisory relationship. Handley (1982) examined supervisee's satisfaction of the relationship as well as supervisor satisfaction and evaluation of supervisees by attempting considering how cognitive styles related to satisfaction of supervision and the supervisory relationship and how supervisors evaluate supervisees. Handley's (1982) findings indicated that similar interpersonal and cognitive styles attributed to supervisors' higher level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Supervisee's ratings, however, indicated no connection between cognitive style and level of satisfaction. He surmised that supervisees approached supervision from a different vantage point than supervisors, so cognitive styles may not be as important to supervisees when relating to supervisors. Handley (1982) suggested that it might be helpful for supervisors and supervisees to be aware of their cognitive styles and discuss or anticipate any potential issues that may arise as a result.

Other studies attempting to understand the complexities of the supervisory relationship also occurred during this time. For example, Rickards (1984) examined verbal interactions in

supervision and supervisee perceptions of supervisors' interpersonal influences. Results indicated a moderate relationship between verbal interactions and supervisee perceptions of the supervisor, suggesting that supervisees enter the supervisory relationship with a positive perception of the supervisor until a negative event occurs changing the perception. This research underscored the concept of negative supervisory interactions and how they could be potentially damaging to the supervisory relationship. Around the same time, Ward, Friedlander, Schoen, and Klein (1985) examined the concept of social influence of the supervisory relationship. More specifically, they attempted to understand how supervisees' presentation of themselves and their cases to their supervisor related to the ongoing evaluation that occurred in supervision. Results indicated that supervisees usually adopted a defensive or counter-defensive self-presentation during supervision. These results suggest that supervisees being evaluated will strategically adopt one of these self-presentations as a way to gain favor from a supervisor and be more positively evaluated. These early studies only highlighted the complexity involved in attempting to identify the variables that make up a strong supervisory relationship.

Personal characteristics, relational dynamics, and the structure of supervision are only a few variables that seem to play an important part in the intricacy of the supervisory relationship. Due to the emerging research on the importance of the supervisory relationship, there was a theoretical void that needed to be filled. Bordin (1983) addressed this need with his research on the supervisory working alliance. The next section will introduce the supervisory working alliance and research conducted based on Bordin's model of the supervisory working alliance.

The Supervisory Working Alliance

The quality of the supervisory relationship, or supervisory working alliance, is another important topic in counseling research. Pearson (2000) discussed the challenges inherent in this

relationship and also outlined the opportunities that stem from these challenges. He stated that the objective of the supervisory relationship is the "professional growth and welfare of the counselor" (p.284) and yet this also must be balanced with the safety of the client. Pearson reported that, given the complexity of the supervisory relationship, it is important for supervisors to continuously examine the relationship while fostering a safe and trusting environment. Some challenges seen as opportunities for growth included transference, countertransference, parallel process, resistance, and anxiety. Pearson (2000) reported these were all normal occurrences that can manifest in supervision and, if the supervisor does not address these issues, the supervisory relationship can be damaged. Alternatively, when the supervisor addresses these issues in supervision, it can foster a stronger connection between the supervisor and supervisee. Being attentive and proactive in supervision can help the supervisor and supervisee develop a more successful working relationship.

In the early 1980s, the supervisory relationship began taking shape as an important, yet complex, part of supervision, leading to the development of theoretical models. In his article, Bordin (1983) identified a strong working alliance as one of, if not the most important aspects of, successful supervision. He viewed the concept of the supervisory working alliance as *pantheoretical* (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014, p. 72) and that it should be viewed as a "collaboration to change" (Bordin, 1983, p. 73). Bordin (1983) discussed three concepts which must exist in order to develop and maintain a strong working alliance. The first construct, *mutual agreements*, or goals, indicates that a collaborative effort in supervision along with mutual goals can create a foundation for change to occur. The second construct, *tasks*, is indicative of the responsibilities of the supervisor and supervisee that are implicit in the mutual agreements that have been set. The final aspect of the working alliance, *bonds*, refers to the intimacy that is

created out of sharing the experience of working towards the same goals. Bordin (1983) referred to a supervisory working alliance as an agreement between supervisor and supervisee on the goals for supervision, the tasks needed to meet those goals, and the relational bond that occurs as a result. His list of supervisory goals include the following:

> "1. Mastery of specific skills 2. Enlarging one's understanding of clients 3. Enlarging one's awareness of process issues 4. Increasing awareness of self-impact on process 5. Overcoming personal and intellectual obstacles toward learning and mastery 6. Deepening ones's understanding of concepts and theory 7. Provide a stimulus to research 8. Maintenance of standards of service." (p. 37-38).

These goals can be achieved through a series of agreed upon tasks carried out in session. Bordin (1983) emphasized the importance of building a strong working alliance and noted that change and growth stemmed more from the strength of the working alliance than from the actual process of supervision. Until Bordin's article, the working alliance had been studied, however, the profession lacked a model, or constructs, that identified the makeup of the supervisory working alliance. These constructs, or outline, provided direction for future research. Bordin's (1983) work served as a major foundation in research on the supervisory working alliance. The following sections describe evaluative measures developed to assess the supervisory relationship that are used in this study as well as current research that has been conducted relating to the supervisory working alliance.

Evaluation of the Supervisory Working Alliance

In an effort to assess the complexities of the supervisory working alliance, researchers began developing instruments during this time. Two of the more well-known instruments that are still widely used today include the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI) and the Supervisory

Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI). Another scale discussed is the Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ) which is a survey that was adapted by Ladany, Hill, Corbett, and Nutt (1996) from the Client Satisfaction Questionnaire. The development of each is described in detail below.

Supervisory Styles Inventory. Friedlander and Ward (1984) developed and validated the SSI, which seeks to understand the interpersonal or relational aspects of supervisors perceived by both supervisors and supervisees at different developmental levels. The SSI is a 33 item measure that uses adjectives to rate supervisee's perceptions of their supervisor's style based on three subscales which include *Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive*, and *Task-Oriented*. Derived from research identifying relationship and relational aspects as an important part of successful supervision, along with a seemingly inadequate list of supervisor roles that had been previously recognized, Friedlander and Ward (1984) sought to identify dimensions of supervisory style that were congruent among supervisors and supervisees. Through content analyses of transcribed interviews, a number of items were developed and then assigned a category based on applicability to supervisor or supervisee. The most stable items were kept for use in the instrument. Two other studies were conducted to interpret the constructs associated with the items, of which they found three underlying constructs. These were labeled as Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive, and Task-Oriented. The attractive subscale refers to a supervisor who is warm, friendly, supportive, and trust-worthy. The interpersonally sensitive subscale refers to attributes such as committed to the relationship, resourceful, and perceptive. The task-oriented subscale refers to the attributes such as practical, concrete, evaluative, and focused (Friedlander & Ward, 1984). Higher scores indicate supervisee's perception of that particular supervisory style. The SSI has been used in assessing the supervisory relationship with

regards to supervisee satisfaction (Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001), the impact of gender and supervisory style on supervisee satisfaction (Rarick & Ladany, 2013), supervisory style related to perceptions of satisfaction with individual, triadic, and group supervision (Newgent & Davis, 2003), among others.

Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory. Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) developed the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI) which is based on Bordin's (1983) model and is designed to measure perceptions of the supervisory relationship, or working alliance. Based on previous research on the supervisory relationship, Efstation et al. (1990) developed a list of identifiable tasks carried out in supervision with the help of supervision experts currently working in the field. Multiple studies and factor extractions were conducted that helped identify the items to be included in the instrument. Once the items were decided upon, the authors categorized the items, which became the subscales of the instrument. The SWAI has two versions, the supervisor version and the trainee version. The supervisor version is based on three subscales, *client focus*, *rapport*, and *identification*, while the trainee version has two subscales, *rapport* and *client focus*. Rapport is described as the working relationship between supervisors and supervisees in which they can communicate openly and collaboratively. Client focus refers to times when the supervisee and supervisor discuss clients, potential interventions, and the supervisee's feelings surrounding the client.

Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire. Ladany, Hill, Corbett, and Nutt (1996) modified the Client Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ; Larsen, Attkinson, Hargreaves, & Nguyen, 1979) to create the SSQ. The CSQ was developed as an evaluative tool to assess client satisfaction within the counseling relationship. Larson et al. (1979) reported three reasons in which assessing client satisfaction is important. First, it is important to gain the clients perception

of the relationship because counselor and client perceptions can differ regarding satisfaction and progress made in treatment. Second, there are legislative mandates that require an evaluation of services that include participation of the client. Third, clients who have no other choice but to seek help through publicly funded organizations have the right to quality care. In the SSQ, the term *supervision* replaced the terms *counseling* and *services* originally used in the CSQ to make it more relevant to the process of supervision. The SSQ is an 8-item questionnaire which asks supervisee's to rate their level of satisfaction with supervision on a 4-point scale ranging from *low* (1) to *high* (4).

A review of the literature suggests that these are common instruments used to assess the supervisory relationship, though they are not the only instruments in existence. The SSI, SWAI, and the SSQ were described above because they are the instruments being used in the present study (see Chapter 3 for reliability and validity support). Current research on the supervisory relationship is described in the following paragraphs and includes the previously mentioned instruments as well as others used in the field.

Supervisor and Supervisee Characteristics

There are a number of research articles that attempt to provide insight into factors impacting the working alliance. Different characteristics of the relationship have been examined and the section below identifies research related to inter- and intra- personal characteristics of the supervisor and supervisee found to impact the relationship. Interpersonal characteristics, for this study, are described as the relational characteristics, or patterns, that occur between supervisor and supervisee. Intrapersonal characteristics refers to the characteristics of the self, such as coping skills, stress, or attachment style. Based on the literature, these sections were chosen as a way to categorize research findings.

Interpersonal Characteristics. The supervisory working alliance is characterized by the collaboration between supervisor and supervisee. Therefore, the nature of the interpersonal interactions that occur in supervision contribute to the strength of the working alliance. Chen and Bernstein (2000) conducted a study on the complementarity of the supervisor – supervisee dyad. A complementary relationship, as described by the authors, includes two individuals, where one is in a superior position that initiates discussion, activities, or actions. The purpose of Chen and Bernstein's (2000) quantitative study was to consider complementary communication within the dyad and its effects on the working alliance. The instruments used in this study included the following: a demographic sheet; the SSI; The Critical Incidents Questionnaire (CIQ); and the Supervisory Issues Questionnaire (SIQ). The CIQ contains three questions related to critical incidents in supervision. The responses are then categorized into 1 of 10 supervisory issues. For this study, Chen and Bernstein (2000) developed the Supervisory Issues Questionnaire (SIQ) which asked the participant to rate the level of importance of the 10 supervisory issues associated with the CIQ. The participants of this study include 10 supervision dyads in which the supervisee was enrolled in counseling practicum. Participants noted that the issues of *confidence, emotional awareness, supervisory relationship,* and *purpose and direction* were the most critical incidents. In addition, *personal issues* was identified as critical only in dyads with a less effective working alliance. Chen and Bernstein (2000) suggested that a supervisor's overemphasis on a supervisee's personal issues with little attention being paid to the supervisory relationship can result in a weak working alliance. A complementary dyad, according to the authors, occurred when the supervisee's needs were recognized, addressed, and accepted within the dyad.

Interpersonal interactions can also contribute to how supervisors or supervisees perceive their role in supervision. Quarto (2003) studied perceptions of control and conflict within

supervision. He indicated that, when there is disagreement between supervisor and supervisee on their respective roles in supervision, a relational conflict can occur. For instance, when a supervisor who favors structure is paired with an inherently controlling supervisee, conflict can occur that inhibits the development of a strong working alliance. In his quantitative study, 72 supervisees and 74 supervisors were given packets that included the Supervision Interaction Questionnaire (SIQ) and the SWAI. Results of the study indicated both supervisors and supervisees agreed that there were times where the supervisor should control what happens in session. Supervisees perceived themselves as having an element of control in session, which suggests they believe their role in supervision is an important component of successful supervision (Quarto, 2003). Feeling some level of control appears to be important in the supervisory relationship.

The demands placed on supervisors and supervisees are complex and can be hard to balance in supervision. Gard and Lewis (2008) noted that supervisees are constantly aware they are being evaluated while also learning to manage the traditional expectations of counseling. Similarly, they noted that supervisors are aware of the evaluation component while also paying attention to the supervisory relationship and working to maintain a safe learning environment. Through case examples, Gard and Lewis (2008) provided suggestions for supervisors working to preserve the supervisory relationship. One suggestion offered was for supervisors to minimize the power differential within the relationship by using self-disclosure about their own practice. This serves to facilitate a compassionate environment and ease any misconceptions supervisees have regarding their clinical abilities. Another suggestion included fostering an environment of exploration during supervision by helping supervisees explore their own feelings towards their clients and validating these feelings as a meaningful part of the experience. Gard and Lewis

(2008) reported that developing a collaborative and compassionate supervisory environment helps supervisees develop more self-confidence and independence, as well as a stronger supervisory relationship.

In an article that further highlights the complexities of the supervisory relationship, Karpenko and Gidycz (2012) discussed how the quality of the relationship affects supervisor evaluations. When a supervisor feels confident in the supervisory relationship, there tends to be more confidence in the evaluation given. In contrast, weak supervisory relationships can create doubt in supervisor evaluations due to the lack of trust within the dyad. They provided a list of four factors that can contribute to a weak relationship: "supervisee factors, supervisor factors, a mismatch between a supervisee and a supervisor, and interaction of the first three factors" (p. 149). Karpenko and Gidycz (2012) offered recommendations for evaluation within a weak supervisory relationship. First, supervisors should explore conflict with the supervisee as it arises. This allows supervisors to assess supervisees' willingness to participate as well as their ability to acknowledge interpersonal issues. Second, supervisors should also consider their own expectations for supervision when challenges arise. A willingness to examine these expectations allows supervisors to decide if they are being developmentally appropriate for the supervisee. Lastly, supervisors should consistently be aware of any negative feelings towards the supervisee and if that is affecting their evaluation. Within supervision, individual differences can impact how the supervisor and supervisee interacts as well as the way in which supervisors evaluate supervisees.

