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Old Dominion University

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**THE ROLE OF SUPERVISOR-SUPERVISEE CULTURAL DIFFERENCES,
SUPERVISOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE, AND THE SUPERVISORY
WORKING ALLIANCE IN SUPERVISION OUTCOMES: A MODERATED
MEDIATION MODEL**

by

Stephanie A. Crockett
B.A. December 2002, King College
M.S. Ed. May 2008, Old Dominion University

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

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Approved by:

Danica G. Hays (Chair)

John A. Nunnery (Methodologist)

Suzan K. Thompson (Member)

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF SUPERVISOR-SUPERVISEE CULTURAL DIFFERENCES, SUPERVISOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE, AND THE SUPERVISORY WORKING ALLIANCE IN SUPERVISION OUTCOMES: A MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL

Stephanie A. Crockett
Old Dominion University, 2011
Dissertation Chair: Dr. Danica G. Hays

As the United States population grows more diverse, many counseling professionals have called for attention to the cultural issues present in clinical supervision. Existing research suggests that the supervisor's level of multicultural competence and the strength of the supervisory working alliance may affect the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervision outcomes. Accordingly, the study sought to address how cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee, supervisor multicultural competence, and the supervisory working alliance impact supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision.

The study examined the plausibility of a moderated mediation model, derived from the literature, using a sample of doctoral and master's level counselor trainees who were receiving individual supervision. Participants completed an electronic survey packet containing a demographic sheet to measure the degree of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, the Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S) to measure strength of the supervisory working alliance, the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI) to measure perceived supervisory multicultural competence, the Counselor Self-

Estimate Inventory (COSE) to measure supervisee counseling self-efficacy (CSE), and Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R) to measure supervisee satisfaction with supervision. SEM techniques were used to determine the extent to which the theoretical model is supported by sample data, as well as the relationships between the model's parameters.

The results indicated supervisor-supervisee cultural differences were not significantly related to the supervision outcome variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. However, supervisor multicultural competence was significantly related to both supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, with the supervisory working alliance fully mediating the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Lastly, the moderated mediation model was found to be a good fit to the data; however, the modified mediation model was the most parsimonious fit to the data. Implications of these findings for supervisors and counselor educators are discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The 21st century has ushered in an era of extraordinary cultural diversity across the United States. In 2005, the U.S. Census Bureau reported that a third of the total U.S. population is comprised of racial minorities, with Hispanic and Latino Americans accounting for nearly half of the national population growth. Changes in the U.S. demographic have also been documented in terms of age and religious orientation (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). With the United States population growing more and more diverse, the counseling profession has become increasingly focused on and aware of the impact of cultural dimensions in the field. Many counseling professionals have called for attention to the cultural issues present in clinical supervision, particularly the individual differences between supervisor and supervisees (Banks, 2001; Lee, Nichols, Nichols, & Odom, 2004). Despite this call to action, research concerning clinical supervision has, for the most part, ignored the influence of individual cultural differences on supervisory process and outcomes.

Existing research regarding cultural differences in supervision does suggest that the presence of racial, gender, and age differences in supervision may have a negative impact on supervisory process and supervisee functioning. In a landmark study examining the effect of racial differences in supervision, Vander Kolk (1974) found Black supervisees were more likely than White supervisees to anticipate their White supervisors would lack empathy, respect, and congruence. Subsequent studies also concluded that supervisees belonging to a racial minority group experienced discrimination, felt disempowered, uncomfortable, less satisfied, and expected more

problems than benefits in cross-racial supervision (Adair, 2001; Burkard, Knox, Hess, & Schultz, 2006; Cook & Helms, 1988; Hird, Cavalieri, Dulko, Felice, & Ho, 2001; Riley, 2004). Related to gender differences, researchers have also reported that female trainees are often disempowered in supervision as supervisors may not support female supervisee attempts to assume an expert role and rate female supervisees lower with regard to their clinical skills (Anderson, Schlossber, & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000; Chung, Marshall, & Gordon, 2001; Granello, 2003; Nelson & Holloway, 1990). Lastly, research findings suggest that age differences between the supervisor and supervisee negatively impact the supervisor's perception of supervisee competence and the supervisory working alliance, which decrease supervisee feelings of trust, liking, and caring for their supervisor (Granello, 2003; Suzen, 2002).

Past research (e.g., Cook & Helms, 1988; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen, 2002; Vander Kolk, 1974) indicates that supervisor-supervisee differences in race, gender, and age do appear to have a direct and negative impact on supervisory processes and supervisee functioning, though more recent research suggests that this relationship is more complex and relies on additional variables such as the supervisory working alliance and supervisor multicultural competence. Scholars have exerted that the nature and quality of the supervisory working alliance may indirectly affect, or mediate, the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Nelson, Gray, Friedlander, Ladany, & Walker, 2001). Several studies provide empirical evidence supporting the supervisory working alliance as a mediator variable (Gray, Ladany, Walker, & Ancis, 2001; Quarto, 2002; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002; Ting, 2009), but few researchers have examined the role of the

supervisory working alliance in the relationship between supervisory cultural differences and supervision outcomes. Cheon Blumer, Shih, Murphy, and Sato (2009) explored the relationships among cultural differences, the supervisory relationship, and supervisee satisfaction, finding that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee impacted supervisee satisfaction, but this relationship lost its significance when accounting for the strength of supervisory working alliance. Cheon et al. concluded that the supervisory working alliance appeared to be a vehicle through which supervisor-supervisee cultural differences influences supervision outcomes. Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002) and Nelson and Friedlander (2002) explored the impact of negative supervision experiences on supervision outcomes and found that negative experiences in supervision related to cultural misunderstandings led to a weakening of the supervisor alliance. The weakening of the alliance, in turn, decreased trainee satisfaction with supervision, adversely impacted the counseling alliance, and led to trainee self-doubt and the experience of extreme stress.

Despite the unfavorable consequences inherent in the provision of multicultural supervision, supervisors who demonstrate multicultural competence in supervision may be able to mitigate the negative effects of cultural differences on supervision processes and outcomes. In particular, supervisors who demonstrate interest in supervisee cultural background, maintain a positive attitude towards cultural differences, openly discuss cultural differences in supervision, and convey warmth and support are capable of building a strong supervisory relationship with supervisees of a different race, gender, or sexual orientation (Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Hilton, Russell, & Salmi, 1995; Walker, Ladany, & Pate-Carolan, 2007). This relationship, which is built on trust and mutual

respect, seems to be positively correlated with supervisee satisfaction with supervision, as well as self-reported multicultural competence and confidence in counseling abilities (Constantine, 2001; Ladany, Inman, Constantine, & Hofheinz; 1997; Vereen, Hill, & McNeal, 2008). Burkard et al. (2009) found supervisees reported that lesbian, gay, and bi-sexual (LGB) affirmative experiences in supervision strengthened the supervisory relationship, increased supervisee disclosure in supervision, and positively affected the supervisee's clinical work.

Likewise, Walker et al. (2007) found that trainees who reported supportive gender-related events were more likely to self-disclose in supervision than trainees who experienced non-supportive gender-related events. Furthermore, Gatmon et al. (2001) discovered that the provision of an open and safe supervision atmosphere with frequent opportunities to discuss cultural differences was related to a strong supervisory working alliance and increased supervisee satisfaction with supervision. He concluded that the occurrence of quality cultural discussions may positively influence the strength of the supervisory working alliance and supervision outcomes. Finally, Burkard et al. (2009) and Inman (2006) found that supervisor's level of multicultural competence in supervision was positively associated with the strength of the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Inman's (2006) results further suggested that the supervisory working alliance was a significant mediator in the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervision satisfaction. These studies collectively assert that the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes is not direct. Instead, the outcomes of

multicultural supervision seem to be related to the supervisor's level of multicultural competence and ability to establish a strong supervisory working alliance.

In recent decades, the counseling profession has become increasingly aware of the impact of cultural dimensions on the process and outcome of supervision. While current studies suggest that supervisor multicultural competence may mitigate the negative consequences associated supervisor-supervisee cultural differences through the establishment of a strong supervisory working alliance, further investigation is warranted. Little research addresses the presence of cultural differences in supervision, and only a few researchers have examined the role of supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance in the provision of multicultural supervision. Existing studies (e.g., Adair, 2001; Cook & Helms, 1988; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Granello, 2003; Hilton et al., 1995; Ladany, Nicholas, Brittan-Powell, & Pannu, 1997; Lichtenberg & Goodyear, 2000; Vander Kolk; 1974) are heavily focused on supervisor-supervisee racial/ethnic and gender differences, and, with the exception of Granello's study, fail to consider the impact of cultural factors such as age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation on supervision outcomes. Most of these studies have also emerged from the psychology literature and survey the experiences of psychology trainees, thus limiting the generalizability of the results to counseling trainees and their experience in multicultural supervision. No study, to date, has investigated how both supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance impact the relationship between counseling supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcome

Rationale for the Study

Counseling supervisors are increasingly encountering supervisees who differ from them in terms of age, race, gender, spiritual orientation, and sexual orientation (Constantine, 1997; Halpert & Pfaller, 2001; Hird et al, 2001 ; Toporek, Ortega-Villalobos, & Pope-Davis, 2004). While supervision is a critical component in the training of competent and effective counselors, the literature suggests that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences may negatively impact supervisee professional functioning. In particular, supervisees who are culturally different from their supervisors with regard to race/ethnicity, age, or gender experience decreased satisfaction with supervision, lowered self-efficacy, became cynical and distrustful of their supervisor, and reported a lower working alliance with their clients (Cook & Helms, 1988; Granello, 2003; Hird et al., 2001; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001; Suzen, 2002). Given that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences in supervision may actually hinder supervisee professional functioning, it is imperative that the counseling field understand how cultural factors present in supervision influence counseling supervisees and their clients.

It is furthermore essential for supervisors to understand how their level of multicultural competence and ability to build a strong supervisory working alliance with culturally diverse supervisees impacts supervision outcomes. Research reports that supervisors in general do not believe it is important to address multicultural issues or had not given much thought to multicultural issues in supervision (Constantine, 1997; Hird et al., 2004). Additionally, Constantine found that the majority of supervisors in her study had less multicultural training than their supervisees, and concluded that these supervisors might experience difficulty in providing multiculturally competent

supervision. These findings are, perhaps, reflective of the counseling field's delayed attention to multicultural issues in supervision and supervisor multicultural competence. To date, no unifying definition or set of standards has been adopted by the American Counseling Association (ACA) or Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES). Instead, researchers and practitioners must rely on conceptual frameworks with little to no empirical support to guide their research and work with culturally diverse supervisees. As a result, the field needs an empirically tested model that explains the role of supervisor multicultural competence in the provision and outcomes of supervision when cultural differences are present in supervision.

In accordance with the needs of the field, the proposed study seeks to address how cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee impact supervision outcomes such as supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision. In particular, the researcher will empirically test a model that examines the direct relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes, as well as the indirect impact of the supervisory working alliance and supervisor level of multicultural competence on the relationship between cultural differences and supervision outcomes. The researcher hopes that the study will yield a rigorously tested model that facilitates the field's understanding of multicultural supervision and enhances supervisors' ability to work with culturally diverse supervisees.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The overarching purpose of the research study was to test the plausibility of a theoretical model that conceptually depicts the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working

alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, the researcher tested a theoretical one-mediator, moderated mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher et al., 2007) developed for this study. The model proposes that the supervisory working alliance may mediate the negative effects of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervision outcomes. It suggests that supervisees, who perceive their supervisors to have higher levels of multicultural competence will: 1) experience a stronger working alliance, 2) be more satisfied with supervision, and 3) have higher self-efficacy with regard to their counseling skills than supervisees who perceived their supervisors to have lower levels of multicultural competence.