Similar to how individual characteristics impact the supervisory relationship, the individual styles of supervisors also impact how supervisees perceive the supervisory relationship. Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) conducted a quantitative study on different

supervisory styles and how they related to supervisees' satisfaction with supervision and their perceived self-efficacy. Participants included 82 master's level counseling students enrolled in internship. The instruments used included the following: the SSI, the SSQ, and the Counseling Self -Estimate Inventory (COSE), which measures supervisee-perceived self-efficacy. Results indicated that the interpersonally sensitive supervisory style was the only statistically significant variable that predicted supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The task-oriented supervisory style was the only significant predictor of perceived self-efficacy. Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) also noted that 53% of the variance of supervisee satisfaction was attributed to a combination of the three different styles. Based on the results of the study, the authors noted that supervisors need to be aware of their supervisory style and how it can affect the supervisory relationship while being open to incorporating aspects of other styles in supervision. The authors also noted that previous research found that supervisees have certain expectations for supervision, and if supervisees do not feel their supervisor is meeting those expectations, they can feel less satisfied with their supervisory experience. Supervisory style can have a significant impact on the supervisory working alliance.

Given the uniquely different interpersonal styles and characteristics of supervisors and supervisees, an opportunity for negative, or counterproductive, events exists that may affect the relationship. In their research on counterproductive events in supervision, Ladany, Walker, and Melincoff (2001) conducted a mixed methods study with 13 graduate-level supervisees. They posited that good supervision includes a reduction in anxiety, feelings of non-judgment, supportiveness, task orientation, and confidence bolstering, while negative supervision was characterized as demeaning, inattentive, unsupportive, and disempowering. The measures used included a qualitative interview and the SSQ. Results indicated that supervisees identified

counterproductive events as those where the supervisor was dismissive, unsupportive, lacking empathy, unprepared, or unaware of the supervisee's feelings. The supervisees reported these events as damaging to the supervisory relationship, with some even indicating permanent damage to the relationship. Ladany et al. (2001) suggested that supervisees might perceive the influence of counterproductive events differently than supervisors. Having an awareness that these counterproductive events are inherent in supervision can help the supervisor be more alert to the occurrences and prompt them to work through them in order to preserve the relationship.

Interpersonal characteristics, research suggests, have an effect on the supervisory working alliance. Some of the characteristics highlighted in this section include supervisor-supervisee complementarity, role conflict and ambiguity, supervisory style, and negative supervisory events. Each of these directly affect the strength of the supervisory relationship. The next section will discuss intrapersonal characteristics that also have an effect on the supervisory working alliance.

Intrapersonal Characteristics. Just like interpersonal characteristics, intrapersonal characteristics can also have an impact on the supervisory relationship. In a study that examined individual characteristics of supervisees, Gnilka, Chang, and Dew (2012) explored relationships between coping resources, counseling working alliance, the supervisory working alliance, and perceived stress levels of supervisees. Participants of this quantitative study included 232 master's-level supervisees currently enrolled in either practicum or internship. Instruments used in this study included a demographic sheet; the Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S), which measures the working alliance between counselor and client; the SWAI; the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), which measures the supervisee's perception of their stress; and the Coping Resources Inventory for Stress Short Form (CRIS-S), which measures self-perception of coping

abilities. Results indicated that supervisee-perceived stress was related to a negative working alliance for both clients and supervisors. Supervisees with reportedly healthy coping resources, such as a sense of ownership, situational control during supervision, and emotional control, however, correlated with strong, or more positive, working alliances. Similarly, supervisees with family support reported a strong working alliance. The authors suggested that supervisors should monitor supervisees' perceived stress levels and their coping abilities throughout supervision as a way to enhance client outcomes as well as the supervisory working alliance.

White and Queener (2003) conducted a study on the individual characteristics of supervisors and supervisees and how they relate to their perceptions of the supervisory working alliance. The individual characteristics studied included social provisions (an established support system) and attachment style (based on Bowlby's theory; the ability to form healthy relationships with others). White and Queener (2003) hypothesized these characteristics played an important role in the perceived quality of the supervisory working alliance. The participants of this study included 67 supervisees and 67 supervisors. The instruments used were the SWAI, the Social Provisions Scale (SPS), and the Adult Attachment Scale (AAS). Findings indicated that supervisee social provisions and attachment style were not predictors of supervisee or supervisor perceptions of the working alliance. Similarly, the social provisions of supervisors did not predict supervisor or supervisee perceptions of the working alliance. Supervisor's attachment style, however, was a predictor for both supervisor and supervisee perceptions. White and Queener (2003) suggested that supervisors be aware of their own relational dynamics and how they may affect the supervisory relationship. This study indicated that individual characteristics and attachment style of the supervisor may have more effect on the supervisory relationship than characteristics of the supervisee.

Another study on attachment style and the supervisory relationship was conducted by Riggs and Bretz (2006). In this study, the authors examined how supervisor and supervisee attachment style, more specifically their childhood attachment experiences, was associated to supervision tasks and bonding. Participants included 80 supervisees from various clinical backgrounds. Instruments used in this study included the Memory of Parental Styles (MOPS), Reciprocal Attachment Questionnaire (RAQ), and Working Alliance Inventory (WAI). Results indicated that supervisee attachment style was not directly related to one specific aspect of supervision, but rather to the overall quality of the relationship. Supervisors, however, who were perceived by their supervisees as having a secure attachment style, were rated higher, indicating there was a stronger bond in the relationship and supervisees were more satisfied with supervision. The bond created between supervisor and supervisee is important to the perception of satisfaction with supervision.

In a study conducted by Gunn and Pistole (2012), the attachment style of supervisees did serve as a predictor of the supervisory alliance. In this mixed methods study, the authors explored supervisee attachment styles and how they related to the working alliance, and supervisee disclosure within supervision. Participants for this study included 480 counseling students who were asked to fill out an electronic survey based on their “most important" (p. 233) supervisor. The “most important” supervisor was described as the supervisor, past or present, who had the most impact on their professional counseling development. Instruments used for this study included the following: Experiences in Supervision Scale (ESS), which measured attachment security of supervisees; the SWAI; and the Disclosure in Supervision Scale (DSS), which measured the willingness of supervisees to disclose information related to their supervisory or counseling relationships. Results of the study indicated that supervisees with

secure attachment styles demonstrated perceived satisfaction and rapport with their supervisors. Secure attachment also predicted client focus, which suggested that supervisees viewed their supervisors as being helpful so they disclosed more to their supervisors. Gunn and Pistole (2012) suggested that supervisors should take into account attachment styles as they are planning supervisory interventions. The attachment styles of supervisees may play a part in the formation of the supervisory working alliance.

Intrapersonal characteristics, as described in this section, also have an effect on the supervisory working alliance, though characteristics of supervisors seem to be more salient. These characteristics include attachment style and social support. Supervisee attachment style and self-disclosure in supervision, as well as their perceived stress levels and coping skills were also related to the strength of the supervisory relationship.

Theories, models, and principles are continually being developed for how to conduct supervision and facilitate the supervisory relationship. Given the complexities of supervision and of the supervisory relationship, researchers continue to search for certain aspects that can be identified as relevant to facilitating successful supervision. Bordin's (1983) model of the working alliance continues to be a model researchers are using in their studies. In the section above, inter- and intra- personal characteristics that affect the relationship were discussed. What is missing from recent literature is how the characteristics of supervisory style and perceptions of the working alliance influence satisfaction with the relationship. More specifically, there is a lack of research focused on comparing practicum level supervisees engaged in either FtF or cyber-supervision.

Cybersupervision

Computer technology has greatly increased over the past few decades in counselor preparation programs, bringing with it numerous ways in which counseling supervision can be delivered. Watson (2003) coined the term *cybersupervision*, which describes the use of videoconferencing as a way to deliver supervision. The next section describes the history of how technology has developed in counselor education.

History

Technological advances in counselor preparation are rapidly growing, and yet the notion of employing technology in the delivery of clinical supervision is relatively new. With the abundance of new online tools being made available so quickly, the literature suggests an ever-growing need for reviews of different technologies, practical guides, and evidence-based studies. The following section will review technology as it has developed in the use of counselor supervision, evidentiary studies on the use of technology, and what cybersupervision looks like today.

Types of Technology. Providing supervision to supervisees in different geographical locations has proved challenging throughout history. Wetchler, et al. (1993) offered one of the first ways to broach this geographical gap. They suggested mailing a videotape of the supervisee's session to the supervisor and then discussing it over the telephone. Wetchler et al. (1993) developed a seven step process for using this technique effectively. In the first step, the supervisor and supervisee should have an initial telephone call, prior to the first session, in which they discuss clinical experiences, theoretical orientations, and any personal information in order to begin building a supervisory relationship. In the second step, supervisees videotape their session and note relevant sections they would like the supervisor to particularly review. The third

step requires the counselor to mail the videotape to the supervisor with detailed case notes and specific times of the video that the supervisor should review. In the fourth step, the supervisor reviews the videotape and makes notes regarding the counselor's skills, abilities, and the case. In step five the counselor and supervisor engage in a telephone call in which the supervisor provides feedback. Steps six and seven, respectively, indicate that the supervisor and supervisee formally plan for the next session and the supervisee records and mails a videotape to the supervisor prior to the next scheduled session. Wetchler et al. (1993) described potential benefits as well as problems with using this approach. Benefits included bridging the geographical gap of supervisors and supervisees, more efficient use of time when speaking over the phone, and similar supervisee skill development to face-to-face supervision. Problems to utilizing this approach included the inability to pick up on perceptual cues and nonverbal behavior over the phone, more time-consuming than face-to-face supervision, and time between sessions may be longer due to having to mail the tapes. This study marked one of the first ways of utilizing technology to bridge the geographical gap in counselor supervision, which allowed for a more diverse pool of internship sites as well as access to more supervisors for supervisees.

Utilizing more advanced technologies than the telephone, Casey (1994) discussed applying technology to live and delayed supervision. In live supervision, the supervisor and counselor are both equipped with computers that allow for sending and receiving messages during the session. Casey (1994) suggested the use of technology such as *personal digital assistants,* (PDAs) as a less intrusive option to having desktop computers during a live supervision session. They reported that the PDAs could simplify supervision tasks such as providing internet connectivity for database journal searches, faxes, and retrieval and printing of documents. PDAs were only one form of technology reviewed in this article, however, as options

became available, more reviews, research, and suggestions for implementing them in supervision became prevalent.

As an effort to inform readers on other available technological means, Olson, Russell, and White (2001) provided an overview of using technology in supervision along with the added benefits of using this format. The mediums the authors discussed that were beneficial included email, videoconferencing, WebTV, and computer-mediated supervision. Some of the benefits addressed included improved access to services, availability and ease of access, availability of experts in certain fields to provide guidance without travel, and cost-reduction of supervision. This overview of available technologies aimed to inform counselor educators and supervisors of innovative methods that can be used as an alternative to the traditional FtF delivery of supervision.

Adding to this topic, Myrick and Sabella (1995) wrote about the advantages and disadvantages of using asynchronous e-mail format in supervision. They provided a rationale that suggested utilizing e-mail as a means for communicating with supervisors presented a timely alternative to the traditional FtF supervision sessions. After providing case examples in which school counselors used e-mail to seek guidance for situations in their internship, Myrick and Sabella (1995) discussed advantages and disadvantages of utilizing e-mail in supervision. The advantages were as follows: 1) it can take place anywhere, geographically speaking, 2) more frequent communication created a closer bond between participants, 3) having written communication was more beneficial than remembering words, and can be saved, printed, and distributed to teachers, and 4) it was easy to use when scheduling meetings or posting reminders. The limitations to using e-mail in supervision were fewer in number, with loss of non-verbals, pertinent information that was not included, and a lack of typing proficiency being the main

reasons why students were hesitant in utilizing this technology. This article provided potential benefits, as well as limitations, to implementing technology into the delivery of supervision.

Issues when using technology. Increasing use of technology in counselor training brings with it an increased need for technological competence. Myers and Gibson (1999) studied counselor educator and student competence in using technology. They developed a survey based on 12 technology competencies for students created by the Technology Interest Network of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, and enlisted participants through a professional listserv. They had 92 respondents, of which 62 were counselor educators, 22 were students, 13 were professional counselors, and seven were supervisors. The lowest reported competencies were for computerized testing, knowledge of web counseling, and using computerized statistical packages. Of the respondents, only three indicated that technology competence was expected in their counselor training program. Myers and Gibson (1999) recommended that more research was needed to create a baseline for designing programs infused with technology. Additionally, they indicated that counselor educators may need additional training in technology as programs and advancements develop. Based on the research, it appears that technology is becoming more relevant and available in counselor training, and programs have a responsibility to embrace this new concept in order for it to be used effectively.

Implementing technology into counselor training is not without its concerns. Kanz (2001) discussed potential ethical issues with technology in supervision indicating confidentiality, and with it informed consent, being the most obvious. He pointed out that email is not private and the more data is circulated, the greater the risk of confidential information being leaked or disclosed. He provided some recommendations regarding security and online interactions. His first suggestion is to utilize encryption software in order to maintain the information's integrity. He

also reported on the development of virtual private networks, or VPN's, which allow users to communicate securely over a private network. He specified that clients should have a clear understanding that supervision will be taking place online and that confidentiality is not guaranteed.

As is revealed by the articles reviewed so far, technology has been a fast-growing and ever-changing part of counselor supervision since its inception. This leads to more questions regarding clinical and ethical concerns. Vaccaro and Lambie (2007) suggested some practical implications for counselor training programs to safeguard against clinical and ethical concerns. Not yet having an established national standard for computer-based supervision, they encouraged programs to create their own standards to which they adhere. They also suggested having a specific protocol with which to manage crisis situations as they occur in supervision. Vaccaro and Lambie (2007) also reported the importance of offering training for both supervisors and supervisees in order to enhance technological competence.

Conn, Roberts, and Powell (2009) produced further evidence displaying the importance of technological competence. They conducted a study in which school counseling students enrolled in internship received either FtF or hybrid supervision, which included e-mail or chat rooms as part of their supervision experience. Utilizing the Web-Based Distance Group Satisfaction Survey, participants were surveyed three times throughout the semester. Results of this study indicated that positive attitudes regarding technology in supervision were correlated with a perceived technological competence. Conn et al. (2009) suggested that, as a result of the study, it is important to hold a practice session prior to the first supervision meeting and also to have technological support in place in case problems arise during session.