To evaluate the plausibility of the proposed theoretical model, this study considered the following research questions and hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Do supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence have a direct effect on supervisee CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision?

Hypothesis 1a:

- Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences will have a direct, negative effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation have lower satisfaction with supervision and lower counseling self-efficacy than supervisees who are similar to their supervisor in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and spiritual orientation.

Hypothesis 1b:

- Supervisor multicultural competence will have a direct, positive effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. Supervisors who demonstrate higher levels of multicultural competence will positively impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision and counseling self-efficacy.

Research Question 2: Does the supervisory working alliance mediate the relationships between the independent variable (i.e., supervisor-supervisee cultural differences), the moderator variable (i.e., supervisor multicultural competence), and the outcome variables (i.e., supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE)?

Hypothesis 2a:

- The effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision is mediated by supervisory working alliance. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation have a weaker working alliance with their supervisors and those with weaker working alliance are less likely to be satisfied with supervision and lower counseling self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2b:

- The effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision is mediated by supervisory working alliance. Supervisees who perceive their supervisors to be multiculturally competent will have a stronger working alliance with their supervisors, and those with a stronger working alliance are more likely to be satisfied with supervision and have a higher counseling self-efficacy.

Research Question 3: Does supervisor multicultural competence moderate the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE through the supervisory working alliance?

Hypothesis 3:

- The indirect effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance is moderated by supervisor multicultural competence. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation will have a stronger working alliance when they perceive the supervisor to have high multicultural competence. The stronger working alliance will lead to higher satisfaction with supervision and higher counseling self-efficacy.

Definition of Terms

Counseling Self-Efficacy

Counseling self-efficacy (CSE) is related to Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy construct and refers to "one's [subjective] beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future" (Larson & Daniels, 1998, p. 180). Larson et al. (1992) exerted that CSE is comprised of five factors: counseling microskills, process variables (i.e., counselor actions over a series of responses), difficult client behavior, cultural competence, and awareness of own values. Counselors with strong CSE believe they are highly capable of providing effective counseling services, whereas counselors with low CSE believe their counseling skills are inadequate. It is furthermore assumed that strong CSE beliefs decrease counselor anxiety and increase

performance levels, enhance counselor perseverance in the face of difficult clients and counselor tasks, and strengthen the counselor's ability to accept and integrate constructive feedback into their counseling work (Bandura, 1982; Larson & Daniels, 1998).

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision, for the purposes of this study, is defined by Bernard and Goodyear (2009). Bernard and Goodyear, who developed the most comprehensive and widely used definition of supervision, assert that

Supervision is an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession. This relationship is evaluative, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional functioning of the more junior person(s), monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the clients that she, he, or they see, and serving as a gatekeeper for those who are able to enter the particular profession. (p. 7).

It is important to note supervision is a distinct intervention that is separate from, but involves elements of teaching, counseling, and consultation. Supervision, as an intervention, has two primary purposes: 1) to assist supervisees in developing the skills and competencies necessary for licensure or certification, and 2) to monitor the welfare of the supervisee's clients. Bernard and Goodyear recognize safeguarding client welfare as the supervisor's paramount responsibility, which is achieved by overseeing the performance of the supervisee in counseling sessions and the teaching of clinical skills that guide competent practice.

Cultural Difference

The term cultural difference is derived from the field of anthropology and is used to describe the physical characteristics and socially transmitted behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values that distinguish one group of people from another (Pope-Davis & Coleman, 1997). Cultural differences manifest through the expression of several characteristics (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, age, religion, nationality, physical ability) that define individual identity and contribute to one's life story (Robinson & Howard-Hamilton, 2000). This study considered cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee with regard to race/ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation. The researcher chose these demographic variables as they were the most widely researched in the supervision literature.

To quantitatively measure these cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee, a variable called "cultural difference" was created from five demographic components (i.e., age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation) to indicate the degree of difference between supervisee and supervisor (Cheon et al., 2009). To create this variable, supervisees who expressed the same gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation as their supervisor received a score of "1" on each item. Participants were asked to indicate the supervisor's age range (e.g., 20-24, 25-29, 30-34). Those who placed their supervisor in a different age range than their own received a score of "1" on the age item. Scores on the cultural difference variable ranged from 0 to 5, with lower scores indicating a higher degree of cultural difference.

Direct Path Model

An alternative model to the moderated mediation model, tested in this study. The direct path model is a nested model, meaning that it was developed by fixing some of the free parameters in the moderated mediation model to 0.00. The direct model tested hypotheses 1a and 1b, which exerted that: 1) supervisor-supervisee multicultural competence negatively impacted supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, and 2) supervisor multicultural competence was positively related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE.

Measurement Model

A term used in SEM to refer to a model that specifies the relationships among the observed variables underlying the latent variables. Directional relationships between the latent variables are not specified in the measurement model.

Mediated Model

An alternative model to the moderated mediation model, tested in this study. The mediated model is a nested model, meaning that it was developed by fixing some of the free parameters in the moderated mediation model to 0.00. The mediation model tested hypotheses 2a and 2b, which exerted that the supervisory working alliance mediated the direct relationships between: 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, and 2) supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE.

Mediator Variable

A mediator variable provides an explanation for the “how” or “why” a variable predicts or causes an outcome variable. In particular, a variable is said to function as a mediator to the extent that it explains the relationship between the predictor and an

outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Mediator variables do not impact the strength or direction of a relationship between two variables, but can be thought of as the mechanism through which the predictor variable influences the outcome variable (Frazier, Tix, & Baron, 2004). Statistically, complete mediation occurs when the predictor variable no longer affects the outcome variable after the mediator has been controlled, whereas partial mediation occurs when the strength of the relationship between the predictor and outcome variables is lowered, but remains significantly different from zero when the mediator variable is controlled (James & Brett, 1984; Muller, Judd, & Yzebryt, 2005).

Moderator Variable

Whereas a mediator variable explains how or why relationships between predictor and outcome variables occur, a moderator variable specifies when relationships between the predictor and outcome variable occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier et al., 2004). A moderator variable affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between a predictor and outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A moderator effect, according to Frazier et al. (2004), is an interaction through which the effect of the predictor variable depends on the level of the moderator variable. For example, the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes may be moderated by the supervisor's level of multicultural competence, in that the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes would be positive when supervisor's demonstrated high levels of multicultural competence.

Moderated Mediation

Theoretical models and hypotheses may involve both mediation and moderator

effects. In particular, models may have interaction effects that are hypothesized to be mediated or indirect effects that are hypothesized to be moderated (Baron & Kenny, 1984; Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher, & Crandall, 2007). Moderated mediation refers to models wherein the mediated effect varies across levels of a moderator. More specifically, the effect of the predictor variable on the mediator depends on the moderator or the partial effect of the mediator on the outcome depends on the moderator, or both (Muller et al., 2005). The potency of the mediating process depends on the moderator, implying that the indirect relationship between the predictor and outcome variables relies on the moderator (Muller et al., 2005).

Moderated Mediation Model

The main structural model tested in this study. The model exerts that 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence are directly related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE; 2) the supervisory working alliance will serve as a mediating variable between the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the outcome variables (i.e., supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE), and supervisor multicultural competence, and the outcome variables (i.e., supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE); and 3) that supervisor multicultural competence moderates the relationship between supervisee-supervisor cultural differences and the supervisory working alliance.

Multicultural Supervision

Early researchers used the terms multicultural supervision and cross-cultural supervision interchangeably to refer to supervision involving racial or ethnic differences between supervisor and supervisee (Leong & Wagner, 1994). In recent years, the field has

started recognize that supervisors and supervisees are multifaceted in terms of culture and bring multiple aspects of their cultural background into supervision. Guanipa (2003) defines multicultural supervision as the “process of coaching, mentoring, training, supporting, and facilitating learning that occurs between a professionally trained clinical supervisor and a supervisee in training who are from different backgrounds, including variations within groups” (p. 60). This definition assumes that all supervision experiences are multicultural and involve dynamics related to cultural differences. Accordingly, multicultural supervision is said to occur when “two or more culturally different persons with different ways of perceiving their social environment and experiences are brought together in a supervisory relationship with the resulting content, process, and outcomes that are affected by these cultural dynamics” (Garrett et al., 2001, p.149).

Structural Model

A term used in SEM to refer to a model that indicates how the latent variables in the model are related. The direction of the relationships among the latent variables is specified by a arrow. The structural model differs from the measurement model, as the measurement model only specifies the relationships among the observed variables underlying the latent variables. Directional relationships between the latent variables are not specified in the measurement model.

Supervisee

The term supervisee is used inclusively in this study to broadly refer students and/or postgraduate professionals who are seeking supervision. A counseling trainee, on the other hand, is used to denote a supervisee who is still enrolled in a formal training program. It should be noted that, in most cases, supervisee will be used.

Supervisee Satisfaction with Supervision

Holloway and Wampold (1984) proposed that supervisee satisfaction with supervision was comprised of three components: 1) the trainee's reaction to the supervisor's perceived qualities and performance, 2) the trainee's perception of his/her own behavior in supervision, and 3) the trainee's level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. The scholars asserted that supervisees, who are satisfied with their supervision experiences, often admire their supervisor's personal qualities and performance, and strive to cooperate with their supervisors. They also assumed that the presence of an emotional bond in supervision allows supervisees to feel comfortable with self-disclosure, as well as to accept supervisor feedback in order to increase their counseling competence.

Supervision Outcome

Supervision outcome will be defined as the measurable outcome or benefit accrued to a supervisee resulting from the provision of supervision. Bernard and Goodyear (2009) exerted that a primary outcome of supervision included the enhancement of supervisee professional functioning. Specifically, supervisees should develop the interviewing and interpersonal skills necessary for eventual licensure or certification (Lambert & Ogles, 1997). In addition to skill development, several scholars have exerted that supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision are desired outcomes of supervision as they facilitate supervisee professional functioning (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Johnson, et al., 1989; Ladany, Lehrman-Waterman, Molinaro, & Wolgast, 1999; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982)

Supervisor Multicultural Competence

The term supervisor multicultural competence emerged from Sue, Arredondo, and McDavis's (1992) conceptualization of counseling multicultural competence. It is defined as the supervisor's awareness, knowledge, and skills with regard to working with culturally diverse supervisees (Hird et al., 2004). Scholars exert that multiculturally competent supervisors possess awareness, knowledge, and skills across five specific dimensions that include supervisor and supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Inman, 2006). Currently, ACA and ACES have not endorsed a standard definition of supervision multicultural competence or a set of multicultural competencies to guide the practice of supervision.

Supervisory Working Alliance

For the purposes of this study, Bordin's (1979) proposed pantheoretical conceptualization of the therapeutic working alliance will be used. Bordin's model of the working alliance includes three factors: (1) the extent to which therapist and clients agree on therapeutic goals, (2) the extent to which the therapist and client agree on the therapeutics tasks need to accomplish the goals, and (3) the emotional bond that forms between the therapist and client. Bordin believed this working alliance, between the person seeking change and the therapist, played a key role in facilitating therapeutic change.

In 1983, Bordin extended his work on the therapeutic working alliance to include the supervisory relationship and established a tripartite model of the supervisory working alliance. Similar to the therapeutic working alliance, Bordin suggested that a strong supervisory alliance developed when the supervisor and trainee agreed on the goals and

tasks of supervision, and were able to establish an emotional bond. He viewed the working alliance as a dynamic relationship in which supervisors and trainees continually negotiated goals and tasks. As a result, the working alliance experienced weakenings and repairs throughout the supervision process.

Trainee

Trainee is the term used to refer to supervisees still enrolled in a formal training program.

Delimitations

In research, delimitations refer to those characteristics that limit the scope of inquiry as a result of intentional decisions that were made throughout the development of the research proposal and design (Creswell, 2009). Establishing the limits or boundaries of a study can heighten an understanding of the generalizability and utility of research results. Accordingly, this section will outline the topics and work that will not be undertaken in this particular study.

This study will be restricted to master's and doctoral level counseling trainees who are receiving individual clinical supervision at the time of data collection. Persons receiving administrative supervision focusing only on supervisory activities that increase the efficiency of the delivery of counseling services will not be included. In addition, persons who are currently enrolled in psychology, social work, or other social science academic programs will not participate in this study. Triadic supervision, which refers to a relationship between a supervisor and two supervisees, and group supervision, which refers to a relationship between a supervisor and more than two supervisees, will also not be considered. Data collection regarding participant perceptions of multicultural

differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the working alliance, and supervision outcomes will only occur within the context of supervision that occurs one-on-one.

Students receiving only triadic or group supervision will not be included in this study.

The study will only consider master's and doctoral level counselors-in-training who are currently enrolled in university counselor education programs, and are working with

clients in applied settings as part of their university training program. Counselors who have completed their formal education and are employed in an applied counseling setting

will not be included. Lastly, this study is primarily concerned with the cultural

differences that exist between the supervisor and supervisee. While some scholars

(Vereen et al. 2008; Walker et al, 2007) define multicultural supervision as a triadic

relationship that includes cultural differences between the supervisor, supervisee, and

client, this study does not consider the role of client cultural differences in the

supervision process and outcomes. Due to the restrictions of this study, the resulting

model may not accurately translate to counselors who have completed their formal

training, and are receiving administrative supervision, group clinical supervision, or

triadic clinical supervision.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides an in depth review of the literature concerning clinical supervision outcomes, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, the supervisory working alliance, and supervisory multicultural competence. The review of the literature begins by defining clinical supervision and highlighting research that considers counseling self-efficacy (CSE) and supervisee satisfaction with supervision as outcome variables of clinical supervision. Literature regarding the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervision outcomes is then outlined, with attention given to studies that specifically examine the role of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. The literature review also expounds on the working alliance as it relates to supervision and provides evidence for the supervisory working alliance as a mediator variable. Specifically, factors that strengthen or weaken the alliance and the role of the alliance in supervision outcomes are explored. Lastly, a thorough description of supervisor multicultural competence and existing competency standards specific to clinical supervision is presented. Empirical studies that examine the impact of supervisor multicultural competence on the supervisory working alliance, CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision are described to demonstrate the moderating role supervisor multicultural competence plays clinical supervision.

Clinical Supervision Outcomes

Clinical supervision is the principle method used in counselor education programs to prepare students to provide effective counseling services. Many scholars (e.g., Guest & Beutler, 1988; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; Newman, Kopta, McGovern,

Howard, & McNeilly, 1988; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1988; Vasquez, 1992) have defined clinical supervision, but Bernard and Goodyear's (2009) definition of supervision is the most comprehensive and widely used in the counseling and psychology literature. According to Bernard and Goodyear:

Supervision is an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession. This relationship is evaluative, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional functioning of the more junior person(s), monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the clients that she, he, or they see, and serving as a gatekeeper for those who are able to enter the particular profession. (p. 7)

This definition recognizes two central purposes of supervision (a) to enhance the professional functioning of the supervisee, and (b) to monitor the quality of professional services offered to the clients. While monitoring client welfare is an essential goal of supervision and is the supervisor's paramount responsibility, Bernard and Goodyear (2009) maintained that the primary purpose of supervision is to enhance supervisee professional functioning. Several scholars (e.g., Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Cashwell & Dooley, 2001; Crutchfield & Borders, 1997; Larson & Daniels, 1998) have further exerted that supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision are components of effective supervision that facilitate supervisee professional functioning. This section further explores the role of counseling efficacy and satisfaction with supervision as viable outcome variables in supervision, as well as the how they contribute to counselor professional functioning and level of competence.

Counseling Self-Efficacy

According to Bernard and Goodyear (2009) supervision facilitates supervisees' professional functioning and level of competence by increasing their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, in general, is concerned with "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p.122). The belief in one's ability to successfully execute a desired behavior is based on cognitive appraisals of past performance and significantly impacts an individual's approach to future goals, tasks, and challenges (Bandura, 1977, 1982). Specifically, Bandura (1977) exerted that personal efficacy influenced (1) whether or not a task is attempted, (2) the degree of effort expended on the task, and (3) the ability to persevere when faced with obstacles and aversive experiences. If an individual attempts and, through perseverance, successfully accomplishes a task at which failure was likely, perceived self-efficacy will increase and thus, one's ability to future improve his or her skills (Johnson, Baker, Kopala, Kiselica, & Thompson, 1989). Lower self-efficacy, on the other hand, leads to less effort exerted and decreased persistence, which results in failure (Bandura, 1977).

Counseling self-efficacy (CSE) is related to Bandura's (1977) general self-efficacy construct, but focuses specifically on "one's [subjective] beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future" (Larson & Daniels, 1998, p. 180). According to Larson et al. (1992) CSE is comprised of five factors: counseling microskills, process variables (i.e., counselor actions over a series of responses), difficult client behavior, cultural competence, and awareness of own values. Scholars view an individual's perceptions of his or her ability to effectively counsel as the primary mechanism through which effective counseling occurs (Larson & Daniels, 1998). A counselor with strong CSE believes he or she is highly capable of providing

effective counseling services, whereas a counselor with low CSE believes his or her counseling skills are inadequate. In particular, strong CSE beliefs are correlated with decreased counselor anxiety and increased performance levels, enhanced counselor perseverance in the face of difficult clients and counselor tasks, and the counselor's ability to accept and integrate constructive feedback into his or her counseling work (Bandura, 1982; Larson & Daniels, 1998). As a result, CSE, in addition to skill acquisition, is often a desired outcome of clinical supervision.

The provision of supervision does appear to be correlated with increases in counselor trainee self-efficacy. Larson et al. (1992) found that counselor trainees' who had received supervision reported increased self-efficacy over time. Participants who received between one and six semesters of supervision had significantly higher levels of CSE than participants who had not received supervision. Similarly, Cashwell and Dooley (2001), as well as Kozina, Grabovari, Stefano, & Drapeau (2010) observed that the provision of clinical supervision was related to higher levels of CSE in counseling trainees. In a study that investigated the relationship between self-efficacy, school climate, counselor roles, and demographic information, Sutton and Fall (1995) found support was the strongest predictor of school counselor self-efficacy. Crutchfield and Borders (1997) designed a mixed-methods study to determine the impact of two peer supervision models on practicing school counselors. While an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) did not show statistically significant results, the researchers reported a trend towards higher levels of self-efficacy in the groups receiving supervision. Themes derived from the qualitative data further suggested that participants attributed professional support and concrete feedback received in supervision to their counseling

effectiveness. Daniels and Larson (2001) also found that positive feedback performance was beneficial in increasing trainee CSE. In particular, positive feedback that was attentive to counselor strengths enhanced participant CSE, whereas negative feedback, which included the identification of areas for improvement, lowered participant CSE and increased their anxiety. Last, Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) found that CSE was positively correlated with a task-oriented supervisory style. Counselor trainees who participated in this study reported higher levels of CSE when they perceived supervision to be highly structured and focused on the goals of supervision.

Research further demonstrates that aims to enhance CSE during supervision may be most effective during the early stages of counselor skill development (Larson, Clark, Wesley, Koraleski, & Daniels, 1999). In fact, Sutton and Fall (1995) found that after counselors receive some supervision, the relationship between CSE and supervision is minimal. A lack of supervision, professional support, and negative feedback during these early developmental stages has, on the other hand, been shown to be related to decreased levels of CSE, as well as increased levels of stress and burn out, feelings of aloneness, anxiety, and unhappiness, job termination, and an actual decline in counseling skills (Crutchfield & Borders, 1997; Daniels & Larson, 2001; Peace, 1995; Spooner & Stone, 1977; Watkins, 1997). Such results have led theorists and researchers to conclude that the development of high CSE may be as important in as developing effective counseling skills (Johnson, et al., 1989; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982).

The assertion that CSE is an important outcome of clinical supervision is based on the theoretical postulation that counselor supervisees' beliefs in their ability to effectively counsel clients will lead to improved counseling performance (Larson et al., 1999; Romi

& Teichman, 1995). Constantine (2001) stated, "these self-efficacious feelings may translate directly into [counselor] trainees' actual work with clients" (p. 95). Jaafar, Mohamed, Bakar, and Tamizi (2009) demonstrated that CSE was a significant predictor of self-ratings of counseling performance in a sample of 100 counseling trainees. These results were supported by previous research studies (Johnson, et al., 1989; Salmi, 1992), which also found a positive, linear relationship between trainee self-efficacy and counselor self-ratings of performance. In a review of the literature on CSE, Larson and Daniels (1998) identified five additional studies that found a moderate to strong positive relationship between CSE and counselor self-evaluations of performance (Beverage, 1989; Daniels, 1997; Larson et al., 1992, 1996, 1998). While counselor self-evaluations appear to be related to CSE, Larson and Daniels (1998) reported that only 3 out of 6 studies in the literature (Larson et al., 1992; Munson, Stadulis, & Munson, 1986; Watson, 1992) found a significant, positive correlation between CSE and counselor performance measured by trained raters. Additionally, of the two studies that used supervisor ratings of counselor performance, only one study (Beverage, 1989) reported a strong relationship between CSE and counselor performance. In a dissertation study concerning the relationship between CSE, outcome expectancies, and counselor performance, Iannelli (2000) also found CSE to be a better predictor of counselor's self-rated performance than of supervisors' ratings of counselor performance. Based on the outcomes of the proceeding studies, it seems reasonable to conclude that CSE is a predictor of overall counselor performance. The majority of these studies, however, utilized counselor self-reports of performance to examine the relationship between CSE and counseling performance.

Researchers, who used trained raters or supervisors to rate trainee performance, often found that CSE was not significantly related to counseling performance. These mixed findings suggest that, in some cases, supervision may be facilitating trainee feelings of competence about their counseling, instead of contributing to the actual mastery of counseling skills and techniques (Barnes, 2004).

Although the complexities among CSE and counseling performance remain unclear in literature, CSE is related to other variables relevant to counselor training and supervision. CSE has been found to be positively related counselor development, specifically counselor training level and experience (Larson et al., 1992; Leach, Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Eichenfield, 1997), as well as counselor self-concept, and ability to solve problems effectively (Larson et al, 1992). Sipps, Sugden, and Faiver (1988) furthermore observed that CSE increased counselor expectations of counseling outcomes and Larson et al. (1992) found counselor satisfaction with outcome expectancies regarding a mock interview was related to higher levels of CSE. Lastly, studies have demonstrated a negative relationship between CSE and counselor anxiety. Larson et al. (1992) reported that high CSE was correlated with low state and trait anxiety in counselor trainees. Similarly, Birk and Mahalik (1996) observed that counselor anxiety levels were related to self-perceptions of effectiveness with their clients. CSE, therefore, is important to the training of competent counselors and should remain at the forefront of counselor training and supervision research.