The use of technology in supervision continues to grow, and with it, has shown both positive and negative aspects of its use. As described in the above section, legal and ethical concerns as well as technological competence are some important aspects to consider when using technology in supervision. Literature suggests that being intentional and aware of the information that is provided electronically, along with having safeguards in place, can help to reduce these legal and ethical concerns, though it seems consistent that training in the use of technology in supervision is important for successful implementation.

Cybersupervision Development

As a more secure form of online supervision than e-mail or chatrooms, Watson (2003) provided an overview of using videoconferencing, known as cybersupervision. The safeguard against possible confidentiality breaches offered by cybersupervision is the added ability to meet and interact face to face using computers and web cameras, which decrease the need for written feedback that is more susceptible to privacy breaches. Some advantages to cybersupervision included the ability to watch recorded sessions and offer instant feedback. This can promote a richer supervision experience and possibly provide more clarification for supervisors when supervisees pose difficult conceptual questions. It also has the added capacity for participants to share written or voice messages with other individuals for the entire group. Watson (2003) indicated that, utilizing an audiovisual format, supervisors are able to better gauge supervisees concerns as well as be more aware of nonverbal or perceptual cues as compared to other mediums.

Coursol (2004) provided a recommended course of action when using cybersupervision. She surmised that utilizing this technology enhances the supervisory process as it allows for more flexibility when meeting with supervisors and peers that are spread out geographically.

Adding the use of video allows students, teachers, and supervisors access to the classroom and supervision session. Cybersupervision can be used for individual and group supervision, consultation and case management. Coursol (2004) suggested this technology works most efficiently when counselors and educators are trained in the technology. She suggested that students practice installing the hardware or software and engage in a simulation of a supervision session prior to their first actual session. Additionally, counseling programs can develop a handout with instructions and FAQs that can be distributed to site supervisors informing them of this method of supervision. Given the uniquely new method of cybersupervision, this article provided a conceptual way to implement web conferencing into counselor training.

The technical aspect of cybersupervision was addressed by Abass et.al (2011), who developed a practical guide for development and implementation of this technology into counselor supervision. In this guide, the authors offered logistical issues that may come along with utilizing technology in supervision. These issues mainly centered around technological issues such as audio or video delays. The authors also offered guidance on recording sessions, selecting software to use for the web conference, technical support issues, as well as how to share video files (Abbas et al., 2011). This ‘how-to’ guide demonstrates the need for more training and opportunities for counselor educators to learn about the available mediums and requirements needed to successfully implement these into supervision.

Technological competence and perceived satisfaction with cybersupervision were also explored in another study. Chapman, Baker, Nassar-McMillan, and Gerler (2011) studied the use of asynchronous formats used in cybersupervision and the attitudes towards the technology as well as confidence in utilizing it. Asynchronous supervision utilizes technology that provides a medium for delayed responses (i.e. e-mail, discussion boards, etc.) from the supervisor and

supervisee. Participants in this quantitative study were master's level counseling supervisees enrolled in practicum, and their doctoral level university supervisor. Participants chose whether they wanted to receive online or FtF supervision with five supervisees choosing to receive the online format. Results indicated that there was no significant difference between the groups regarding the level of satisfaction in supervision. Furthermore, the participants receiving online felt that they had increased their confidence and competence in technology by the end of the semester. Results for the FtF group were not stated in the article. Chapman et al. (2011) surmised that, since students were able to choose their method of supervision, this may have contributed to their levels of satisfaction.

Given the many and varied formats of technology as well as ways to use them in supervision, a need for further examination of regulations regarding the counseling professions progress in infusing technology into training programs exists. McAdams and Wyatt (2010) conducted a study examining state regulations of cybersupervision. This mixed–methods study identified states in which technology-assisted distance practice was being formally regulated by counseling state boards. A descriptive analysis of the state board of counseling websites was conducted as well as telephone interviews with 46 representatives of 46 different state boards. Results showed that only 13% of state boards had formal regulations for cybersupervision. Views regarding independent regulation of cybersupervision varied, with 80% of participants favoring a higher level of independent regulation stating that cybersupervision is a specialty area. One major concern of all participants was the concept of *legal accountability* and the difficulty in determining when and if the issue was occurring (McAdams & Wyatt, 2010). One example given of legal accountability was when supervisors in one state were supervising counselor

trainees in a different state. This could become an issue when the differing states have different rules regarding cybersupervision.

Technology is new to counseling supervision, however, it provides unique and exciting ways to enhance the delivery of supervision. Supervisees are able to choose more diverse practicum sites without having to sacrifice quality supervision due to this implementation of technology. With this increased use of technology, however, come questions regarding ethical, legal, and practical applications. Research results suggest the formats being made available are becoming more sophisticated which addresses some ethical concerns. Similarly, the counseling profession as a whole is embracing technology in supervision by recognizing and addressing it through formal regulations. Another implication to consider when applying technology to the field of counselor supervision is how the supervisory relationship forms and is maintained online. This concern is only beginning to be explored. The following section explores literature related to online supervision and the supervisory relationship.

The Supervisory Relationship in Cybersupervision

The supervisory relationship has been deemed the most important factor of successful supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). Many studies have been devoted to examining the make-up of successful relationships and evidence shows that relational dynamics, inter- and intra- personal characteristics, and developmental level are related to the supervisory relationship. This section will explore the supervisory relationship in cybersupervision.

Relationships in cyberspace and in-person relationships tend to differ. Kanz (2001) reported that small details that are evident in FtF interactions can be absent in cybersupervision. For instance, verbal and physical cues may go unnoticed by the supervisor in cybersupervision, which could make rapport building more difficult. Similarly, parallel process may not be as

evident, nor transference or countertransference. Because of these concerns, Kanz (2001) suggested that the supervisory relationship be established prior to the beginning of cybersupervision. He recommended ways to build the relationship such as frequent and direct communication regarding the supervisory relationship, a plan for contacting the supervisor if a crisis were to arise, and creating an explicit set of rules specific to cybersupervision outlining informed consent, confidentiality, contact information, and a schedule of meeting times. Having a purposeful plan prior to the start of supervision can enhance the supervisory relationship.

Similarly, Sorlie, Gammon, Bergvik, and Sexton (1999) examined the perceptions of online supervision with participants that had already established a strong supervisory relationship. Participants in this study included six supervision pairs – six trainees and two supervisors. FtF and cybersupervision sessions were alternated among the dyads resulting in each pair having 10 sessions. The instruments used were questionnaires developed and validated in particular for this study. Sorlie et al. (1999) found no statistically significant difference among the supervisor's experiences between the two conditions; however, the supervisee's experiences of frustration or unpleasant feelings in cybersupervision was much higher than in FtF sessions. In a qualitative interview conducted at the end of the study, participants indicated nightmares or feelings of anxiety regarding using the technology, as well as feelings of vulnerability in the relationship. Sorlie and colleagues noted that these feelings tended to subside after the initial sessions. Recommendations were given such as supervisors being proactive in helping supervisees reflect upon their reactions in supervision. Additionally, supervisors and supervisees should be aware of their compatibility with using technological mediums as a means of engaging in supervision.

In addition to having a relationship established prior to the beginning of supervision, some technological formats have also proven successful in enhancing the working alliance. In a study by Clingerman and Bernard (2004) on the use of email as supplementary communication in clinical supervision, it was suggested that email encourages a stronger supervisory relationship. In their qualitative study, practicum students were instructed to send emails to their instructor each week regarding practicum. They were given no specific topic but only told to share what was on their mind. Through a thematic analysis, the results indicated that a majority of the emails contained personal reflections regarding their counseling experiences. Clingerman and Bernard (2004) suggested that supplemental use of email enhanced student's supervision experience as opposed to only FtF supervision. They indicated, however, that there was no control group in the study so results could only be inferred. This study suggests that utilizing technology, by allowing students freedom to communicate their present thoughts or needs, can provide an increased level of satisfaction with supervision.

In a similar study regarding satisfaction of counseling supervision, Conn, Roberts, and Powell (2009) studied school counseling students in their first semester of internship. Participants were divided into two groups with one group receiving FtF supervision and the other receiving a hybrid form of supervision. This hybrid form of supervision included FtF, email, and a chat room for the supervisees and supervisor to utilize. Using the SWAI, The Supervision Questionnaire, and The Web-based Distance Group Satisfaction Survey, data were collected over a three-year period. The results suggested that the group receiving the hybrid model of supervision had more positive attitudes towards technology, the supervision experience, and using technology in their practice in the future then the participants receiving FtF supervision.

Technological competence seems to be an important variable in the level of satisfaction among supervisees.

In another study in which technological competence seemed to play an important role in the outcome, Rees and Stone (2005) compared the perceptions of the supervisory relationship as it appears in FtF and video-conferenced counseling. With a virtually identical counseling session being conducted FtF and then again utilizing videoconferencing, the authors surveyed 30 psychologists using the Penn Helping Alliance Rating Scale (HAr). The HAr is an instrument used to conceptualize therapeutic alliance. It measures two different constructs. Type I alliance measures the client's perception of the therapist in terms of being warm and supportive. Type II alliance measures how collaborative the client and therapist are working together in therapy. After dividing the participants into two groups, Rees and Stone (2005) had one group watch the FtF session and the other group watch the videoconference session. Results indicated that the videoconferencing group had significantly lower scores on the Type I alliance than the FtF session. There was no significant difference between the two groups regarding the Type II alliance. Rees and Stone (2005) suggested that one's ability to judge the therapeutic alliance in videoconferencing could be based on having experience with utilizing videoconferencing. The authors noted that the participants in this study had no experience with videoconferencing technology. Rees and Stone (2005) explained that utilizing technology can drastically alter the kind of communication that normally occurs in a FtF setting, making the process very different. Though the process was different, the authors noted, the outcome was the same. They suggested that professionals, inevitably, should begin to adjust to the notion of technology in counseling by educating themselves on the current literature as well as seeking training to become more comfortable with using technology.

In a similar study in which FtF was the typical method of supervision, Coker, Staples, and Harbach (2002) conducted two studies on the effectiveness of utilizing online supervision with practicum students. In the first study, eight practicum students conducted two online interpretations of a career interest inventory with their clients. Each participant engaged in two supervisory sessions, one with text - chat and one with text -chat and video. After each session, the participants completed the SWAI. Results indicated that the difference in perception of the quality of supervision between the two sessions was not statistically significant. In their second study, Coker et al. (2002) compared online and FtF supervision. Participants were five practicum students who each engaged in two supervisory sessions – one online and one FtF. Participants again completed the SWAI and results indicated that perceptions of the quality of supervision between the two sessions were not statistically significant. It was noted, however, that the online sessions received a much lower overall rating as the preferred supervision technique. The authors indicated that FtF supervision is still preferred but online may provide a reasonable alternative to supervision.

Nelson, Nichter, and Henriksen (2010) provided suggestions to increasing satisfaction with online supervision based on the results of their study. They conducted a mixed methods study investigating the similarities and differences experienced by supervisees in internship. The participants were six graduate students; three students met face to face in a classroom setting, and three students met online to receive supervision. The Group Supervision Scale was revised and used to assess student’s feelings regarding their experiences in supervision. Utilizing a phenomenological approach, Nelson et al. (2010) also conducted a focus group in order to gain a better understanding of the students’ experiences. Results of the survey indicated no significant difference between the two groups regarding satisfaction of their supervisory experience.

Analysis of the focus groups suggested that responses between the two groups also were similar. Nelson and colleagues implied that, when students are able to choose their method of engaging in supervision, they were more satisfied with the experience. Recommendations included giving students a choice regarding format of class and supervision, having a backup plan for technology failures, having a working relationship prior to the online experience, demonstrating consistent expectations for students, regardless of format, and providing a technological assessment prior to enrolling in an online course or supervision.

Similar literature suggests that planning and preparation is crucial to building a strong supervisory relationship. Abass et al. (2011) inferred that strong working alliances can develop using cybersupervision as long as users are purposeful. The authors reported that time and dedication are needed to process the structure of supervision, but that given the format, nuances can be noticed and clarification received as long as both parties are willing. They instructed supervisors to be comfortable with the structure of supervision and be actively engaged in session in order to develop the supervisory relationship. Technology and its usage is becoming more applicable to counselor training, and therefore the ability to develop strong working alliances in cyberspace is also improving.

In a recent study, Rousmaniere and Frederickson (2013) reported that the ability, or lack thereof, to develop a strong working alliance is no longer because of technology. They made the case for utilizing Remote Live Supervision (RLS) to enhance the supervisory working alliance. They reported that a recent nationwide poll of counselor trainees indicated that 51% of participants had directly engaged in live supervision at some point in their training. The authors noted that live supervision can promote a “team – like atmosphere" (p. 41) where they are working together to help the client. Rousmaniere and Frederickson (2013) claimed that

videoconferencing is the greatest development in clinical supervision over the past decade, while also noting concerns indicated in the literature. Concerns the authors noted were the subtle nuances and nonverbals that can be missed when using technology in supervision, and concerns if technology could exacerbate differences between participants such as race gender or culture. The authors proposed that the quality of the working alliance is fostered more by the level of attentiveness and guidance of the supervisor then of the format used to deliver supervision.

As displayed in the literature, technology in counseling supervision is becoming more commonplace. The research to date, however, has consisted of small quantitative studies with even fewer qualitative studies. Additionally, no research was found that specifically addresses supervisory style, supervisory working alliance, and satisfaction with supervision. Because the importance of the supervisory relationship is clear, more robust studies on the effects of technology on the supervisory relationship are needed. As described in the next section, this is especially true for early stage counselors, who are just developing as a clinician.

Integrated Developmental Model of Supervision

Developmental models of supervision began their growth in the 1980s. Most, however, were short-lived with only a few withstanding and still in use (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). The Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg, 1981) is one of the most widely used developmental models in existence today. This section will explore the history of IDM and how it relates to the supervisory relationship. Special attention will be given to Level 1 supervisees because the participants of this study are characterized as Level 1, or early stage counselors.