Supervisee Satisfaction with Supervision

Counselor's perceived satisfaction with supervision is another important and widely studied outcome variable in the supervision literature. Ladany et al. (1999)

defined supervisee satisfaction as the “supervisee’s perception of the overall quality of supervision and the extent to which supervision met the needs and facilitated the growth of the counselor” (p. 448). Holloway and Wampold’s (1984) further delineated the components of supervisee satisfaction, proposing that satisfaction with supervision was comprised of the trainee’s reaction to the supervisor’s perceived qualities and performance, the trainee’s perception of his/her own behavior in supervision, and the trainee’s level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. In particular, Holloway and Wampold asserted that supervisees who are satisfied with their supervision experiences, often admire their supervisor’s personal qualities and performance, and strive to cooperate with their supervisors. They also assumed that the presence of an emotional bond in supervision allows supervisees to feel comfortable with self-disclosure, as well as to accept supervisor feedback in order to increase their counseling competence. Ladany et al. (1999) additionally noted that supervisees satisfied with supervision were motivated and willing to work hard to achieve supervision goals. Given that satisfaction with supervision may be an essential requirement for supervisee motivation and achievement, supervisee satisfaction with supervision is considered to be an important outcome variable in the supervision literature.

Researchers have found several factors to be related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Worthington and Roehlke (1979) first attempted to determine which specific supervisor behaviors contributed to trainee satisfaction with supervision. The researchers asked 31 counseling trainees enrolled in beginning practicum to rate the importance of 42 supervisor behaviors as well as their satisfaction with supervision. Findings indicated that trainee satisfaction with supervision was positively correlated with supervisor behaviors

related to establishing rapport and providing direct assistance with counseling skills (e.g., providing feedback, engaging in case conceptualization, teaching treatment techniques). Using a sample of 82 master's level counseling students, Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) found that interpersonally sensitive supervision was related to satisfaction with supervision. They also concluded that supervisees, who perceive their supervisors to be invested in supervision and personally committed to the counselor in training, are satisfied with their supervision experiences. Herbert and Trusty (2006) furthermore investigated the role of supervisor style on 104 rehabilitation counselors' satisfaction with supervision. The majority of supervisees reported being satisfied with their clinical supervision experiences. Herbert and Trusty found supervisee satisfaction was related to a supervisor style that involved collaboration and consulting. Specifically, the frequency of supervision meetings, and supervisor/supervisee gender predicted satisfaction with supervision. Lehrman-Waterman and Ladany (2001) suggested that goal setting and feedback are also related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision. For a sample of 274 psychology trainees, Lehrman-Waterman and Ladany found supervisees reported increased satisfaction with supervision when their supervisors provided goals that were feasible and specific, as well as feedback that was systematic, timely, and balanced positive with negative statements. The quality of supervision goals and feedback was also positively related to the supervisory working alliance and trainee perception of supervisor influence on self-efficacy.

Similar to the studies above, the dissertation studies of Humeidan (2002) and Adair (2001) indicated that psychology trainees' satisfaction with supervision was correlated with trainee perceptions of supervisor social influence. In other words, trainees

who perceived their supervisors as knowledgeable, competent, honest, and reliable were satisfied with their supervision experiences. Adair additionally found that supervisor disclosure, as well as supervisee level of comfort disclosing in supervision are positively correlated to supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In summary, a supervisor's ability to establish rapport, demonstrate interpersonal sensitivity, be open and honest, and provide assistance with skill development appears to increase supervisee satisfaction with supervision.

Other factors have, however, been shown to negatively impact a supervisee's supervision experiences. Holloway and Wampold (1983) investigated the relationship between verbal patterns of behavior and trainee satisfaction with supervision. They discovered that trainee ratings of satisfaction were lower when supervisors made defensive and/or critical comments. Nearly a decade later, Olk and Friedlander (1992) examined the extent to which role conflict and role ambiguity impacted graduate-level psychology trainees' satisfaction with supervision. Results indicated that supervisees who experience conflicting expectations for their behavior (i.e., role conflict) and are uncertain of supervisory expectations (i.e., role ambiguity) were dissatisfied with supervision. Ladany et al. (1999) also considered how 151 psychologists' perceptions of their supervisor's adherence to ethical guidelines impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision, as well as the supervisory working alliance. Results indicated that perceived supervisor non-adherence to ethical guidelines was significantly correlated with a weaker supervisory alliance and lower supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Findings furthermore indicated that 84% of participants did not discuss their concerns about the violations with their supervisors and, instead, chose to disclose their concerns to a friend

or peer in the field. In a study that examined the relationship between supervisee nondisclosure in supervision and satisfaction with supervision in 108 psychologist trainees, Ladany, Hill, Corbett, and Nutt (1996) also found that the majority of participants (97.2%) reported withholding information from their supervisors due to poor alliances, supervisor incompetence, and fear of political suicide. While most participants disclosed this information to a peer or friend in the field, they still reported being less satisfied with supervision when nondisclosures in supervision involved unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts or feelings relating to the supervisor. As a result, Ladany et al. concluded that supervisee nondisclosures in supervision negatively impacted the process and outcomes of supervision.

Supervisee satisfaction with supervision has been studied extensively as an outcome variable in the supervision literature; however, scholars question the literature's reliance on this variable as a measure of effective supervision. Bernard and Goodyear (2009) note that research on supervision is overly reliant on satisfaction measures, and maintain that the most effective supervision may not always be the most satisfying supervision. Humeidan (2002), who found that satisfaction with supervision was not correlated with CSE, suggested that trainees could be satisfied with supervision that did not necessarily contribute to an increase in CSE or that trainees might be satisfied with supervision without knowing the components of effective supervision. As a result, Humedian concluded that the use of supervisee satisfaction with supervision as a sole outcome variable failed to account for complexities inherent in supervision processes and outcomes. Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005) also found that no relationship between supervisee satisfaction with supervision and perceived CSE was reported. They, like

Bernard and Goodyear, asserted that effective supervision may not always be the most enjoyable supervision as growth and learning require hard work.

Several researchers do, however, maintain that supervisee satisfaction with supervision is a viable indicator of effective supervision. Heppner and Roehlke (1984) found that supervisor behaviors such as establishing rapport, providing appropriate feedback, and assisting with the development of intake skills were related to an increase in supervisee self-confidence, which in turn correlated with increases in supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In a more recent dissertation study (Ting, 2009), Taiwanese participants also reported their CSE to be positively predicted by judgment of their own behaviors in supervision as well as the level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. In addition to these empirical findings, Spence, Wilson, Kavanagh, Strong, and Worrall (2001) argue outcome research can employ various measures that include supervisee or supervisor subjective ratings of the quality of and satisfaction with supervision, supervisee development in knowledge, skill, or attitudes, or obtaining positive outcomes of therapy. Lastly, Arbel (2006) advocated the use of supervisee satisfaction as an outcome variable through the provision of a donut metaphor. In 1998, Bernard and Goodyear argued against the use of supervisee satisfaction as an outcome measure using a donut metaphor to illustrate that customers can be very satisfied by eating a donut, but that this satisfaction does not provide the customer with any nutritional information. Arbel argued that while this may be true, without customer satisfaction a nutritious donut will not be eaten and the nutrition will be wasted. In other words, the effectiveness of supervision maybe contingent on a supervisee's level of

satisfaction with supervision as this satisfaction is what motivates the supervisee to actively learn and engage in the process.

Section Summary

According to Bernard and Goodyear (2009) the primary purpose of supervision is to enhance supervisee professional functioning. CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision are two factors present in supervision that appear to influence supervisee professional functioning. For this reason, CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision are desired outcome variables in the supervision literature.

CSE , which is related to Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy construct, refers to a counselor's beliefs regarding his or her ability to effectively counsel a client (Larson & Daniels, 1998). Empirical evidence (Cashwell & Dooley, 2001; Larson et al., 1992) suggests that the provision of supervision does increase CSE. In particular, it appears that supervisors, who are task-oriented, highly supportive, and provide positive and concrete feedback, contribute to increases in supervisee CSE (Crutchfield & Borders, 1997; Daniels & Larson, 2007; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Sutton & Fall, 1995). Enhancing supervisee CSE is most important in the early stages of counselor development (Larson, Clark, Wesley, Koraleski, & Daniels, 1999; Sutton & Fall) and failure to receive supervision that provides support and positive feedback during this time leads to a decrease in CSE, increased anxiety, burn-out, and a decline in counseling skills (Crutchfield & Borders, 1997; Daniels & Larson, 2001; Peace, 1995; Spooner & Stone, 1977; Watkins, 1997).

CSE has become an important outcome variable in the supervision literature because it is theoretically assumed that counselor supervisees' beliefs in their ability to

effective counsel clients will lead to improved counseling performance (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Larson et al., 1999; Romi & Teichman, 1995). While several studies have demonstrated that a positive, linear relationship between CSE and counselor self-ratings of performance exists (Beverage, 1989; Daniels, 1997; Jaafar et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 1989; Larson et al., 1992, 1996, 1998; Salmi, 1992), research using supervisor ratings and trained raters to measure counselor performance failed to consistently find a positive, linear relationship between these two variables (Iannelli, 2000; Lason et al., 1992; Munson, Stadulis, & Munson, 1986; Watson, 1992). Although the relationship between CSE and counselor performance remains unclear, CSE has been found to be associated with increased counselor self-concept, ability to solve problems, and satisfaction with supervision, while decreasing counselor anxiety (Birk & Mahalik, 1996; Larson et al., 1999). While CSE appears to be important to the training of competent counselors, it should be noted that the current body of CSE literature is dated. Nearly all of the empirical studies examining CSE with the supervision context were published 10 to 20 years ago. The findings of these studies may not be representative of current supervisee experiences and reflect the need for CSE to move to the forefront of counselor training and supervision research.

Counselor perceived satisfaction with supervision is a widely used outcome variable in the supervision literature and is assumed to be an essential requirement for supervisee motivation and achievement in supervision (Ladany et al., 1999). Holloway and Wampold (1984) defined supervisee satisfaction with supervision as trainee's reaction to the supervisor's perceived qualities and performance, the trainee's perception of his/her own behavior in supervision. Similar to CSE, research has shown supervisee

satisfaction with supervision is related to receiving positive, timely feedback, learning treatment techniques, engaging in goal-setting, supervisee disclosure, and having a supervisor who is knowledgeable, honest, and reliable (Adiar, 2001; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Herbert & Trusty, 2006; Humeidan, 2002; Lehrman-Waterman & Ladany, 2001; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). Satisfaction with supervision can decrease if the supervisee experiences defensive or critical comments, conflicting expectations for their behavior in supervision, supervisor non-adherence to ethical guidelines, and withholds reactions to these negative experiences from the supervisor (Holloway & Wampold, 1983; Ladany, et al., 1996; Ladany et al., 1999; Olk & Friedlander, 1992).

While satisfaction with supervision has been extensively studied, its use as an outcome variable has also been criticized. Some scholars (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Humeidan, 2002) exert that research on supervision is overly reliant on satisfaction measures and no relationship between supervisee satisfaction with supervision and other variables that measure supervision effectiveness exist. They also maintain that the most effective supervision may not always be the most satisfying supervision. Others (Arbel, 2006; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Spence et al., 2001; Ting, 2009) exert that supervisee satisfaction with supervision is a viable indicator of effective supervision and that effective supervision may be reliant on satisfaction with supervision. Despite the mixed results concerning the efficacy of CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision as outcome measures, this study's researcher maintains that both variables are desired outcomes of supervision and can provide comprehensive understanding of the supervisory process when examined in the same study. For this

reason, this current research study will examine both CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision as outcome variables.

Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences

Supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision are important and desirable outcomes of effective supervision. Little, however, is known about how cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee impact these outcomes. The term cultural difference is an anthropological phrase typically used to describe physical characteristics and socially transmitted behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values that distinguish one group of people from another (Pope-Davis & Coleman, 1997). Cultural differences manifest through the expression of several characteristics (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, age, religion, nationality, physical ability) that define individual identity and contribute to one's life story (Robinson & Howard-Hamilton, 2000). For nearly 40 years the supervision literature has acknowledged the presence of racial differences in supervision (Adair, 2001; Bhat & Davis, 2007; Cook, 1994; Cook & Helms, 1988; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Hilton et al., 1995; Ladany, Nicholas, Brittan-Powell, & Pannu, 1997; Peterson, 1991a; Vander Kolk, 1974). The terms multicultural supervision and cross-cultural supervision have traditionally been used interchangeably to denote racial or ethnic differences between the supervisor and supervisee (Leong & Wagner, 1994). Only recently did the field recognize that supervisors and supervisees are multifaceted in terms of culture and bring multiple aspects of their cultural background into supervision. Guanipa (2003) defined multicultural supervision as the "process of coaching, mentoring, training, supporting, and facilitating learning that occurs between a professionally trained clinical supervisor

and a supervisee in training who are from different backgrounds, including variations within groups” (p. 60). Inherent in Guanipa’s definition of multicultural supervision is the assumption that all supervision experiences are multicultural and involve dynamics related to cultural differences. Accordingly, the counseling literature has come to recognize multicultural supervision as occurring when “two or more culturally different persons with different ways of perceiving their social environment and experiences are brought together in a supervisory relationship with the resulting content, process, and outcomes that are affected by these cultural dynamics” (Garrett et al., 2001, p.149).

As scholars begin to recognize that clinical supervision is not exempt from the influence of cultural factors, multicultural issues in supervision have gained increasing attention in the counseling literature (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Burkard et al., 2009; Constantine, 2001; D’Andrea & Daniels, 1997; Granllee, 2003; Granello, Beamish, & Davis, 1997; Harbin, Leach, & Eells, 2008; Lichtenberg & Goodyear, 2000; Moorhouse & Carr, 2002; Weinstein, 2006). In particular, scholars are starting to realize that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee can have a direct impact on supervision processes and outcomes. To date, the literature has explored how cultural differences related to demographic variables such as race/ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation, and spirituality impact supervision.

The Impact of Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences on Clinical Supervision Outcomes

Race. Vander Kolk (1974) was one of the first researchers that attended to the presence of cultural factors in supervision. In a landmark study examining the effect of racial differences in supervision, Vander Kolk found Black supervisees, in comparison

with their White counterparts, were more likely to anticipate their White supervisors would be less empathic, respectful, and congruent in supervision. Nearly 15 years after Vanderkolk first broached the existence of cultural of issues in supervision, Cook and Helms (1988) further explored minority trainees' supervisory experiences. Results indicated that 1) Black, Hispanic, and Native American trainees perceived their supervisors to demonstrate lower levels of liking than did Asians; 2) minority trainees reported experiencing high levels of discomfort and perceived their supervisors were also uncomfortable in supervision; 3) minority trainee perceptions of their supervisors' liking and positive feelings for them were significant predictors of trainee relationship satisfaction in supervision. More recently, Adair (2001) found that 47 pre-doctoral psychology trainees of color who received supervision from a White supervisor were less satisfied with supervision and viewed their supervisors as less trustworthy than White supervisees matched with White supervisors.

While the above studies (Adair, 2001; Cook & Helm, 1988; Vander Kolk, 1974) concluded that cross-racial supervision had a negative impact on supervision process and outcomes, other studies have demonstrated that race alone does not appear to account for the supervisee's experience in supervision. For example, Hilton et al.(1995), who investigated the effects of supervisor race and level of support on supervisee perceptions of supervision, found that level of support, not supervisor race, was significantly related to supervision process and outcomes. Specifically, matched and cross-racial dyads who received high levels of support from their supervisor perceived their supervisor to be more supportive, reported supervision to be more effective, and rated the supervisory

relationship higher than matched and cross-racial dyads where the participant received low levels of support.

Duan and Roehlke (2001) conducted a similar study that explored cross-racial supervision in a college counseling center for 60 predoctoral psychology interns and 58 supervisors. The researchers found participants were overall satisfied with their supervision experience, and supervisees from a different racial background than their supervisors perceived their supervisors to be trustworthy and helpful. While supervisees indicated that it was important for their supervisors to express a strong interest in, respect for, and value a supervisee's cultural background, significant differences in supervisor-supervisee perception regarding the supervisor's efforts to communicate interest in supervisee cultural background existed. Specifically, supervisors reported more efforts to address cultural differences in supervision than supervisees perceived. Lastly, Duan and Roehlke found that perceived supervisor positive attitudes, rather than supervisor personal characteristics, predicted supervisee satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Researchers concluded these cross-racial dyads were capable of building a strong supervisory relationship when supervisors maintained a positive attitude and interest in supervisee cultural background, but suggested that supervisors need to be more open and explicit when discussing cultural issues in supervision.

Ladany, Nicholas, Brittan-Powell, and Pannu (1997) examined the influence of supervisory racial identity and racial matching on the supervisory working alliance and supervisee perceived multicultural competence. Results indicated that, while racial identity predicted aspects of the supervisory working alliance, racial matching was only significantly related to supervisee perceived multicultural competence. Specifically,

supervisees in White supervisee-Black supervisor and Black supervisee-Black supervisor racial dyads reported higher multicultural competence than those in White supervisee-White supervisor dyads. Researchers concluded that contextual factors, such as race, may impact supervisee perceived competence, but contribute less to supervisory relationship dynamics than psychological variables such as racial identity. Bhat and Davis (2007) also found that a significant relationship between racial identity development and the supervisory working alliance existed, while racial matching did not significantly contribute to the strength of the working alliance. They also concluded that race alone had little influence over the interpersonal relationship that develops in supervision.

Gender in supervision. Nelson and Holloway (1990) were among the first researchers to examine the role of gender in supervision. These researchers conducted a content analysis of audio-recorded supervision sessions in order to examine the relation of gender to power and patterns of interaction in supervision. Results suggested that male and female supervisors fail to support female trainee's attempts to assume an expert role, and that female trainees defer power to the supervisor more often than male trainees. Nelson and Holloway concluded that power differentials in supervision seemed to exist for female supervisees, resulting in the disempowerment of women in supervision.

Subsequent studies have continued to highlight the presence of gender bias in supervision by demonstrating that both male and female supervisors interact differently with male and female supervisees. For example, Granello, Beamish, and Davis (1997) explored the effect of gender on the use of influence strategies in supervision and found that supervisors of both sexes interacted differently with their supervisees based on supervisee gender. Similar to Nelson and Holloway's (1990) results, this study found that

male supervisees were asked, on average, for their opinions twice as often as female supervisees and, over time, were less likely to be told what to do by their supervisors. Female supervisees, on the other hand, were told what to do by their supervisors and, over time, were not able to generate their own responses as often as male supervisees. In a follow up study, Granello (2003) investigated the role of supervisor and trainee gender in supervision, as well as the impact of age on supervisory interactions on 42 supervisory dyads. Similar to previous study findings (Granello et al., 1997; Nelson & Holloway, 1990), results indicated that male and female supervisors asked for more opinions, analysis, or evaluations of counseling from male supervisees, and were more likely to accept the suggestions or ideas of female supervisees. Lastly, male trainees who were older than their supervisors were asked for their opinion six times as often as female trainees who were older than their supervisors and twice as often as trainees who were younger than their supervisor. Granello concluded that both supervisee gender and age impact supervisor –supervisee interactional patterns in supervision.

Lichtenberg and Goodyear (2000) examined the structure of supervisor-supervisee communication in supervision using 44 supervision dyads. The findings supported earlier research in that supervisor gender reliably predicted power and influence in supervision sessions. In particular, male supervisors tended to exert greater influence over the supervision structure than female supervisors. Additionally, in female supervisor-male trainee dyads, influence over the supervision structure was more likely to be attributed to the trainee. Moorhouse and Carr (2002) extended the work of previous researchers by examining the associations between supervisor and trainee gender and the conversational behavior of supervisors towards trainees, and trainees towards clients.

Male supervisor-male trainee dyads in the study demonstrated the highest quality of supervisor collaborative behavior, while male supervisor-female trainee dyads had the lowest quality of supervisor collaborative behavior. Regarding trainee behavior in session, results indicated that in female supervisor- male trainee dyads, trainees engaged in less teaching and more collaborative behavior with their clients.

The presence of gender differences and biases in supervision can impact the way in which a supervisor interacts with a supervisee. Some studies suggest that these gendered interactions have an impact on supervision processes and outcomes. Sells, Goodyear, Lichtenberg, and Polkinghorne (1997) investigated the impact of supervisor and trainee gender on supervisor focus during supervision and supervisor perceptions of trainee skill level on 44 supervisory dyads. They found that female supervisors, when paired with male trainees, had a greater relational focus than did male supervisors paired with male trainees. Additionally, gender was related to supervisee self-rating of clinical skills. Trainees in male supervisor-male trainee dyads rated their technical skills higher, whereas trainees in female supervisor-female trainee dyads rated their personal awareness higher. Chung et al. (2001) found that supervisor ratings were also influenced by gender bias. Specifically, results indicated that male supervisors rated a hypothetical supervisee lower and more negatively by almost a standard deviation when the supervisee was a female.

Given the potentially negative impact gender bias can have on supervision, it is not surprising that early studies on cross-gendered dyads suggested that supervisees prefer to work with a supervisor of the same gender and were more satisfied with supervision than cross-gendered dyads (Behling, Curtis, & Foster, 1988; McCarthy,

Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Worthington & Stern, 1985). Recent empirical studies have also examined the impact of matched and cross-gender dyads on supervision outcomes. Anderson et al. (2000) explored marriage and family supervisees best and worse supervision experiences. Approximately two-thirds of participants reported their worst supervision experiences when their supervisor was a male. As the majority of participants (61%) were female, the results suggest that cross-gender dyads may lead to negative supervision experiences for trainees. Wester, Vogel, and Archer (2004) assessed the influence of cross-gender dyads on 103 male psychology intern's supervisory experience. Male supervisees who had a male supervisor reported a poorer perception of the supervisory working alliance than supervisees working with female supervisors. The researchers concluded that the male supervisor-male trainee dyad may be problematic for some male therapists as they may view the supervisory relationship as competitive. Vonk and Zucrow (1996) also found cross-gender dyads (i.e., female supervisees-male supervisors) were related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision in social work students. Female participants viewed their male supervisors as friendly, warm, trusting, and supportive. Overall, the results are conflicting with regard to the efficacy of matched and cross-gendered supervision. These mixed results seem to question the notion that gender alone significantly impacts supervision processes and outcomes.

Age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation. The impact of race, ethnicity, and gender on supervision has been extensively covered in the professional literature. Other cultural categories such as age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation are important to consider, but have been minimally explored in the literature.