History of the IDM

Based on Hogan's (1964) model of supervision and Hunt's (1971) Conceptual Systems Theory, Stoltenberg (1981) developed the Counselor Complexity Model, focusing on the specific

needs of supervisees in different developmental stages. Hogan (1964) originally developed a model that explained the development of supervisees from the beginning of their training to the point in which they are considered as having mastered the art of counseling and formal supervision is no longer needed. Using this four-stage model, Stoltenberg (1981) then integrated Hunt's (1971) Conceptual Systems Theory, which describes the "different cognitive and personality stages of students, with an additional focus on the training of teachers" (Stoltenberg, 1981, p. 59). The resulting Counselor Complexity Model categorized supervisees based on their clinical experience, from Level 1 supervisees having little to no experience, to Level 4 supervisees who are advanced clinicians with extensive counseling experience. Stoltenberg (1981) indicated that there is no time limit for how long a supervisee stays in one level and that it would ultimately take years of professional experience for counselors to reach Level 4.

Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) then began building upon the Counselor Complexity Model to develop a more research-based developmental model that addressed supervisee differences, interpersonal influence, and evaluation. They called this model the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM). They kept the four-level model, though changing Level 4 to Level 3i (integrated), and added three overarching constructs that are meant to signify progress in different areas, or domains, of professional activity. The three constructs include *motivation, self- and other- awareness,* and *autonomy.* The eight different categories, or domains, of professional development are as follows: "Intervention skills competence, assessment techniques, interpersonal assessment, client conceptualization, individual differences, theoretical orientation, treatment goals and plans, and professional ethics" (Stoltenberg and Delworth, 1987, p. 36). Progress through the different developmental levels are characterized by shifts in the three constructs. See Table 3.1 below that outlines the characteristics of supervisees in each level

along with the corresponding characteristics for the constructs as described by Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987).

Level 1 supervisees tend to be insecure in their clinical skills and abilities and desire guidance and direction from their supervisors. They have limited experience across most of the professional activity domains and their knowledge is usually based on their coursework in skills and theory (Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998). In addition, their focus remains on their abilities to apply skills or interventions in the correct way. Stoltenberg et al. (1998) described these supervisees as having a "simplistic understanding of complex constructs and processes" (p.34) as they tend to relate information gained through their coursework to their own personal experiences, limiting their view of systemic influences. They are excited to begin their journey and are very fixated on themselves and how they are to correctly carry out therapeutic interventions in session. They often adopt the style of their supervisor and imitate this style in session with clients. In addition, their awareness of evaluation by the supervisor produces anxiety and often inhibits their ability to perform adequately with clients. Level 1 supervisees have unique needs and characteristics that set them apart from more seasoned clinicians.

The IDM has been revised several times throughout the years (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2010; Stoltenberg et al., 1998) though the characteristics of the Level 1 supervisee have remained consistent. The section below will detail research that supports the use of the IDM.

Support for IDM

Evidentiary support for the Stoltenberg and Delworth's (1987) IDM exists. With regards to supervisory style, behaviors, and influence, Heppner and Roehlke (1984) conducted a two-year study on the differences between developmental levels of supervisees. Their study found that interpersonal influence and supervisory behaviors differed based on developmental level,

providing support for the IDM in that supervisees needs change as they develop. McNeil, Stoltenberg, and Pierce (1985) completed a study on supervisees' perceptions of their own clinical and supervisory behaviors. Using the Supervisee Levels Questionnaire (SLQ) they found that, as supervisee experience levels increased, their self-perceived behaviors were categorized on more advanced developmental levels indicating that experience is related to supervisory and counseling behaviors in supervision. Tryon (1996) also used the SLQ to identify the existence of the "dependency-autonomy conflict" (Stoltenberg, 1981, p.62) in Level 2 supervisees. His results supported this conflict as the progress supervisees made in the three constructs of IDM, (i.e., motivation, self- other- awareness, and autonomy) ebbed and flowed throughout the semester. The research outlined above provides support for how the IDM describes supervisee behaviors and needs, and how supervisors influence the development of supervisees in different developmental levels.

Other studies focused on examining IDM and the supervisory relationship. Wiley and Ray (1986) used the Supervision Levels Scale (SLS) to determine if supervisee developmental levels and the environment in which supervision is conducted was a predictor of satisfaction among supervisees. The participating supervisors reported modifying their delivery of supervision to meet the developmental needs of their supervisees. They concluded that levels of satisfaction were generally high across all developmental levels of supervisees. In a similar study that examined perceived satisfaction with the supervisory relationship, Krause and Allen (1988) examined how supervisors and supervisees views of the supervisees' development impacted the relationship. Their results indicated that, when supervisees and supervisors were in agreement about the supervisee's level of development, the satisfaction scores were higher than when their

opinions differed. Most of the support for the IDM comes from research conducted in the 1980s and 1990s though more recent, indirect studies have been conducted since 2000.

Table 3.1 IDM Levels

Level of Development	**Motivation**	**Self-other Awareness**	**Autonomy**
Level 1- Supervisees have limited clinical experience or training	High - excited to begin their clinical experience; focus is on performing skills correctly	Self-focused with little self-awareness; anxiety is high due to fear of evaluation	Little autonomy and desires guidance/direction from supervisor; imitative of supervisor
Level 2- Supervisees are attempting to define themselves as a counselor but are still dependent upon the supervisor	Inconsistent shifts from feelings of confidence to self-doubt and confusion	Developing the ability to empathize with client, but feelings of conflict regarding their own abilities creates challenges	"dependency- autonomy conflict" (Stoltenberg, 1981, p.62)- gaining independence but still dependent on supervisor
Level 3- Supervisees are more confident in their clinical skills and abilities and have a better sense of their counseling identity	Steady - still have doubts but are able to process through them	Self-aware- able to focus on the client while recognizing their personal issues as they arise	Highly dependent- supervisee can practice on their own and the need for supervision is more consultative
Level 3i- These supervisees have reached Level 3 across varying domains of professional practice. They are able to integrate domains and move effortlessly across them in their own personal approach to counseling. **In the Counselor Complexity Model, these supervisees are in Level 4 and referred to as master counselors.			

(adapted from Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987)

Level 1 Supervisees and the Supervisory Relationship

Some studies focus specifically on Level 1 supervisees and the supervisory relationship, but do not directly relate to the IDM. For instance, Quarto (2002) studied how the supervision environment affected the working alliance. He suggested that, if supervisors and supervisees are in agreement regarding the supervisee's developmental level, then expectations will align and there will be less conflict in the relationship. If there is a disagreement regarding development, conflict can occur that damages the working alliance. Participants in Quarto's study were practicum level supervisees and their respective supervisors. Results indicated that the more disagreement that existed regarding supervisee developmental level and the supervision process the weaker the working alliance was compared to those that agreed on the developmental level. Fewer conflicts in the relationship can also ease anxiety and promote autonomy in supervisees. Relatedly, Gard and Lewis (2008) noted the anxiety felt by supervisees regarding evaluation in supervision and suggested that supervisors work to create a compassionate and collaborative relationship with the supervisees. This relationship, the authors noted, provides a safe environment for supervisees to explore their own thoughts and feelings regarding their competence and confidence, as well as the supervisory relationship. Providing supervisees with a developmentally appropriate supervisory environment and a collaborative relationship can foster supervisee growth and self-exploration.

A healthy supervisory relationship is also important to the cultivation of supervisees' professional identity. In a study examining how master's level counselors develop their professional counseling identity, Auxier, Hughes and Kline (2003) reported the importance of beginning supervisees being able to depend on their supervisors for guidance while also having some autonomy to process their own ideas. This is considered part of the "individuation process"

(p.25) that begins their development of their professional identity. The ability of supervisors to form these healthy relationships has also been studied. White and Queener (2003) reported how important the supervisory relationship was in relation to successful supervision outcomes by examining attachment styles of supervisors and supervisees. Their results indicated that the supervisee's ability to form healthy attachments was a predictor in satisfaction with the supervisory relationship, underlining the supervisee's need for a healthy and supportive supervisory relationship. The studies in this section all specifically focused on the supervisory relationship where the supervisees were beginning, or Level 1 supervisees, enrolled in practicum or internship.

The IDM is considered "the best known and most widely used stage developmental model of supervision" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014, p.35). There is evidentiary support for its use in supervision as well as how it describes Level 1 supervisees. More recent research does not directly focus on the IDM, but the studies outlined in this section do focus on supervisees enrolled in their practicum or internship of their counselor training program, which is considered Level 1 of development according to the IDM. This research indicates how supervisor style, attachment style, and complementarity all affect the relationship. In addition, it outlines how the relationship affects the formation of a professional counseling identity. What is not present in the literature is research regarding Level 1 supervisees receiving cybersupervision and their satisfaction with the relationship which is a focus of the current study.

Evidence demonstrates the importance of the supervisory relationship to successful supervision. The fast growing use of technology in supervision has been studied, though questions remain on how supervisees' perceptions of satisfaction with supervision differs in cybersupervision compared to traditional FtF supervision, especially with supervisees in Level 1

of their development. This chapter provided a review of the literature pertaining to supervision, the supervisory relationship, cybersupervision, and the IDM. The next chapter will address the methodology of the current study.

Chapter 3

Method

This chapter provides a detailed description of the methodology used to complete this study. A restatement of the research questions is followed by participant selection, procedure, instrumentation, and data analysis. Data analysis for each research question is discussed individually.

Research questions

1. How does the perception of supervisory style affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?
    - What are the differences in supervisee's perception based on the type of supervision received, either face-to-face or cyber?
2. How does the perception of the supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?
    - What are the differences in supervisee's perception based on the type of supervision received, either face-to-face or cyber?
3. How does the perception of supervisory style and supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?
    - What are the differences in supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship between those receiving face-to-face and cyber-supervision?
4. What do participants say contributes to their level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

Participants

Participants for this study included supervisees who have completed practicum within the past six months or were currently enrolled in practicum in a graduate mental health or school counseling programs at the time of their participation. The participants were enrolled in a CACREP or CACREP-based program in which they received supervision in accordance to CACREP Standards (2009). These Standards dictate that the participants received at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision (p.15).

The participants were solicited through e-mail invitation that links to the survey, which was posted to *CESNET-L*, a professional counseling listserv; *NFIN-L*, a new faculty listserv; *COUNSGRADS*, a master's level counseling student listserv; the counseling departments of Capella University, Colorado Christian University, Grace College, Messiah College, Adams State University, Regent University, Wake Forest University, Walden University, which were listed on www.cacrep.org directory of accredited online school and mental health counseling programs; as well as individual e-mails that were sent directly to Rachael Whitaker and Dr. Laura Haddock as a request to disseminate the invitation. Rachael Whitaker is the Field Supervision Coordinator of the school counseling program at Lamar University and Dr. Laura Haddock is the Program Coordinator for the Counselor Education program at Walden University. Because of the number of methods used to solicit participants, it was impossible to estimate a response rate, but this broad method helped ensure that enough participants were solicited for the study that demonstrate statistical and practical significance.

The number of participants needed, derived from a power analysis with a power of .80, alpha of .05, and effect size of .5 came to a total of 102 participants, with 51 in each group. In an

effort to increase generalizability to the population, however, the target number of participants for this study was increased to 150, with 75 in the face-to-face group and 75 in the cyber group. Participants were solicited from across the United States and efforts were made to attract a diverse sample. However, most counseling students were female and Caucasian, so gender and ethnic diversity were limited.

Procedure

This study was a quantitative correlational study. Research data was collected through use of a survey using the survey software Qualtrics. Qualtrics is an online survey software system, available through The University of Tennessee's Office of Research. Qualtrics was chosen for this study because of the researcher's familiarity with and prior use of the software. Survey distribution began after IRB approval was obtained from The University of Tennessee. The survey included an informed consent, basic demographic questions, and the questions from the instruments used in this study. In the email, potential participants were given a link to the online survey. Once they clicked the link, they were taken to the main page of the survey, which was the informed consent. Informed consent was obtained once the participant checked the "I agree" button and was then directed to the survey questions. Those choosing "I don't agree" were directed to a page that stated, "Thank you for considering taking the survey." Only those that clicked "I agree" were directed to the survey questions.

One week after the initial email request for participants was sent, a second e-mail, which was the same e-mail invitation as the original, was posted as a reminder to potential participants. One final email request was sent after 3 weeks. The only change to the email was the title of the email (2nd request, 3rd request). An incentive for participation was provided in the e-mail. The incentive was that the researcher would donate $1.00 for each participant to the American

Counseling Association Foundation, which provides scholarships for graduate students, among other things. The maximum donation was $200.00 and was stated in the e-mail. I combined and presented donations collectively, under the title, “participants in Lauren Bussey’s dissertation study on differences in face-to-face and cybersupervision” to maintain anonymity. I donated as an honorarium of $90.00 total, $1.00 for each participant, on 10/21/2015.

Data were gathered anonymously and stored on the Qualtrics secure site through the UTK Office of Research. Qualtrics provides the option for anonymity of the participants by assigning the user a code instead of using any identifying information. The researchers that had access to the stored data will included the primary researcher and her faculty advisor. The Qualtrics site was password protected using the UTK net-id and password of the user. Once data was collected and the survey had been closed, statistical analyses were conducted on the data.

Instrumentation

Three inventories were used for this study in addition to the informed consent and a demographics questionnaire. Once informed consent had been obtained on the first page of the survey, the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI) was the first assessment in the survey followed by the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory-Trainee Version (SWAI) and then the Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ). The last page of the survey included a set of demographic questions.

The Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI)

The SSI was developed by Friedlander and Ward (1984) and seeks to understand the interpersonal or relational aspects of supervisors, perceived by both supervisors and supervisees at different developmental levels. Taking into account supervisor’s sources of variability such as technique, format, strategy, style, theoretical orientation, and assumptive world, Friedlander and

Ward (1984) generated items gathered from content analyses of interviews with experienced supervisors from differing professional backgrounds. In two separate studies, one with supervisors and one with supervisees in practicum and internship, they asked participants to rank the previously gathered items. The two most prevalent items were used to develop scales that "reflected the major dimensions of supervisory style as perceived by both supervisors and trainees" (p. 543). Two more studies were then conducted to cross validate the instrument. Friedlander and Ward (1984) assessed how the SSI scales correlated with the training context, supervisor's theoretical orientation, supervisee's level of experience, and supervisee's satisfaction with supervision. The constructs that were used for scoring were derived from previous research by Heppner and Handley (1981) that included *attractiveness, interpersonally sensitive*, and *task oriented*. Test-retest reliabilities for the SSI indicated r = .92 (Friedlander & Ward, 1984). Friedlander and Ward's thorough validation process helped ensure the SSI was an acceptable instrument for understanding supervisory style.