This sub-section will consider the empirical research to date that explores the impact of these variables on supervision processes and outcomes.

Age. Suzen's (2002) doctoral dissertation investigated the relationship between supervisor and trainee perception of the supervisory working alliance and their cultural characteristics in 49 predoctoral psychology interns and their supervisors. Differences in supervisor-supervisee gender, sexual orientation, ethnic background, religion, and relationship status were not related to disparities on rating of the supervisory working alliance. A negative correlation was, however, found between age and perceptions of the supervisory bond. As supervisors grew increasingly older than supervisees, supervisees were more likely to rate the bond lower. Accordingly, Suzen concluded that, overall, trainees and supervisors were able to build a supervisory working alliance regardless of cultural differences and similarities; however, disparities in supervisor-trainee age had the potential to negatively impact the development of the supervisory bond. Suzen exerted that existing power differentials in supervision become magnified when the supervisor is significantly older than the trainee. As a result, the trainee may have few feelings of trust, liking, and caring for their supervisor. Suzen's findings, coupled with Granello's (2003) examination of supervisor and trainee gender and age in supervision, suggest supervisor and supervisee age can negatively impact the supervisee's perception of the working alliance and way supervisors treat supervisees in session, respectively.

Sexual orientation. In addition to Suzen (2002), two studies have explored sexual orientation within the context of supervision. Harbin, Leach, and Eells (2008) examined the effect of sexual orientation and homonegativism on supervisory style and trainee satisfaction with supervision in 56 supervisory dyads. Results indicated that

homonegativism adversely influenced supervision process and outcomes. In all three supervisor-trainee dyads (heterosexual-heterosexual, heterosexual-LGB, and LGB-heterosexual), increased supervisor homonegativism was related to trainee perceptions of the supervisor as less interpersonally attractive and decreased satisfaction with supervision. When homonegativism was controlled for, results revealed no significant differences in supervisory style and satisfaction with supervision between matched and cross-match dyads on sexual orientation.

Burkard et al. (2009) qualitatively explored lesbian, gay and bisexual supervisees' experience of LGB-affirmative and nonaffirmative supervision. An LGB-affirmative event was characterized by an open and caring supervisory relationship in which the supervisor supported LGB-affirmative work with clients (e.g., supervisors did not pathologize LGB concerns, supervisors who understood the complexity of disclosing one's sexual orientation to the client). Supervisees reported that LGB affirmative experiences in supervision strengthened the supervisory relationship, increased supervisee disclosure in supervision, and positively affected the supervisee's clinical work. An LGB nonaffirming experiences involved a poor relationship with a supervisor who had biased attitudes towards LGB supervisees and/or clients, as well as little knowledge about working with lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) concerns. LGB nonaffirmative experiences in supervision typically had a negative impact on the supervisory relationship. Supervisees reported experiencing negative emotions (e.g., anger, fear, distress), became less trustful, and withdrew from supervision. Similar to findings regarding cross-racial and cross-gender supervision, these two studies suggest

supervisor attitudes and beliefs regarding sexual orientation and supervisory relationship impact supervision outcomes more than actual differences in sexual orientation.

Spiritual orientation. In a dissertation study, Weinstein (2006) explored whether the discussion of spiritual issues in supervision impacted trainee multicultural competence and perception of the supervisory working alliance. The study sample included 101 counseling psychology graduation students (83.2% were female, 16.8% were male). Study results suggested that, in general, spiritual issues were not consistently addressed in supervision, but had a significant impact on the supervisory working alliance. In particular, the discussion of spiritual issues in supervision was positively correlated with a stronger working alliance. Discussing spiritual issues in supervision was, however, not correlated with trainee perceived multicultural competence.

Section Summary

Empirical evidence suggests that the presence of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences does influence supervision process and outcomes. Several studies (Adair, 2001; Behling, Curtis, & Foster, 1988; Cook & Helm, 1988; McCarthy, Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen, 2002; Vander Kolk, 1974; Worthington & Stern, 1985) demonstrate that racial, gender, and age differences between a supervisor and supervisee can have a direct and negative impact on the supervisory working alliance, supervisees' perceived counseling competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Recent empirical literature suggests, however, that supervisor-supervisee differences in race, gender, age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation alone do not account for variation in supervision outcomes. Instead it seems that the impact of cultural differences on supervisory processes and outcomes is

moderated by the attitudes the supervisor holds about a supervisee (Burkard et al., 2009; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Granello, 2003; Harbin, Leach, & Eells, 2008; Hilton et al., 1995; Hudson, 2007; Suzen, 2002), and the amount of support the supervisee received from the supervisor (Burkard et al., 2009). Additionally, research concerning the presence of cultural differences in supervision suggests supervision outcomes may be more contingent on the strength of working alliance between the supervisor and supervisee, than on actual demographic differences (Bhat & Davis, 2007; Weinstein, 2006).

The Working Alliance

Research regarding the presence of cultural differences in supervision suggests that supervisor-supervisee differences on cultural variables alone do not account negative supervision outcomes. Instead, it appears that the nature and quality of the supervisory working alliance may indirectly affect, or mediate, the relationship between cultural differences and supervision outcomes. In other words, the working alliance appears to be a vehicle through which supervisor-supervisee cultural differences influences supervision outcomes (Cheon et al., 2009). The working alliance has emerged as a central construct in the supervision literature, and is recognized as significantly contributing to the general effectiveness of supervision. Understandings of the working alliance within the context of supervision have developed from the extension of Bordin's (1979) working alliance theory and research on the client-therapist relationship. This section examines Bordin's theoretical conceptualization of the working alliance and the factors that contribute to strengthening or weakening of the alliance, as well as how the alliance impacts supervision outcomes. Finally, this section considers empirical research

studies that explore the mediation role of the supervisory working alliance in the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes.

Bordin's Theoretical Conceptualization of the Working Alliance

Bordin (1979) proposed a pantheoretical conceptualization of the therapeutic working alliance, which included three factors: (1) the extent to which therapist and clients agree on therapeutic goals, (2) the extent to which the therapist and client agree on the therapeutics tasks need to accomplish the goals, and (3) the emotional bond that forms between the therapist and client. Bordin believed this working alliance, between the person seeking change and the therapist, played a key role in facilitating therapeutic change. He further proposed that the extent to which clients demonstrate change was more a function of the development of a strong therapeutic working alliance than the theory or techniques endorsed by the therapist.

Components of the supervisory working alliance. Claiming that an “intimate connection” (Bordin, 1983, p. 35) between psychotherapy and supervision existed, Bordin extended his work on the therapeutic working alliance to include the supervisory relationship and established a tripartite model of the supervisory working alliance. Similar to the therapeutic working alliance, Bordin suggested that a strong supervisory alliance developed when the supervisor and trainee agreed on the goals and tasks of supervision, and were able to establish an emotional bond. Based on Bordin's (1983, 1979) work, an understanding of these three factors can be extended.

Supervision goals. According to Bordin (1983), effective supervision occurs when trainees achieve goals related to becoming a competent counselor. Supervisory

goals are related to trainee thoughts, feelings, actions, expressed ideas, or a combination thereof. Bordin exerted that a strong supervisory alliance results when the supervisor and trainee are able to reach mutual agreement on the goals of supervision. Agreement upon supervisory goals reduces tension in the supervisory relationship, enabling supervisees to actually accomplish the goals of supervision and experience greater professional growth than those who experience tension and dislike in the relationship (Bordin, 1983).

Bordin (1983) outlined eight broad goal categories based on his experiences in providing supervision. He maintained that a strong supervisory working alliance assists trainees in achieving these essential goals. The eight categories included: (1) mastery of specific skills; (2) increasing understanding of clients; (3) increasing awareness of counseling process issues; (4) increasing awareness of self and its influence on the counseling process; (5) overcoming personal and intellectual barriers to learning and mastery; (6) increasing an understanding of concepts and theory; (7) providing a motivation for research; and (8) standards of service. Ideally, the supervisor and supervisee discuss, clarify, agree on, and contract these goals in the initial stages of supervision, revisiting goals throughout the supervision process by engaging in formative feedback and summative evaluations.

Supervision tasks. Supervisors and trainees must engage in goal-oriented tasks to achieve the mutually agreed upon goals of supervision (Bordin, 1983). Supervision tasks could include the preparation of oral or written reports regarding a client care, objective observation of clinical sessions (e.g., video or audio tape recordings, direct observation), and the selection of problems and issues for presentation in supervision. Bordin asserted that supervisors and trainees must have a clear and mutual understanding of the tasks that

need to be completed in supervision in order to achieve their pre-determined goals. The strength of the working relationship, according to Bordin, is dependent on how well the supervisee understands the connection between supervision tasks and goals, and the degree to which supervisors and supervisees are able to adhere to supervision tasks. The completion of tasks and goals, in turn, increases the level of trust in the supervision relationship. Both the supervisor and supervisee are responsible for building and maintain the working alliance by engaging in the agreed upon supervision tasks.

Emotional bonds. In the supervisory relationship an emotional bond between the supervisor and trainee develops as a function of spending time together (pleasurable and painful), the sharing of a common experience, and the willingness to trust one another (Bordin, 1983). A sincere fondness, genuine trust, and mutual respect characterizes the supervisory bond. Bordin (1983) also assumed that supervisor and supervisee self-disclosure cultivate the development of the supervisory bond, underscoring the importance open and honest communication in sustaining a strong working alliance. The supervisory bond plays a central role in facilitating supervision outcomes, as the negotiation and successful completion of tasks and goals are contingent on the emotional connection between the supervisor and trainee. As such, the supervisory bond, according to Bordin, is emotional, relational and collaborative.

The nature of the working alliance: building and repair. Bordin (1983, 1979) believed that trainee development relies on the building and repair of the supervisory working alliance. He viewed the working alliance as a dynamic relationship in which supervisors and trainees continually negotiate goals and tasks. As a result, the working alliance experiences weakenings and repairs throughout the supervision process.

Weakenings occur when supervisor and trainee goals, tasks, and bonds conflict. Bordin (1983) believed that conflict and tension are inherent in the supervisory relationship given the evaluative and gate-keeping nature of supervision. A strong working alliance can withstand ongoing weakening and repairs, and is also strengthened through recoveries from weakening events. Bordin (1983) asserted, "Thus the building of a working alliance and its repair is not viewed as establishing a relationship in order to facilitate the person's acceptance of treatment. This building and repair process is the treatment." (p. 36). Supervisors, therefore, should address conflict and tension in the supervisory relationship, attempting to adjust the goals and tasks of supervision according to the needs of the trainee, while also promoting client welfare.

Bordin (1983) postulated that negotiated goals and tasks play a key role in weakening and repairing the working alliance. For example, if a trainee finds the supervision goals to be unattainable or believes supervision tasks are unrelated to the goals, a weakening of the alliance will likely ensue. Likewise, if previously agreed upon, seemingly reasonable supervision tasks and related goals are not being met by the trainee a weakening in the alliance may occur. To repair weakenings, the goals and tasks of supervision have to be renegotiated. The renegotiation of goals and tasks facilitates mutual trust between the supervisor and trainee, and strengthens their emotional bond. A strong emotional bond, in turn, increases adherence to supervision tasks and goal attainment. Bordin (1983), therefore, asserted that supervision goals, tasks, and bonds are not mutually exclusive concepts.

According to Bordin (1983), weakening and repairs in the supervisory working alliance not only impact trainee goal attainment, but also influence the trainee-client

therapeutic working alliance. Bordin (1983) hypothesized that the trainee's ability to facilitate client change is dependent on the strength of the supervisory alliance working; thus, weakening and repairs in the supervisory alliance are mirrored in the therapeutic alliance. Weakenings that extend across multiple supervision sessions and are not quickly resolved are more likely impact the trainee-client working alliance. Accordingly, Bordin (1983) encouraged supervisors to continually attend to supervisory alliance as the relationship between the supervisor and trainee extends beyond the scope of supervision.

Factors That Strengthen or Weaken the Supervisory Working Alliance

While Bordin (1983) based his theoretical conceptualization of the supervisory relationship on his own supervision experience rather than empirical evidence, the SWA is a widely studied variable in the supervision literature. Many researchers have explored the factors that influence the strength of the alliance that develops between a supervisor and supervisee. Factors that have been found to contribute to the strengthening or weakening of the alliance include supervisory style and self-disclosure, supervisee role conflict and ambiguity, and conflict between the supervisor and supervisee.

Supervisory style and self-disclosure. In a study designed to investigate the relationship between supervisory style and the supervisory working alliance, Chen and Bernstein (2000) utilized a research informed case study method to examine the attributes and processes of one supervisory dyad with a strong supervisory alliance and one with a weak alliance. Each dyad consisted of a doctoral-level, counseling psychology supervisor and a master's level counselor trainee. Results indicated differences between the high alliance and low alliance dyad on both supervisor and trainee rating of supervisory styles. Specifically, the supervisor and supervisee in the high alliance dyad rated the supervisor

as demonstrating predominantly attractive and interpersonally sensitive supervision styles. Additionally, trainees in the higher working alliance dyad reported a higher degree of complementary communication (e.g., trainee's needs are met by the supervisor's behavior in an interaction) than trainees in the lower alliance dyads. Chen and Bernstein concluded that a supervisor who has an empathic, respectful, and flexible supervision style may attend and effectively respond to trainee needs in supervision, thereby contributing to the development of a harmonious supervisory relationship.

Ladany, Walker, and Melincoff (2001) also examined the relationship between supervisor perceptions of their supervisory style and the supervisory working alliance, as well as supervisor disclosure. Participants included 137 counselor education and counseling psychology supervisors who were providing supervision to counseling and counseling or clinical psychology trainees. Results indicated that supervisor perception of supervisory style was related to perceptions of the working alliance and self-disclosure. Supervisors who perceived themselves as attractive (e.g., warm, friendly) were more likely to perceive a stronger emotional bond and more agreement on the tasks and goals of supervision. Also, the more attractive and interpersonally sensitive (e.g., reflective, invested) supervisors perceived themselves as disclosing more in supervision sessions.

In another study concerning supervisory style, supervisor self-disclosure, and the supervisory working alliance, Ladany and Lehrman-Waterman (1999) specifically examined the impact of supervisor self-disclosure on the supervisory working alliance. Participants included 105 counselor trainees enrolled in counselor education or counseling psychology programs who had engaged in a supervised counseling experience. Similar to Ladany, Walker, and Melincoff's (2001) results, Ladany and

Lehrman-Waterman found supervisors using a more attractive style engaged in self-disclosures more frequently. Additionally, results indicated a positive correlation between supervisor self-disclosure and the strength of the supervisory working alliance. The more frequently a supervisor self-disclosed, the more trainees perceived an agreement between the goals and tasks of supervision existed, and they reported feeling a stronger emotional bond with their supervisors.

Supervisee role conflict and ambiguity. Ladany and Friedlander (1995) investigated the degree to which trainee role conflict (i.e., when trainees encounter opposing expectations for their behavior) and role ambiguity (i.e., when trainees are uncertain of the supervisory expectations for performance or evaluation) predicted trainee's perceptions of the strength of the supervisory working alliance in 123 counseling and clinical psychology trainees. Results indicated that the supervisory working alliance was significantly correlated to trainee role conflict and ambiguity. Trainees who perceived a strong emotional bond reported less role conflict, whereas trainees who perceived disagreement on the goals and tasks of supervision experienced more role conflict. Lastly, trainees reported less role ambiguity when expectations for supervision were unequivocal. In a study mentioned previously (see Clinical Supervision Outcomes section), Olk and Friedlander (1992) examined the extent to which counselor trainees experienced role conflict, and role ambiguity in supervision. While Olk and Friedlander did not directly study the working alliance, they, similar to Ladany and Friedlander, found that supervisees reported less role ambiguity when they perceived their supervisors as offering clear statements about the expectations of supervision.

Conflict between the supervisor and supervisee. In an early study regarding conflict in the supervisory relationship, Moskowitz and Rupert (1983) surveyed 158 clinical psychology graduate students concerning the prevalence of conflicts, types of conflicts, methods of resolving or coping with conflicts, and impact of conflicts on their supervisory relationships. Over a third of participants reported experiencing a major conflict with a supervisor over theoretical orientation, style of supervision, or personality issues. While participants reported these conflicts interfered with their learning in supervision, most were able to resolve the conflict and improve the supervisory situation through discussion. Twenty five percent of participants reported their supervision experience became excellent after discussing the conflict with their supervisor, and 32% reported their experience became adequate. When conflicts were not discussed, and subsequently resolved, participants turned to others for support, concealed their difficulties, or complied with the supervisor.

Quarto (2002) conducted a study to assess the relationship between supervisory conflict and the supervisory working alliance in 74 counseling supervisors and 72 counseling trainees. Results indicated that supervisory conflict was perceived to impede to the development of a strong supervisory working alliance. Specifically, supervisors and trainees noted that conflict contributed to a weakening of the supervisor alliance, which negatively impacted rapport building and supervisees' ability to identify with and learn from their supervisors. Given the negative impact conflict had on the supervisory working alliance, Quarto noted that it was imperative for supervisors and supervisees to address conflictual interactions in the supervisory alliance.

In a qualitative analysis concerning the relationship between counterproductive events in supervision and the supervisory working alliance, Gray et al.(2001) interviewed 13 counseling psychology trainees. A counterproductive event was defined as any “experience that was hindering, unhelpful, or harmful in relation to the trainee's growth as a therapist” (Gray et al., p. 371). Participants reported that the experience of a counterproductive event initially weakened the supervisory relationship. The relationship was, however, able to recover from the counterproductive event when supervisors and trainees discussed the impact of the event in supervision. Similar to Moskowitz and Rupert (1983), Gray et al. concluded that that the processing of counterproductive events facilitated the repair of the weakened, ruptured alliance.

Nelson and Friedlander (2001) also conducted a qualitative study that explored the impact of harmful conflict on the supervision experiences of 13 master's and doctoral psychology trainees. Participants largely described their supervisors as distant and uncommitted to establishing a strong working alliance from the beginning. Many supervisees reported experiencing disagreement with their supervisor over the goals and tasks of supervision, leading them to feel unsupported, uncomfortable, and disappointed with their supervisors. Supervisees also reported experiencing conflict related to miscommunications regarding differing world views related to gender or ethnicity. For most participants supervisor-supervisee conflicts were never resolved, causing supervisees to experience extreme stress and self-doubt. Some became cynical and distrustful of their supervisor, wary of supervision, and considered changing their professional plans. In light of participants' experiences, Nelson and Friedlander concluded that supervisees in their study failed to receive the attention, warmth, and

understanding needed to build a strong working alliance that could withstand inevitable ruptures in the supervisory alliance.

In a mixed methods study, Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002) sought to examine the impact of negative supervision events on supervision in 126 psychology pre-doctoral interns and practicum students. The qualitative data analysis revealed that negative supervision events were related to interpersonal relationship and style (e.g., differing attitudes, personality conflicts, communication difficulties), supervision tasks and responsibilities (e.g., issues pertaining to the activities, roles, goals, and expectations of supervision), conceptualization and theoretical orientation (e.g., conflict involving client conceptualization, diagnosis, treatment planning and interventions), and ethics, legal, and multicultural issues (e.g., supervisor made offensive comments about a particular group). Quantitative results further indicated that the experience of aversive supervision events negatively impacted the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. That is, respondents who reported aversive supervision experiences tended to have weaker supervisory alliances and were less satisfied with supervision than respondents who did not report negative experiences. They also reported that these negative events adversely affected trainee-client relationship. Ramos-Sanchez et al. concluded that negative events in supervision led to a weakening in the supervisory alliance that was characterized by disagreement over the tasks and goals of supervision, and by the absence of trust, fondness, and mutual respect in the relationship. The researchers further exerted that negative events in supervision had long-lasting consequences regarding the trainee's supervision experience, the trainee-client relationship, and trainee future career goals.

The Supervisory Working Alliance and Supervision Outcomes

Literature on the provision of clinical supervision has also explored the role of the supervisory working alliance in supervision and therapeutic outcomes. Specifically, the literature has examined the impact of the supervisory working alliance on supervisee satisfaction with supervision, supervisee CSE, supervisee personal and skill development, and treatment adherence.

Supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. Ladany, Ellis, and Friedlander (1999) tested Bordin's (1983) extension of the working alliance to supervision by exploring the role of the supervisory working alliance on supervision outcomes in 107 practicum and internship level counselor trainees. Specifically the researchers sought to determine if changes in trainee perceptions of the supervisory alliance over the course of supervision would predict trainee self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision. Results indicated that the supervisory working alliance was not predictive of trainee self-efficacy. Changes in trainee self-efficacy were observed over time regardless of the reported strength of the supervisory working alliance. Trainee satisfaction with supervision was, on the other hand, found to be related to the strength of the working alliance. Specifically, as the emotional bond between the supervisor and trainee became stronger over time, trainees perceived their supervisors' personal qualities and performance more positively, judged their own behavior in supervision more positively, and reported being relatively more comfortable in supervision. Equally, if the emotional bond became weak over time, trainees perceived their supervisors' personal qualities and performance more negatively, they judged their own behavior in supervision more negatively, and were less comfortable in supervision.

Two recent dissertation studies (Lorenz, 2009; Mirgon, 2007), which also explored the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and CSE, supported Ladany et al.'s (1999) findings that no relationship existed between these two variables. Mirgon's (2007) dissertation study examined the contribution of the supervisory working alliance and CSE on supervisee development in 71 counseling trainees and clinicians. Results indicated that the supervisory working alliance was not significantly related to either supervisee self-efficacy or cognitive development. Lorenz's (2009) doctoral dissertation studied the influence of supervisory styles, supervisory working alliance, and supervisor behaviors on the development of counseling self-efficacy during the practicum experience of 43 counseling students. While participants reported a significant increase in CSE throughout the semester, only supervisory style contributed significantly to the variance in trainee CSE. Lorenz's results reflect both Ladany et al.'s (1999) and Mirgon's findings that the supervisory working alliance is not significantly related to changes in trainee self-efficacy.

Two additional dissertation studies (Humedan, 2002; Ting, 2009), on the other hand, found that the supervisory working alliance does contribute to trainee level of CSE. Humeidan (2002) examined the relationship between supervisee CSE and the supervisory working alliance in 78 master's level and doctoral level counseling trainees. Results demonstrated that a strong supervisory working alliance significantly contributed to participant CSE. Specifically, the supervisory working alliance accounted for 22% of the variance in participant CSE, whereas experience level of the trainee and social influence of supervisors (i.e., degree of perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness) only contributed 13% and 6% of the variance in CSE, respectively.

Ting (2009) investigated the impact of the supervisory working alliance and supervisee self-efficacy on supervisee satisfaction with supervision in 127 Taiwanese master's-level counseling trainees. They demonstrated that the strength of the supervisory working alliance positively predicted trainee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, higher agreement on the tasks of supervision predicted trainees' positive reactions to their supervisors' personal qualities and performance; agreement on the goals of supervision positively predicted trainees' judgment of their own behaviors in supervision; and, a strong emotional bond predicted trainees' level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. As mentioned previously (see Clinical Supervision Outcomes section), Ting found that a strong emotional bond between the supervisor and trainee and trainee CSE positively predicted trainee's level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. Contrary to previous studies (Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Mirgon, 2007), Ting suggested that his findings demonstrated a positive relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee CSE existed. Ting exerted, "trainees who have higher self-efficacy in dealing with what happens in counseling on the basis of stronger emotional bond in the supervisory working alliance are perceived to feel comfortable in disclosing their ideas in supervision" (p. 115). Overall, Ting concluded that positive outcomes in supervision, such as supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, were contingent on the establishment of a strong supervisory working alliance.

Supervisee counseling skills, personal development, and adherence to treatment. Thome (2006) sought to determine the impact of the working alliance on trainee personal development and counseling skills. Participants included 24 graduate counseling trainees and eight doctoral level counseling supervisors. Results indicated that

supervisor ratings of trainee personal development, multicultural skills, influencing skills, and basic listening skills differed according to trainee's ratings of the working alliance's rapport scale as high or low. Specifically, supervisor ratings of trainee demonstrated skills were significantly higher when trainees reported a stronger working alliance. Rapport in the working alliance was the most important factor in supervisor ratings, whereby supervisors who were rated high in rapport rated trainee counseling skills significantly higher than supervisors who were rated low in rapport. Trainee self-ratings of personal development were also significantly correlated with the working alliance rapport scale. Lastly, supervisor ratings of trainee emotional sensitivity and basic listening skills differed according to the trainee's ratings of the working alliance as high or low. Thome provided support for Bordin's assumption that a stronger supervisory working alliance results in more favorable supervision outcomes. Thome further concluded that the strength of the supervisory alliance, in particular the supervisors' efforts to support, encourage, and build rapport, was predictive of trainee skill attainment and personal development.

While the majority of studies concerning the supervisory working alliance consider supervision outcome variables related to trainee development as a counselor, Patton and Kivlighan (1997) examined the impact of the supervisory working alliance on the counseling working alliance and trainee adherence to treatment. The sample included 75 counselor trainees, their clients ($n=75$) and counseling supervisors ($n=25$). Results indicated a significant, positive relationship between the supervisory working alliance and trainee adherence to a psychodynamic interviewing style, meaning that supervisor-supervisee alliance impacted trainee performance in the counseling session. A significant,

positive relationship was also found between the trainee's perception of the supervisory working alliance and the client's perception of the counseling working alliance.

Accordingly, the researchers concluded that trainee knowledge concerning the building and maintenance of a working alliance was gained in supervision and reflected in the working alliance they established with their client.

The Supervisory Working Alliance as a Mediator Variable

Research has demonstrated that the supervisory working alliance is dynamic in nature. Factors such as supervisor warmth, support, and self-disclosure appear to strengthen the emotional bond between the supervisor and supervisee, leading to more agreement on supervisory goals and tasks. On the other hand, the experience of supervisee role conflict and ambiguity as well as the presence conflict in the supervisory relationship may weaken the supervisory emotional bond and cause disagreement over the goals and tasks of supervision. The strength of the working alliance, in turn, has been found to impact supervision outcomes related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision, supervisee CSE, supervisee personal and skill development, supervisee treatment adherence, and the counseling working alliance. Given these findings in the literature, Bernard and Goodyear (2009) visually depicted the supervisory working alliance as a variable that is able to mediate the relationships between supervision antecedents (i.e., supervisory behaviors and supervision processes) and outcomes. Nelson et al. (2001) also described the mediating influence of the supervisory working alliance by noting that a strong working alliance "can serve as a base from which future dilemmas in supervision can be managed" (p. 408).

While scholars conceptually suggest that the working alliance mediates the relationship between supervision processes and outcomes, the empirical literature has failed to intentionally examine the mediating role of the supervisory working alliance. Most evidence supporting the supervisory working alliance as a mediator variable has come from studies that considered the working alliance to be an outcome variable. One such study includes the mixed methods study by Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002) that was described earlier in this section. Ramos-Sanchez et al. studied the impact of negative supervision events on supervision outcomes and found that respondents who reported negative supervision experiences tended to have weaker supervisory alliances and were less satisfied with supervision than respondents who did not report negative experiences. The qualitative analysis further revealed that the strength of the supervisory working alliance was the most influential factor in trainee satisfaction with supervision. Ramos-Sanchez et al. concluded that negative events in supervision led to a weakening in the supervisory alliance that was characterized by disagreement over the tasks and goals of supervision, and by the absence of trust, fondness, and mutual respect in the relationship. The weakening of the supervisory alliance, in turn, led to a decrease in trainee satisfaction with supervision and adversely affected the trainee-client relationship as well as trainee future career goals.

Nelson and Friedlander (2001) also qualitatively explored the impact of harmful conflict on supervision process and outcomes. The researchers found that participants reported experiencing conflict related to miscommunications regarding differing world views regarding gender or ethnicity in supervision. Participants, who described their supervisors as distant and uncommitted to establishing a strong working alliance,

reported that these conflicts were never resolved and led them to experience extreme stress and self-doubt. Nelson and Friedlander concluded that failure to build a strong supervisory working alliance, led to the inability to resolve inevitable conflicts that arise in supervision and, subsequently, impacted supervision outcomes.

One study has empirically examined the mediating role of the supervisory working alliance on the relationship between cultural differences and supervision outcomes. Cheon et al. (2009) designed a study that examined the relationships among cultural differences, the supervisory relationship, and supervisee satisfaction. In particular, Cheon et al. hypothesized that a higher degree of match between the supervisor and supervisee on contextual variables would affect the experience of conflict in supervision and the strength of the supervisory working alliance, which, in turn, would affected supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Study participants included 132 trainees enrolled in accredited marriage and family therapy (MFT) programs in the United States. An 84-question survey was administered to participants and included the Working Alliance Inventory-Supervisee (WAI-S; Baker, 1991), the Role Conflict subscale from the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI; Olk & Friedlander, 1992), the Supervision Outcomes Survey (SOS; Worthen & Dougher, 2000; Worthen & Isakson, 2003), and demographic form that asked participants to report their own and their current or most recent supervisors' age, race, gender, religious affiliation, theoretical orientation, and sexual orientation. From the information provided on the demographic sheet (i.e., age, race, gender, religious affiliation, theoretical orientation, and sexual orientation), Cheon et al. (2009) created a variable called "matching" to measure the degree of similarity between the supervisor and trainee. In particular, participants who expressed

the same race, gender, religious affiliation, theoretical orientation, and sexual orientation as their supervisor received a score of “1” on each item. If the difference in age between a supervisor and supervisee was 5 years or less, received a score of one. Higher scores on the match variable indicated a higher degree of similarity.

Results from hierarchical multiple regression revealed that matching had a small, but significant influence supervisee satisfaction with supervision when role conflict was added to the model. When the supervisory working alliance was added to the model, however, matching lost its significant influence on supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In fact, the supervisory working alliance accounted for 67.4% of the variance in participant satisfaction with supervision.

These findings indicated that supervisee-supervisor match on cultural and methodological variables did not impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision in the sample when the working alliance was considered. Cheon et al. (2009) concluded that it was “not necessarily individual contextual or methodological variables of the supervisor or supervisee, nor how they match up on these characteristics, but rather the relationship between the two that leads to satisfaction” (p. 61). The researchers further exerted the supervisory working alliance may act as a mediator in for cultural and methodological variables on the outcome of supervisee satisfaction.

Section Summary

The working alliance has emerged as a central construct in the supervision literature (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Knowledge concerning the working alliance, within the context of supervision, has been provided from the extension of Bordin’s (1979) working alliance theory and research on the client-therapist relationship. The

supervisory working alliance is thought to be characterized by three factors: (1) the extent to which supervisor and supervisee agree on supervision goals, (2) the extent to which the supervisor and supervisee agree on the supervision tasks need to accomplish the goals, and (3) the emotional bond that forms between the supervisor and supervisee (Bordin, 1983). A strong supervisory alliance develops when the supervisor and trainee agree on the goals and tasks of supervision, and are able to establish an emotional bond. Bordin believed the working alliance is dynamic in nature and, therefore, subject to weakening and repairs throughout the supervision process. A strong working alliance is able to endure recurrent weakening and repairs through the renegotiation of supervision goals and tasks. In fact, the renegotiation of goals and tasks facilitates mutual trust between the supervisor and trainee, and strengthens their emotional bond. A strong emotional bond, in turn, increases adherence to supervision tasks and goal attainment (Bordin, 1983).

To date, the literature has explored how supervisory style, supervisor self-disclosure, supervisee role conflict and ambiguity, and conflict between the supervisor and supervisee affect the strength of the working alliance. Supervisory style and supervisor disclosure have been found to strengthen the working alliance between a supervisor and supervisee. When supervisors are perceived to be interpersonally sensitive (e.g., reflective, empathetic) and attractive (e.g., warm, friendly) a stronger working alliance is reported (Chen & Bernstein, 2000; Ladany et al., 2001). Additionally, supervisors with an attractive supervision style engage in frequent self-disclosure during supervision, which may lead to more agreement on the goals and tasks of supervision, as well as a stronger emotional bond (Ladany et al., 2001; Ladany & Lehrman-

Waterman, 1999). The experience of role conflict, role ambiguity, and conflict regarding theoretical orientation, personality issues and cultural differences are, on the other hand, related to a weak supervisory working alliance. With regard to role conflict and ambiguity, supervisees experience more role conflict and ambiguity when disagreement on goals and tasks is high (Ladany & Friedlander, 1995; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). The experience of conflict in supervision has also been found to initially weaken the supervisory working alliance, but several studies report that the alliance is able to recover when supervisor and supervisee discuss the conflict in supervision (Gray et al., 2001; Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983; Quarto, 2002). If the conflict is not discussed in supervision the working alliance may not recover and supervisees become dissatisfied with supervision, turn to others for support, and, in extreme cases, consider changing their professional plans (Moskowitz & Rupert, 1983; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002).

The supervisory working alliance is a process variable in supervision meaning that, in addition to being influenced by certain factors, the working alliance affects supervision outcomes. Researchers have examined how the supervisory working alliance impacts supervisee satisfaction with supervision, supervisee CSE, supervisee personal and skill development, and treatment adherence. Supervisee satisfaction with supervision has been found to be positively correlated with the supervisory working alliance (Ladany et al., 1999; Ting, 2009). That is, higher agreement on the tasks and goals of supervision, as well as a strong emotional bond are related to supervisee positive reactions to supervisor personal qualities, positive judgments of own behavior in supervision and a higher level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. The relationship between

supervisory working alliance and CSE is not as clear in the literature. Three studies (Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Migron, 2007) report that the supervisory working alliance fails to predict supervisee CSE. Humedian (2002) and Ting (2009), on the other hand, have found the supervisory working alliance to be a strong predictor of supervisee CSE.

While the findings of Ladany et al., Lorenz, and Migron appear to conflict with those of Humedian and Ting, it should be noted significant limitations related to sampling were present in both Lorenz's and Migron's dissertation studies. Lorenz's dissertations study has 44 participants, though a minimum of 