The SSI is scored based on specific questions that relate to the three different constructs. The attractiveness scale has seven questions which are summed and then divided by seven. Interpersonally sensitive scale has eight questions which are summed and divided by eight, and the task oriented scale has 10 questions which are summed and divided by 10. There are also 8 filler questions on the instrument, bringing the total number of questions on the SSI to 33. The highest score suggests that the supervisee's perception of supervisor style.

The SSI has been further validated through its use in various aspects of supervision. Herbert and Ward (1995) used it to study supervisee's perceptions of supervisor behavior and style in supervision. They found the SSI to have internal consistency reliabilities of .93 (Attractiveness), .91 (Interpersonally Sensitive), and .92 (Task-oriented). Culbreth and Borders

(1999) used the SSI in their study of supervisees working in substance abuse programs about their perceptions of the supervisory relationship with supervisors based on their status of recovery. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for this study ranged from .76 to .96. Rarick and Ladany (2012) used the SSI in their study examining the effects of gender on supervisory style. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for this study ranged from .76 to .95 for the 3 subscales. Other studies utilizing the SSI include Nelson and Friedlander (2001) in their research on conflictual events in supervision, Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) in their study examining how supervisees perceptions of their supervisors style related to satisfaction with the relationship as well as their own perceived self-efficacy, and Chen and Bernstein (2000) in their study of complementarity in the supervisory relationship. In all cases, the SSI demonstrated adequate to strong reliability coefficients, suggesting that the instrument is consistent over time and with various populations.

Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI)

Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) developed the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI) based on Bordin's (1983) and others work in studying the working alliance. The SWAI assesses the behaviors of the supervisor as perceived by the supervisee, and vice versa. The constructs used for scoring on the supervisor form included *Client Focus, Rapport,* and *Identification*; the constructs used on the supervisee form (used in the current study) included *Rapport* and *Client Focus*. The constructs were derived through a factor analysis in which the researchers asked 10 expert supervisors from a university counseling center to identify the most important activities that occur in supervision. To score the SWAI-Trainee version, items 1-12 are summed and divided by 12 for the rapport subscale. For the client focus subscale,

items 13-19 are summed and divided by six. Higher scores indicate the supervisee's perception of rapport and client focus that is present in the supervisory relationship.

Efstation, et al. (1990) implied that each of these constructs may be considered more important than the others depending on developmental level of the supervisee as well as theoretical orientation of the supervisor. In their study, internal consistency reliabilities range from .77 to .90 for the Trainee subscales. Other studies have also reported adequate to strong reliability. These include: internal consistency scores of .95 (Wester, Vogel, & Archer, 2004) to .96 (White & Queener, 2003); and item-scale reliabilities for the Trainee version ranging from .44 to .77 (Rapport) and .37 to .53 (Client Focus) in Efstation et al. (1990). In addition, strong convergent validity estimates were found correlationally between scales in the SWAI Trainee version (Friedlander & Ward, 1984)

Like the SSI, the SWAI has been used in various populations in supervision research. Patton and Kivlighan (1997) used the SWAI in their research of how the supervisory working alliance relates to the counseling working alliance. Quarto (2003) utilized the SWAI in his study of perceived control and conflict in supervision. Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) used it to study how supervisory styles affected the supervisory working alliance. Gnilka, Chang, and Dew (2012) applied it in their study on supervisee stress, coping resources, and the working alliance. Gunn and Pistole (2012) used the SWAI in their research on supervisor's attachment style and its influence on the supervisory working alliance. Rarick and Ladany (2013) used it as an instrument in their study on the impact of gender on supervisory style and satisfaction. With regards to the SWAI and cybersupervision, the research was limited. Coker, Staples, and Harbach (2002) used the SWAI as a tool for studying the effectiveness of online supervision. Their results indicated no significant difference between online and FtF supervision, though they

noted that FtF received a much higher overall rating. Conn, Roberts, and Powell (2009) used the SWAI in their study comparing overall satisfaction with supervision as well as technological competence of supervisees engaged in FtF supervision with those engaged in a hybrid model which consisted of FtF, video chat, and e-mail. Their results indicated that the supervisees engaged in the hybrid model had a higher overall satisfaction rate and reported a higher technological competence than those receiving FtF supervision. The SWAI has been used successfully with a variety of populations to study inter- and intra- relational factors that affect the supervisory relationship.

Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ)

The SSQ is the least utilized of the three instruments being used in the current study. The SSQ was derived by Ladany, Hill, and Corbett (1996) from the Client Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ; Larsen, Attkisson, Hargreaves, & Nguyen, 1979). In the SSQ, the terms *counseling* and *services* was replaced by *supervision.* The SSQ has not been normed, but the CSQ revealed an alpha coefficient of .84 to .93 (Nguyen, Attkisson, & Steger, 1981). The CSQ was developed through a literature review by Larsen, et al. (1979) from which they created nine categories related to client satisfaction with counseling. In each category there were nine items of which 32 mental health professionals rated based on how well they identified with them. Keeping only the items with a mean of five or higher, the authors were left with 45 items, with no more than six per category. Another group of 31 mental health professional ranked the 45 items, within their respective categories, by choosing those which they identified as most helpful when receiving feedback. This led to the preliminary version of the scale with a total of 31 items. The preliminary scale, after being administered to 248 counseling clients, was skewed. A factor analysis indicated that there was only one primary dimension of the scale. The final scale was

derived from the eight items the factor analysis indicated had strong inter-item correlations. The inter-item correlations were taken from two independent samples in which the alpha for the CSQ was .93. Given the strong statistical support for the CSQ, it is assumed that the SSQ is also statistically sound. A review of the literature revealed several studies that have used the SSQ.

Ladany, Hill, Corbett, and Nutt (1996) used the SSQ in their study examining supervisee's self-disclosure and satisfaction with supervision. In their study, the alpha coefficient of the SSQ was .96. Ladany et al. (1999) also utilized the SSQ when studying supervision ethics and the supervisory relationship. The alpha coefficient of the SSQ for their study was .97. Lastly, Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) used the SSQ in their study on supervisory styles and their relationship to satisfaction with supervision. The SSQhas demonstrated strong reliability with with various populations.

Demographics Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was included at the end of the study. This questionnaire asked participants to choose their age range, gender, race/ethnicity, practicum enrollment status, and type of supervision received. The options to choose for age range included the following: under 21, 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, and 51 years old or above. Ethnicity categories included those based on the US census poll. Practicum enrollment status helped ensure that participants met the qualifications for the study (completed practicum no more than six months ago). Finally, supervision type identified those receiving face-to-face versus cybersupervison.

Data analysis

How does the perception of supervisory style affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

To answer this research question, responses from the SSI and SSQ were analyzed. Since the SSI has three subscale scores and no full scale, three different correlational analysis were conducted to identify the relationship between supervisory style and the supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Descriptive statistics were performed on the study sample including measures of central tendency and dispersion. Additionally, on the demographic questionnaire, the participants were asked to identify which format of supervision they received, with the options being FtF or cyber-supervision. After the general analysis, a two-tailed t-test was performed to identify any differences between face-to-face and cyber-supervisees perceptions of supervisory style which answered the sub question.

How does the perception of the supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

To answer this research question, responses from the SWAI and SSQ were analyzed. Since the SWAI has two subscale scores and no full scale, two different correlational analysis were conducted to identify the relationship between supervisory style and the supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Descriptive statistics were performed on the study sample including measures of central tendency and dispersion. After the general analysis, a two-tailed t-test was performed to answer the sub question which sought to identify any differences between face-to-face and cyber- supervisees perceptions of the working alliance.

How does the perception of supervisory style and supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

This question was answered through a general linear multiple regression analysis with data taken from the SSI, SWAI, and SSQ. The independent variables of supervisory style and working alliance were analyzed to determine their relationship to the dependent variable of satisfaction with supervision. The scale for the SSQ, along with the subscales of attractiveness, interpersonally sensitive, and task oriented from the SSI, as well as rapport and client-focus from the SWAI was entered into the regression. A correlational matrix was run first to ensure that the various constructs were significantly related to one another. To answer the sub question regarding differences in satisfaction between FtF and cyber supervisees, the data were grouped according to the participant's response to format of supervision received and a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to identify if there is a relationship between the format of supervision and satisfaction with supervision.

What do participants say contributes to their level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

This research question was answered through responses to an open ended question in the survey. Participant responses were coded using grounded theory research (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). This method of data research was chosen due to nature of the research question which, when combined with the other research questions in this study, is being used as a way to offer an explanation, or theory, on supervision and the supervisory relationship. The data were collected and analyzed for content which derived specific categories and themes that attempted to answer the research question. First, the content was analyzed for *concepts* (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Pandit, 1996) or abstract conceptualizations of the data. *Categories* (Corbin & Strauss, 1990)

were then derived from the concepts that had been identified to start explaining the data. These categories are “higher level representations” (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p.7) of the concepts first identified. Pandit (1996) refers to the last step in the data analysis as developing *propositions,* ***or suppositions, which is a hypothesis that essentially is not measurable***, thus the name propositions. Trustworthiness of the analysis was assured by using the exact wording of the participants responses when analyzing the data.

Chapter 4

Results

This study was conducted to investigate differences in perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship among supervisees engaged in cyber- and FtF- supervision. In doing so, the study also attempted to identify perceptions of satisfaction among supervisees as they relates to supervisory style and supervisory working alliance. This study was a correlational study utilizing correlational analyses, two-tailed t-tests, and multiple regression. The results are described in the following paragraphs.

Description of Participants

The survey used in this study was emailed to professional counseling listservs (CES-NET and COUNSGRADS) and to online counseling programs in an attempt to recruit participants. Power analysis conducted via G*Power with alpha set at .05, power set at .80, and effect size at .15, indicated the need for a sample of 102 participants. However, the predetermined sample was not recruited for the study and data collection was terminated with a total of 90 participants. Based on a post-hoc power analysis with 90 participants, effect size .15, and alpha .05, for a linear multiple regression, power was still determined to be .80. Based on these parameters, critical F for this study was determined to be 2.32.

The total number of participants for this study was 90. Sixty-seven percent (n=60) of participants reported being engaged in FtF supervision, and 33% (n=30) reported being engaged in hybrid or cybersupervision. Of the total participants, 73% (n=66) reported being from the southern region of the United States (North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia) and the remainder of the sample (n=24) was dispersed through the rest of the

United States. The participants were comprised of 10% (n=9) male and 90% (n=81) female with race/ethnicity makeup being primarily Caucasian with 67% (n=60). The remaining 33% (n=30) were African American (n=12), Hispanic (n=12), or other (n=6).

The participants were asked to indicate their program of study (mental health, school, or other counseling program), enrollment status in practicum (currently enrolled, have completed practicum within the past six months, completed over six months ago, or have not yet taken practicum), as well as the accreditation status of their program (CACREP accredited, non-CACREP accredited but follows CACREP supervision guidelines, or non-CACREP accredited and does not follow CACREP guidelines). Of the total number of participants, 68% (n=61) reported being enrolled in mental health counseling program, with 75% (n=46) reporting engaging in FtF supervision and 17% (n=8) engaging in cybersupervision, with 17% (n=8) reporting a hybrid format of supervision. Eighteen percent (n=16) reported school counseling program of study, with 56% (n=9) reporting engaging in FtF supervision and 31% (n=5) engaging in cybersupervision, with 13% (n=2) reporting a hybrid format of supervision. Fourteen percent (n=13) reported a different area of counseling. Seventy-four percent (n=67) reported being enrolled in a CACREP accredited program with the remaining 26% (n=23) reported enrollment in a non-CACREP accredited program that followed CACREP guidelines for supervision.

Descriptive Results

Results for the SSI suggest that overall, participants reported moderately high ratings of the supervisor's attractiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, and task orientation. The highest score indicates the supervisee's overall perception of supervisor style, suggesting that for these participants, they perceived the supervisory style of attractive most in their supervisors. Results

for the SWAI suggest that overall, participants reported moderately high ratings of rapport and client focus. Higher scores indicate the presence of rapport or client focus within the supervisory relationship; both of these orientations appear prominent for these participants. Results of the SSQ suggest that overall, participants reported a relatively high rating of satisfaction with supervision. Higher scores indicate higher levels of satisfaction with supervision. Tables 4.1 provide the descriptive statistics for participants overall, for cybersupervision participants, and for FtF participants.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics	Total					Cyber			FtF		
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
SSI Attractive	90	1.29	7	6.24	1.02	30	6.54	.86	60	6.09	1.07
SSI Interpersonal	90	2.13	7	6.05	1.08	30	6.39	.92	60	5.88	1.12
SSI Task	90	2.10	7	5.57	1.16	30	5.93	1.15	60	5.39	1.13
SWAI Rapport	90	1	7	6.09	1.17	30	6.46	.91	60	5.90	1.25
SWAI Client Focus	90	1.14	7	5.85	1.30	30	6.36	.92	60	5.59	1.38
SSQ Satisfaction	90	1.38	4	3.20	.53	30	3.42	.38	60	3.08	.56

Note: SSI has a seven-point scale; SWAI has a seven-point scale; SSQ has a four-point scale.

Research Question 1: How does the perception of supervisory style affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

This question was answered by analyzing data from the SSI and SSQ. Due to the SSI having three subscales and no full-scale score, three different analyses were conducted. Prior to the t-tests, correlational analyses were conducted to identify relationships between all of the variables in the study. Correlational matrices for participants as a whole, FtF participants, and Cyber participants are presented in Tables 4.2a, 4.2b, and 4.2c. All variables were significantly correlated. Levene's test for equality of variances was run prior to all t-tests. Unless otherwise noted, differences in variance were not statistically significant.

Attractiveness. The SSI has seven questions which directly relate to the *attractiveness* subscale. These items, in which the participant is to rate their response on a Likert scale, are as follows: friendly, flexible, supportive, open, positive, trusting, and warm. A correlational analysis conducted in SPSS indicated a statistically significant relationship between the Supervisory Style Inventory subscale of Attractiveness and Supervisory Satisfaction.

An independent sample two-tailed t-test was then conducted to identify any differences between the FtF and cyber groups. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the scores for cyber (M=6.54, SD= .86) and FtF (M= 6.09, SD= 1.07), with a significance level of $t(88)=2.01$, $p=.05$, indicating variance between how participants in the two groups rated the supervisory style of attractiveness. These results suggest that the format of supervision relates to how supervisees rate attractiveness style of their supervisor.

Interpersonally sensitive. Eight items on the SSI address the *interpersonally sensitive* subscale. These items, in which the participant is to rate their response on a Likert scale, are as follows: perceptive, committed, intuitive, reflective, creative, resourceful, invested, and

therapeutic. A correlational analysis conducted in SPSS indicated a statistically significant level of correlation between the Supervisory Style Inventory subscale of Interpersonally Sensitive and Supervisory Satisfaction.

An independent sample two-tailed t-test was then conducted to identify any differences between the FtF and cyber groups. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the scores for cyber (M=6.39, SD= .92) and FtF (M= 5.88, SD= 1.12), with a significance level of $t(88)=2.17$, $p<.05$, indicating variance between how participants in the two groups rated the supervisory style of interpersonal sensitivity. These results suggest that the format of supervision relates to how supervisees rate the interpersonally sensitive style of their supervisor.

Task-Oriented. Ten items on the SSI address the *task oriented* subscale. These items, in which the participant is to rate their response on a Likert scale, are as follows: goal-oriented, concrete, explicit, practical, structured, evaluative, prescriptive, didactic, thorough, focused. A correlational analysis conducted in SPSS indicated a moderately high relationship significant relationship between the Supervisory Style Inventory subscale of Task-oriented and Supervisory Satisfaction.

An independent sample two-tailed t-test was then conducted to identify any differences between the FtF and cyber groups. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the scores for cyber (M=5.93, SD= 1.15) and FtF (M= 5.39, SD= 1.13), with a significance level of $t(88)=2.13$, $p<.05$ indicating variance between how participants in the two groups rated the supervisory style of task orientation. These results suggest that the format of supervision relates to how supervisees rate the task oriented style of their supervisor.

Table 4.2a Correlation Matrix for all Participants

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SSQ Satisfaction	1.00					
2. SSI Attractiveness	.79**	1.00				
3. SSI Task Oriented	.61**	.68**	.1.00			
4. SSI Interpersonally Sensitive	.77**	.81**	.83**	1.00		
5. SWAI Rapport	.81**	.88**	.70**	.84**	1.00	
6. SWAI Client Focus	.74	.72	.81**	.78**	.82**	1.00

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.2b Correlation Matrix for Cyber Participants.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.SSQ Satisfaction	1.00					
2. SSI Attractiveness	.61**	1.00				
3. SSI Task Oriented	.52**	.74**	1.00			
4. SSI Interpersonally Sensitive	.65**	.90**	.87**	1.00		
5. SWAI Rapport	.64**	.80**	.75**	.88**	1.00	
6. SWAI Client Focus	.52**	.63**	.80**	.77**	.89**	1.00

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.2c Correlational Matrices

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SSQ Satisfaction	1.00					
2. SSI Attractiveness	.83**	1.00				
3. SSI Task Oriented	.61**	.63**	1.00			
4. SSI Interpersonally Sensitive	.79**	.76**	.81**	1.00		
5. SWAI Rapport	.84**	.89**	.66**	.82**	1.00	
6. SWAI Client Focus	.76**	.72**	.81**	.77**	.80**	1.00

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

How does the perception of the supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

This question was answered by analyzing data from the SWAI and SSQ. Due to the SWAI having two subscales and no full-scale score, two different correlational analyses were conducted in SPSS.

Rapport. Twelve items on the SWAI addressed the subscale of *rapport*. A correlational analysis conducted in SPSS (see Tables 4.2a, 4.2b, 4.2c) indicated a statistically significant relationship between the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory subscale of Rapport and Supervisory Satisfaction indicating that supervisee's perceptions of rapport is related to their satisfaction with supervision.

An independent sample two-tailed t-test was then conducted to identify any differences between the FtF and cyber groups. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the scores for cyber (M=6.46, SD= .91) and FtF (M= 5.91, SD= 1.25), with a significance level of t(88)=2.16, $p<.05$, indicating variance between how participants in the two groups rated rapport in the context of the working alliance. These results suggest that the format of supervision relates to how supervisees rate rapport with their supervisor.

Client focus. Six items on the SWAI addressed the subscale of *client focus*. A correlational analysis conducted in SPSS (see Tables 4.2a, 4.2b, 4.2c) indicated a statistically significant relationship between the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory subscale of Client Focus and Supervisory Satisfaction indicating that supervisee's perceptions of client focus is related to their satisfaction with supervision.

An independent sample two-tailed t-test was then conducted to identify any differences between the FtF and cyber groups. Levene's Test for equality of variances was violated for this variable (F=4.54, $p<.05$), so a *t* statistic not assuming homogeneity of variance was computed. The analysis showed statistically significant difference in the scores of equal variances not assumed for cyber (M=6.37, SD= .92) and FtF (M= 5.59, SD= 1.38), with a significance level of t(81)=3.15, $p<.01$, indicating a significant variance in how the two groups rated client focus in the context of the working alliance.

How does the perception of supervisory style and supervisory working alliance affect supervisee's perception of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

To answer this question, a stepwise linear regression was calculated in SPSS to predict satisfaction using data from the three subscales of the SSI and the two subscales of the SWAI and the full scale of the SSQ. Table 4.5 provides the result of the first stepwise linear regression,

with all participants. At step 1 of the analysis, SWAI Rapport entered into the regression equation and was significantly related to supervisory satisfaction. At step 2 of the analysis, SSI Interpersonal was entered into the equation and was significantly related. Finally, at step 3 of the analysis, SSI Attractive was entered into the equation and was significantly related to supervisory satisfaction. Combined, the three independent variables predicted 84% of the variance of supervisee satisfaction. Neither SSI Task nor SWAI Client Focus were significant predictors of supervisory satisfaction as measured by the SSQ.

Table 4.5 Stepwise Regression analysis of SSI Attractiveness and Interpersonally Sensitive, SWAI Rapport, SSQ

	R Square	F	Std. Error of the Estimate df	β	t
SWAI Rapport	.66	169.63	1	.38	2.77
SSI Interpersonal	.83	94.57	1	.24	2.10
SSI Attractive	.84	66.75	1	.26	2.04

To answer the sub question of the relationship between supervisory satisfaction and format of supervision, a stepwise linear regression was calculated in SPSS to predict satisfaction using data from the three subscales of the SSI and the two subscales of the SWAI and the full scale of the SSQ based on format. Table 4.6 provides the result of the stepwise linear regression, with cyber participants. At step 1 of the analysis, SSI Interpersonally sensitive was entered into the regression equation and was significantly related to supervisory satisfaction. This one

independent variable predicted 42% of the variance of supervisee satisfaction. The SSI Attractiveness, SSI Task, SWAI Rapport or SWAI Client Focus were not significant predictors of supervisory satisfaction as measured by the SSQ.

Table 4.6 Multiple Regression Analysis SWAI, SSI, SSQ, Cyber

	R Square	F	df	β	t
SSI Interpersonally Sensitive	.42	20.07	1	.67	4.48

To answer the sub question of the relationship between supervisory satisfaction and format of supervision, a stepwise linear regression was calculated in SPSS to predict satisfaction using data from the three subscales of the SSI and the two subscales of the SWAI and the full scale of the SSQ based on format. Table 4.7 provides the result of the stepwise linear regression, with FtF participants. At step 1 of the analysis, SWAI Rapport entered into the regression equation and was significantly related to supervisory satisfaction. At step 2 of the analysis, SSI Interpersonally Sensitive was entered into the equation and was significantly related. Finally, at step 3 of the analysis, SSI Attractiveness was entered into the equation and was significantly related to supervisory satisfaction. Combined, these 3 independent variable predicted 76% of the variance of supervisee satisfaction. . Neither SSI Task nor SWAI Client Focus were significant predictors of supervisory satisfaction as measured by the SSQ.

These results indicate prediction of satisfaction of supervision differs between cyber- and FtF supervisees. Cyber supervisees results suggested that the supervisory style of Interpersonally Sensitive was a strong predictor of satisfaction while FtF supervisees results indicated that

satisfaction could be predicted by a combination of rapport, interpersonal sensitivity, and attractiveness.

Table 4.7 Multiple Regression Analysis SWAI, SSI, SSQ, FtF

	R Square	F	df	β	t
SWAI Rapport	.71	138.56	1	.14	1.91
SSI Interpersonally Sensitive	.74	79.38	1	.14	2.37
SSI Attractiveness	.76	58.69	1	.18	2.30

What do participants say contributes to their level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship?

For this research question, a qualitative thematic analysis of text responses was conducted utilizing responses from the survey (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Responses were first categorized into two groups based on format of supervision: cyber and FtF. Two main themes emerged from the analysis of responses from both groups. Overall, there were not many differences between the two groups on perceived factors that contributed to their satisfaction. Appendix 1 illustrates the descriptors that were found to develop the two emergent themes that were found in the data: *Relational Attributes* and *Professional Attributes*. Note that the descriptors in Appendix 1 include raw data, as such, misspellings and grammatical errors are present. The categories that made up each theme are as follows: *Relational Attributes*- responses relating to openness, warmth, support, rapport, working alliance, and attentiveness; *Professional*

Attributes- responses relating to supervisor availability, knowledge, being task-oriented, positive evaluation, and a sense of collegiality. Specific response examples from participants coded in the Relational Attributes include phrases like “Very affirming, warm, and interested in what I had to say. Very helpful!” and “She was very easy to talk to, helpful without appearing condescending, and made the experience very easy”. Specific response examples from participants coded in the Professional Attributes include phrases like “Value of my time. Being prepared to meet with me. Knowledgeable on subject matter” and “Primarily, I prefer a supervisor who is open to my own personal conceptualization of client presentations and needs, treatment approaches, and planned course of treatment”.

Relational Attributes had the highest number of responses overall with 56% (n=53) and *Professional Attributes* had 44% of responses (n=42). Relational Attributes accounted for 64% (n=21) of cyber participants responses and 52% (n=32) of FtF participant responses. Figures 4.8a, 4.8b, 4.9a and 4.9b in the appendices provide the responses by category for FtF and cyber participants.

The responses indicate that, while professional attributes and responsibilities are certainly important, it would seem that the ability to relate to the supervisee, and provide a warm, caring environment is equally, if not more important in a supervisees perception of satisfaction.

Summary

The results of the analysis conclude that the variables of supervisory style and working alliance do relate significantly to satisfaction with supervision. However, only a few variables predict satisfaction such as the SSI’s *attractiveness* and *interpersonally sensitive* along with the SWAI’s *rapport.* In addition, the SWAI’s *client focus* proved to be the only variable that had

little variance between cyber and FtF supervisees. Chapter 5 will provide more detail regarding these results.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Implications

Supervision is a distinct field within the counseling profession. Over recent decades, extensive research results examined the practice of supervision, theories related to supervision, supervisor competence, relationship issues, and other related elements. While extensive research on supervision exists, technological advancements, the proliferation of online counselor education, and the emerging practice of online supervision prompt an examination of potential changes in the literature related to supervision. Given the numerous advancements from a technological perspective, an examination of supervisory relationship, working alliance, and satisfaction is warranted.

As described in the results, the sample for this study involved 90 counselor trainees who were either actively involved in supervision or who had recently completed supervision. All participants reported having met the criteria of one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision and one and one half hours per week of group supervision. The participants reported whether they received face-to-face supervision or cyber supervision as well as reporting other demographic and descriptive variables.

Based on the demographic and descriptive data collected, the participants in this study were predominantly White females, enrolled in CACREP-accredited counseling programs from the southern United States. Correlational analyses and stepwise regression analyses examined the relationship of the variables of supervisory style, supervisory working alliance, and supervisory satisfaction. Independent sample t- tests explored the relationship within the context of format of supervision (i.e., face-to-face or cyber).

As discussed in previous chapters, the SSI and SWAI were hypothesized to be potential predictors of scores on the Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire. Although discussed in previous chapters, it is important to review information related to these instruments in order to provide context for results of the analyses. A brief description of the variables and review of the major findings of the study follows. In addition, limitations to the study and implications for counselor educators, supervisors, and future research are discussed.

Supervisory style. The SSI (Friedlander & Ward, 1984) can be used to identify interpersonal or relational aspects of supervisors perceived by both supervisors and supervisees at different developmental levels. This study focused on the supervisees' perceptions of supervisors. The SSI is a 33 item measure that uses adjectives to rate supervisee's perceptions of their supervisor's style based on three subscales which include Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive, and Task-Oriented. The attractive subscale refers to a supervisor who is warm, friendly, supportive, and trust-worthy. The interpersonally sensitive subscale refers to attributes such as committed to the relationship, resourceful, and perceptive. The task-oriented subscale refers to the attributes such as practical, concrete, evaluative, and focused (Friedlander & Ward, 1984).

In this study, all of the variables (i.e. attractiveness, interpersonally sensitive, and task oriented) that made up supervisory style were highly correlated with supervisory satisfaction. It is evident that the style of the supervisor is related to a supervisee's perception of satisfaction with their supervision. The strongest correlation was that of *attractiveness* and satisfaction (r=.79) suggesting that a friendly, warm, and supportive supervisor is highly desirable for supervisees in their early stages of development.

Supervisory working alliance. The SWAI **(**Efstation et al., 1990) is designed to measure perceptions of the supervisory relationship, or working alliance. For this study, the trainee version was administered which has two subscales, *rapport* and *client focus*. Rapport is described as the working relationship between supervisors and supervisees in which they can communicate openly and collaboratively. Client focus refers to times when the supervisee and supervisor discuss clients, potential interventions, and the supervisee's feelings surrounding the client.

In this study, both of the variables (i.e. rapport and client focus) that made up elements of the supervisory working alliance were highly correlated with supervisory satisfaction. The strongest correlation was that of *rapport* and satisfaction (r=.81) suggesting that an open and collaborative relationship is highly desirable for supervisees in their early stages of development.

Satisfaction with supervision. The SSQ (Ladany et al., 1996) is an evaluative tool designed to assess client satisfaction within the counseling relationship. The SSQ is an eight-item questionnaire which asks supervisee's to rate their level of satisfaction with supervision. Higher scores suggest higher levels of overall satisfaction with supervision.

Discussion of Major Findings

Correlations Between Variables

The quantitative analysis of the data revealed interesting findings. First, the correlations between the independent variables of supervisory style and working alliance were highly correlated to satisfaction with supervision. This suggests that for these participants, supervisees with perceptions of combined traits of attractive, interpersonally sensitive, and task oriented supervisor tend to have more satisfaction with their supervisory experience. Similarly,

supervisees with perceptions of combined traits of good rapport and an element of client focus in supervision tend to have more satisfaction with their supervisory experience.

From a developmental perspective, these results are consistent with the literature on early stage supervisees and satisfaction with supervision. Gard and Lewis (2008) reported that a compassionate and collaborative environment in which the supervisee can feel less anxiety is important for the working alliance. The authors suggested that early supervisees have anxiety surrounding the evaluation component of supervision and the compassionate environment eases that anxiety. Similarly, Auxier et al.(2003) noted the importance of beginning supervisees being able to depend on their supervisor and have a good rapport established. Having an open and collaborative relationship has proven to add to supervisory satisfaction among beginning supervisees (Gard & Lewis, 2008).

Cyber Versus Face-to-Face Supervisees

With regards to format (i.e. cyber and FtF) of supervision, it was indicated that cyber supervisees tended to rate the variables of the SSI and SWAI higher than FtF supervisees. This is compatible with findings (Abass, et al., 2011; Rousmaniere & Frederickson, 2013) suggesting that the format of supervision is no longer an issue and that we are becoming more purposeful in how we conduct supervision utilizing technology. These results suggest that cyber supervisees have the capability to develop a strong working alliance with their supervisor. Abass et al. (2011) suggested that, since technology is becoming more applicable to counselor education and training, the ability to develop strong working alliances is improving. This contradicts the earlier study by Sorlie et al. (1999) who indicated that cyber supervisees experience more feelings of frustration and anxiety than FtF supervisees. One reason for this might be the prevalence of technology today and, as a result, more technological competence among supervisees. This is

also consistent with the later findings of Conn, Roberts, and Powell (2009) who reported that supervisees utilizing technology in their supervisory experience had higher levels of satisfaction with supervision as well as positive attitudes towards utilizing technology.

Not only did cyber supervisees report a strong working alliance with their supervisors, they also indicated they believed their supervisors demonstrated attractive, interpersonally sensitive, and task-oriented skills in supervision. As noted earlier in this chapter, these are the variables that make up the SSI. What is interesting to note about these results is that the cyber participants rated a higher level of satisfaction with supervision than their FtF peers. It is important to point out that one possibility could be that the number of participants in each group was different, with cyber having less participants, therefore decreasing the chance for variability. Perhaps these cyber supervisees were unique in their supervisory experiences, or perhaps the smaller number indicates less variability, running the risk of having results that are not an accurate representation of the population (Well, Pollatsek, & Boyce, 1990).

Predictors of supervisory satisfaction. While all of the independent variables related to satisfaction with supervision, not all of them were a predictor of satisfaction. Interestingly, the FtF and cyber groups differed in their results. In the FtF group, for instance, the supervisory styles of *interpersonally sensitive* and *attractiveness* along with the SWAI's *rapport* were predictors of satisfaction. In the cyber group results, however, the supervisory style of *interpersonally sensitive* was the only significant predictor of satisfaction. In other words, FtF supervisors may need to display rapport building, attractive qualities such as warmth and friendliness, and interpersonally sensitive characteristics to increase satisfaction, while online supervisors may need to only focus on the interpersonally sensitive characteristics. This is somewhat consistent with Fernando and Hulse-Killacky's (2005) study which found the

interpersonally sensitive supervisory style to be the only significant predictor of supervisee satisfaction. What is interesting is that Fernando and Hulse-Killacky's (2005) study did not utilize an online sample, and all participants were receiving supervision in a FtF setting. From this it can be assumed that interpersonally sensitive characteristics might be most important to the satisfaction of supervision, regardless of format.

When considering the difference in predictors of satisfaction between the two groups, it is a possibility that cyber supervisees have different expectations of supervision than their FtF counterparts. This might be because, depending on how the online program is formatted, cyber supervisees might not have had as much one-on-one interactions with faculty and supervisors as FtF supervisees. In addition, it can be assumed that many of their peers are from different geographic areas making them less accessible than in a FtF setting. When considering interpersonally sensitive aspects of supervision, the commitment to the relationship could be especially important because of the limited chances for programmatic relationship building prior to practicum, which has been a concern for counselor educators in the past (Watson, 2012).

Another possibility is that, similar to the discussion above on predictors of satisfaction, cyber supervisees could have different expectations than FtF supervisees. Cyber supervisees, enrolled in online counselor education programs, are engaged in online classes with presumably little chance to connect with students and faculty, regularly, outside of the classes. Therefore, the ability to connect with a supervisor on a personal basis could be more meaningful to cyber supervisees than FtF, resulting in increased satisfaction.

Nelson, Nichter, and Henriksen (2010) conducted a study examining satisfaction between cyber and FtF supervisees in their internship. Their results indicated no significant difference in satisfaction between the two groups. One possibility for the difference in results from this study

could be that the sample for that study was supervisees in internship. This could be important because these supervisees are assumed to have had supervision prior to their participation in the study so they were more experienced in the supervisory process.

The qualitative analysis of participants' responses regarding contributors to their level of satisfaction with supervision also revealed predictors of supervisory satisfaction. As described in Chapter 4, the results of the qualitative analysis indicated two different themes, *relational attributes* and *professional attributes*. It is interesting to note that the cyber and FtF responses were very similar in nature. Warmth, openness, supportiveness, and rapport appeared to be common responses in both groups, indicating the importance of the relationship as a contributor to satisfaction with supervision. This is consistent with the study by Chen and Bernstein (2000) who reported the importance of maintaining the supervisory relationship in an effort to thwart critical incidents in supervision. While the results of the study were notable, they were not without their limitations, which are addressed below.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations to this study which should be addressed. These limitations include the number of participants, variance in individual perceptions of participants, different supervisory styles, the time of year data were collected, and instrumentation.

First, variance in individual perceptions of participants could not be completely controlled, even though this study utilized valid and reliable assessments. It can be assumed that participants of the study held differing opinions and biases towards their supervisors as well as the questions that were asked on the survey. This is also true for supervisory style. The questions related to supervisory style can be interpreted differently based on individual perceptions. In addition, the supervisor's style presumably varied across programs of which participants were

enrolled. Given the abundance of research on the supervisory relationship, it is important to note that there may be other variables that affect the level of satisfaction other than the variables studied here.

Several statistical issues may also limit the generalizability of the results. The total number of participants was 90 even though the original number derived from the power analysis indicated the n sample should equal 102. In addition, data were collected during the summer, so potential participants may not have accessed their e-mails as they would have during the academic year. This could have contributed to the difficulty in obtaining the needed number of participants. Third, the sample consisted predominantly of white Caucasian females from the southern geographic region of the United States. This inhibited the ability to control for demographic variables. As such, caution is needed when interpreting and generalizing the results. Lastly, the instruments used in this study do not focus on cyber environments, so results may not be consistent with FtF data.

Implications

Outcomes from this study suggest that early stage supervisees can have satisfaction with supervision regardless of the format. This can be important information for counselor educators who are considering transitioning into online counselor training programs, which are becoming more prevalent. Also, supervisors may find this information important, especially in regards to the online format in which interpersonal sensitivity, or a commitment to the relationship, is predictive of satisfaction with supervision. Future research and implications for counselor educators and supervisors are discussed below.

Future Research. Given the results of this study, there are several avenues in which future research could be beneficial to the literature. For example, this study could be replicated

but with a larger sample size and increased heterogeneity to increase generalizability. Given that the primary demographic was Caucasian female from the southern region of the United States, having a broader disbursement of participants would increase generalizability.

Since the results suggested that interpersonally sensitive characteristics were predictive of satisfaction in both groups, future research could also focus on which aspects of interpersonally sensitivity supervisees find most important. For example, it would be interesting to explore if commitment, or perceptiveness, both of which are specific characteristics of the interpersonally sensitive scale on the SSI, are rated more important.

Another similar avenue would be a study that explores cyber supervisees' perceptions of their online training programs and if this perception differs from their practicum experience. In other words, as discussed earlier in this chapter, cyber supervisees have a different experience in their training program from the beginning, so exploring how that different experience contributes to their experience of satisfaction would be beneficial.

Also, future research could examine satisfaction of the supervisory relationship from the supervisor's perspective, examining both FtF and cyber supervisors. Because this study helped to shed light on the supervisee's perspective, it would be interesting to examine how supervisors, FtF and cyber, perceive satisfaction of the relationship. Having access to both the supervisor's and supervisee's perceptions of satisfaction from a cyber and FtF perspective could contribute to our knowledge of how the format of supervision affects the supervisory relationship. Similarly, the client's perception of counselor competence would be an interesting study. In other words, do client's perceptions of counselor competence change based on the format of supervision the counselor received. Another important area of research are the instruments themselves. The

instruments in this study were not normed on cyber participants, so studying the reliability and validity on cyber participants would be beneficial.

Additionally, this research sheds light on the supervisory relationship from a Level I developmental perspective, however, future research could be conducted with more developmentally advanced supervisees. The literature suggests some distinct differences between beginning and advanced supervisees (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987) and therefore it could be assumed that their perceptions of satisfaction are based on different variables.

Counselor Educators. This study contributes to our knowledge of how supervisees perceive satisfaction with supervision in both FtF and cyber formats. Knowledge of supervision satisfaction variables is important for counselor educators because cyber supervision is an emerging field and a desirable alternative to FtF for many students. As noted from the literature review in Chapter 2 of this study, most prior research focused on FtF formats of supervision. However, more programs might be considering offering a distance component of their counselor training program in order to reach more students. Technological competence and understanding of the supervisee's needs and perceptions are important factors to the success of the online programs.

These results could also be important due to the growth of online counselor education programs. When cyber supervision was first introduced, there were issues with communication, rapport, and technological competence (Myers & Gibson, 1999); however, advancements in technology have seemed to resolve these issues and online counselor education programs are proving to be effective means of educating future counselors. Knowing that it is possible to create a satisfactory online supervisory relationship might allow counselor educators more

flexibility in courses, enrollment, as well as an exponential increase in practicum and internship placements, considering there are presumably no geographic limitations for students.

In addition, counselor educators are tasked with the job of finding and/or training supervisors if they, themselves, are not acting as supervisors. Knowing the variables that relate to and/or are predictors of satisfaction can provide guidance in training these supervisors. Counselor educators could train their online supervisors in the areas of relationship building in order to provide cyber supervisees with more satisfactory experiences. An example of an area in which supervisors could be trained is technology and communication. Counselor educators could provide education on the differences in communication when utilizing technology.

Supervisors. Similar to counselor educators, supervisors should find the results of this study important when establishing and maintaining a supervisory relationship. As discussed in Chapter 2, the supervisory relationship is the foundation for successful growth and development of a supervisee (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). Being aware of what contributes to supervisee's satisfaction is therefore crucial, and what we have learned from this study is that a warm, supportive, and committed supervisor with which the supervisee has an established rapport is predictive of supervisee satisfaction. Therefore, supervisors who attend to the relational aspects of supervision, it is assumed, would have higher rates of satisfaction.

In addition, supervisors should be aware of the developmental level of the supervisee. As noted earlier, developmental level is significant to how supervisees perceive satisfaction with supervision. Research suggests that, when supervisors and supervisees perceptions of the supervisee's development are aligned, less conflict and higher degrees of satisfaction are reported (Quarto, 2002; Krause & Allen, 1988). Therefore, a more collaborative and open working relationship is suggested in order to promote satisfaction.

Supervisors should also keep in mind the differences between online and FtF supervision. FtF supervision is influenced by a combination of various skills and characteristics, whereas cyber supervision seems to be influenced by the interpersonal skills of the supervisor. Therefore, supervisors should be aware that, what may work in a FtF environment, may not be as successful in an online environment.

Conclusion

Cybersupervision is an emerging field within the counseling profession. While numerous studies have been dedicated to the supervisory relationship in the more traditional, or FtF, format, only a few compare cyber and FtF formats. This study examined beginning, or Level 1, supervisees' perceptions of satisfaction of the supervisory relationship within the context of format of supervision. While there were significant differences, results indicated that supervisory style in the working alliance were both significant contributors to satisfaction with supervision in the cyber and FtF groups. Cyber supervisees, however, tended to have higher rates of satisfaction than FtF supervisees that were attributed solely to interpersonally sensitive characteristics of their supervisors. Implications for counselor educators include effectively and purposefully training their supervisors. Supervisors should also be cognizant of the differences in what contributes to satisfaction in an online environment and how that differs from a FtF environment.

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Appendices

Qualitative Responses

Cyber Relational Attributes

Relational Attributes
Ability to help with case conceptualization, theoretical approaches
My supervisor provided constructive criticism, while encouraging me to think of alternative interventions that my client would benefit from.
Was very helpful and assisted with many issues.
My supervisor combines an effective blend of offering direction and guidance while letting me offer my own understanding and explanation.
Interaction, useful recommendations
Warmth
my sense of accomplishment fo the tasks I have been assigned.
Kindness, openness, compassion for clien, and passion for field of counseing
She was very open honest and helpful
Discussion of real world issues.
Openess & personal wellness
This is a fairly new process for me. I'm onlyh 3 weeks into my practicum experience so I'm kind of feeling my way through. My site supervisor is great. I feel confident that she cares about my development as a counselor and that she ultimately wants to see me grow. I feel confident that I will accomplish that under her supervision.
She was also positive and supportive.
My supervisor listens to me and explains when I have questions and suggest place to find answers.

She is very thoughtful and open in her communication.
Very affirming, warm, and interested in what I had to say. Very helpful!
I have a good rapport with my supervisor
Helpful relevant
approachable, willing to help and listen to the student
The patience he has when working with me
She was very easy to talk to, helpful without appearing condescending, and made the experience very easy.

Cyber Professional Attributes

Professional Attributes
Time to discuss issues adds to my satisfaction with a supervisor.
And feel his knowledge and expertise in the mental health area are beneficial to me.
He is very knowledgeable
The feedback I recieved
Value of my time. Being prepared to meet with me. Knowledgable on subject matter.
The supervisor was always available and willing to help me with any problems or questions I had. She always offered new and innovative perspectives.
Modeling
ability to interpret what is happening with clients, straightforward communication.
Open communication and constructive criticism with my supervisor.
Offers to join in various activities, trying to include me, spoke from positive approach
The way she treats her clients and co workers
The supervisor was very knowledgeable – she could answer practical questions about dealing with clients, she offered alternate ways of responding to clients, she was well-versed in various theoretical orientations and how these theories look in practice.

FtF Relational Attributes

Relational Attributes
attentiveness
openness and willingness to answer any questions I had, did not make me feel like a burden, but rather took the time to explain what she was doing and why etc.
The warmth of my supervisor and the environment he created that I was free to make mistakes and come with questions.
Ability to speak openly
The characteristics of the supervisor and the relationship she had with us students was very warm, understanding, and helped us to know that even though we were students in a learning environment that our opinions and ways of thinking mattered as well when it came to the treatment plan and therapeutic relationships with our clients.
My supervisor is one that is kind and understanding. She is empathic to each and every situation and helps me to see clients and situations differently. My supervisor is also understanding and respectful of my professional and personal needs/situation.
His ability to be flexibility and listening.
Level of comfort and positive direction given.
genuineness, understanding
Supervisor intuitiveness and warmth
my supervisor was very supportive of my ideas and ways of counseing
The supervisor's ability to help and understand me.
Being comfortable with my supervisor aids in me bringing up problems that I am having working with clients.

I was guided, encouraged and supported.
Help me to use my knowledge in the true session
He was very helpful (encouraging and resourceful) in helping me make the best of my difficult site.
My level of satisfaction is in direct proportion to the lack of interest in why I am there.
Great leadership, understanding and always willing to help.
I had a very good relationship with my supervisor. We understood each other very well and I think it contributed to us having a very effective working relationship during my practicum.
Personality. Supervision can be a very personal and frightening process for a new counselor, so I need someone whose personality puts me at ease. If I cannot bring myself to feel safe and trust my supervisor, because I feel they are critical, judgmental, cold, or uncaring, then I am unable to truly benefit from our relationship. I am less likely to confide in a supervisor whose personality does not speak of warmth and caring about my struggles with clients or my goals for my growing counseling skills. Support. I need to feel supported. Personality plays into this a bit, but I also need a supervisor who presents himself or herself as being open-minded and willing to support me in my explorations of counseling. If I want to practice a new technique with a client, I need to know that my supervisor will support and guide me in this process. If I reach a point where I am lost, stuck, or otherwise confused as to how to proceed with a client, I need my supervisor to gently guide me down the right path. Saying "I have faith in you" when I ask for help isn't helpful or supportive; the sentiment is nice, but if I'm asking for help it is because I genuinely need it.
She cared about me and was always there for me
encouragement and support

Quality of rapport with supervisor, their flexibility, the quality of the feedback and support they provided.
Unconditional positive regard, positivity, commitment to intern development
My supervisor was very warm and flexible. She made me feel comfortable and was able to offer feedback in a positive way.
She was very encouraging. Whatever idea I had that would be beneficial for the client she always let me do it.
My supervisor was not helpful and did not provide goals. She lacked understanding and warmth. The largest barrier was communication. She did not enjoy supervising.
he was understanding and helpful. He gave good information, resources, and cared that i did well
honesty, openness, dependability
positive work environment, supportive and available, understanding
Easily approachable, competent, supportive, encouraging.
She is keen on processing feelings during supervision and is invested in my learning.

FtF Professional Attributes

Professional Attributes
Time, no distractions
suggestions not being cancelled on being heard not feeling criticized
My supervisor was always willing to discuss any questions I had. She also set aside very specific time each week that was for supervision only.
That my supervisor trusts my abilities and has given me more freedom as my practicing has progressed.
Primarily, I prefer a supervisor who is open to my own personal conceptualization of client presentations and needs, treatment approaches, and planned course of treatment. I then prefer feedback of strengths, suggestions, and direction from her or his perspective.
trusting relationship in which I can openly discuss concerns, high degree of knowledge in specialty area, creative ideas that are compatible with both client needs and my goals for growth as a counselor
How laid back and understanding of the population he is.
The ability to consult with my supervisor and receive feedback on a regular basis.
She listens to me and makes time if I have any issues.
Constructive and thorough feedback
When she is encouraging as well as corrective in our sessions.
Her understanding of the counseling field and expertiese on different disorders that my clients may be suffering from.

Attention to my concerns: Current supervisor often checks her phone messages during session. I often feel she is too busy to listen to my concerns. Paperwork: Usually have to continue to remind her several times to sign or return signed paperwork.
My supervisor make a concerted effort to develop relationship during the supervision process.
Supervisor worked hard and was onowledgable
Being heard, given different perspectives about client issues and counseling theories
even though our approaches were very different. She spent time discussing treatment from my approach rather than hers.
Good.
My comfort in counseling client from all ages, different populations, and walks of life is because of the varying experiences.
knowledge/competency
Her experience in the field.
she takes the time to explain things and encourages my growth as a counselor
Level of Learning
My supervisor on campus is always available to me to ask questions. I can get a hold of him by visiting his office, e-mail, or call, and especially meeting for our practicum lecture and class. My supervisor at my practicum is wonderful and is very available to me when I have questions or need instruction.
but she was unhappy in her work environment and could be distant sometimes because of it. In fact she is leaving that place very soon.
Constructive criticism (both positive and negative), willingness to listen, attention to my needs
In class discussions

Availability
My supervisor modeled several therapeutic techniques for me prior to allowing me to implement them with clients. She also was very open to my questions.
my supervisor was avaliable and approachable.she was interested in my learning and encouraged self-care. meetings were useful, informative, and enjoyable.

Informed Consent

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research study examining the supervisee's perceptions of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. The overall objective of this research study is to explore how characteristics of the supervisory relationship relate to supervisee satisfaction of supervisees in face-to-face and online supervision. The study is conducted under the advisement of Dr. Melinda Gibbons and has been approved through the Institutional Review Board at the University of Tennessee.

In order to participate, you must meet ONE of the following criteria:

- currently enrolled in practicum in a master's level school or mental health counseling program that is CACREP accredited or CACREP-like in their requirements for supervision (i.e. receive at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision, either online or face-to-face)

OR

- Have completed your practicum experience in the last 6 months in a master's level school or mental health counseling program that is CACREP accredited or CACREP-like in their requirements for supervision (i.e. received at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision, either online or face-to-face)

The anonymous survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete and all information will be kept confidential. There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research. At the conclusion of the study, the researcher will donate $1.00 for each participant that completes the survey to the American Counseling Association Foundation which, among other things, helps graduate students by underwriting scholarships. The maximum amount to be donated will be $200.00 and, in an effort to maintain confidentiality, the donation will be made on behalf of "The participants of the dissertation study 'The supervisory relationship: Supervisee satisfaction in face-to-face vs cyber supervision' ".

The results of this study will help to inform counselor educators and supervisors by providing data on supervisees perceived differences in perception of satisfaction based on the approach used when providing supervision.

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the primary researcher, Lauren Bussey, at (615) 482-3551 or the faculty advisor, Melinda Gibbons, at (865) 974-4477. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Office of Research Compliance Officer at (865) 974-3466.

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

E-mail Invitation

Dear colleagues,

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research study examining the supervisee's perceptions of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. The overall objective of this research study is to explore how characteristics of the supervisory relationship relate to supervisee satisfaction of supervisees in face-to-face and online supervision. The study is conducted under the advisement of Dr. Melinda Gibbons and has been approved through the Institutional Review Board at the University of Tennessee.
In order to participate, you must meet ONE of the following criteria:

- currently enrolled in practicum in a master's level school or mental health counseling program that is CACREP accredited or CACREP-like in their requirements for supervision (i.e. receive at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision, either online or face-to-face)

OR

- Have completed your practicum experience in the last 6 months in a master's level school or mental health counseling program that is CACREP accredited or CACREP-like in their requirements for supervision (i.e. received at least one hour per week of individual or triadic supervision along with 1 ½ hours per week of group supervision, either online or face-to-face)

The anonymous survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete and all information will be kept confidential. There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research. At the conclusion of the study, the researcher will donate $1.00 for each participant that completes the survey to the American Counseling Association Foundation which, among other things, helps graduate students by underwriting scholarships. The maximum amount to be donated will be $200.00 and, in an effort to maintain confidentiality, the donation will be made on behalf of "The participants of the dissertation study 'The supervisory relationship: Supervisee satisfaction in face-to-face vs cyber supervision' ".
The results of this study will help to inform counselor educators and supervisors by providing data on supervisees perceived differences in perception of satisfaction based on the approach used when providing supervision.
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, (or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study,) you may contact Melinda Gibbons at 974-4477.
If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Office of Research Compliance Officer at (865) 974-3466.

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

Instruments

Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire

SUPERVISORY SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How would you rate the quality of the supervision you have received?

1	2	3	4
Excellent	*Good*	*Fair*	*Poor*

2. Did you get the kind of supervision you wanted?

1	2	3	4
No, definitely not	*No, not really*	*Yes, generally*	*Yes, definitely*

3. To what extent has this supervision fit your needs?

4	3	2	1
Almost all my needs have been met	*Most of my needs have been met*	*Only a few of my needs have been met*	*None of my needs have been met*

4. If a friend were in need of supervision, would you recommend this supervisor to him or her?

1	2	3	4
No, definitely not	*No, I don't think so*	*Yes, I think so*	*Yes, definitely*

5. How satisfied are you with the amount of supervision you have received?

1	2	3	4
Quite dissatisfied	*Indifferent or mildly dissatisfied*	*Mostly satisfied*	*Very satisfied*

6. Has the supervision you received helped you to deal more effectively in your role as a counselor or therapist?

4	3	2	1
Yes, definitely	*Yes, generally*	*No, not really*	*No, definitely not*

7. In an overall, general sense, how satisfied are you with the supervision you have received?

4	3	2	1
Very satisfied	*Mostly satisfied*	*Indifferent or mildly dissatisfied*	*Quite dissatisfied*

8. If you were to seek supervision again, would you come back to this supervisor?

1	2	3	4
No, definitely not	*No, I don't think so*	*Yes, I think so*	*Yes, definitely*

The score is the sum of the items.

Supervisory Working Alliance- Supervisee Form

SUPERVISORY WORKING ALLIANCE (SWA)—SUPERVISEE FORM

Instructions: Please indicate the frequency with which the behavior described in each of the following items seems characteristic of your work with your supervisor. After each item, check (*X*) the space over the number corresponding to the appropriate point of the following 7-point scale:

	1 *Almost Never*	2	3	4	5	6	7 *Almost Always*
1. I feel comfortable working with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My supervisor welcomes my explanations about the client's behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My supervisor makes the effort to understand me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My supervisor encourages me to talk about my work with clients in ways that are comfortable for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My supervisor is tactful when commenting about my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My supervisor encourages me to formulate my own interventions with the client.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My supervisor helps me talk freely in our sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My supervisor stays in tune with me during supervision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I understand client behavior and treatment technique similar to the way my supervisor does.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I feel free to mention to my supervisor any troublesome feelings I might have about him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My supervisor treats me like a colleague in our supervisory sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. In supervision, I am more curious than anxious when discussing my difficulties with clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. In supervision, my supervisor places a high priority on our understanding the client's perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My supervisor encourages me to take time to understand what the client is saying and doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. My supervisor's style is to carefully and systematically consider the material I bring to supervision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. When correcting my errors with a client, my supervisor offers alternative ways of intervening with that client.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. My supervisor helps me work within a specific treatment plan with my clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. My supervisor helps me stay on track during our meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I work with my supervisor on specific goals in the supervisory session.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The supervisee form of the SWA has two scales, scored as follows:

Rapport: Sum items 1–12, then divide by 12.

Client Focus: Sum items 13–19, then divide by 6.

Supervisory Styles Inventory

SUPERVISORY STYLES INVENTORY

For supervisees' form: Please indicate your perception of the style of your current or most recent supervisor of psychotherapy/counseling on each of the following descriptors. Circle the number on the scale, from 1 to 7, which best reflects your view of him or her.
For supervisors' form: Please indicate your perceptions of your style as a supervisor of psychotherapy/counseling on each of the following descriptors. Circle the number on the scale, from 1 to 7, which best reflects your view of yourself.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Not very						*Very*
1. goal-oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. perceptive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. concrete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. explicit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. committed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. affirming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. practical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. sensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. collaborative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. intuitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. reflective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. responsive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. structured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. evaluative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. prescriptive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. didactic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. thorough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. focused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. open	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. realistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. resourceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. invested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. facilitative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. therapeutic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. trusting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. humorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring key: *Attractive:* Sum items 15, 16, 22, 23, 29, 30, 33; divide by 7.
Interpersonally sensitive: Sum items 2, 5, 10, 11, 21, 25, 26, 28; divide by 8.
Task oriented: Sum items 1, 3, 4, 7, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20; divide by 10.
Filler items: 6, 8, 9, 12, 24, 27, 31, 32.

Vita

Lauren Bussey was born in Greenwood, Mississippi to Mike and Debbie Bussey. She attended and graduated from Cruger-Tchula Academy in Cruger, MS. She received her Bachelors of Science degree in Interdisciplinary Studies in Math, Business, and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) from Delta State University in Cleveland, MS in 2006. After working in the GIS field for a short time, she decided to go to graduate school and, after exploration, decided upon Mental Health Counseling. She graduated From Delta State University in 2009 with a Master of Education degree in Community Counseling. After moving to Nashville, TN and working as a family counselor, she was accepted into the Counselor Education doctoral program at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville.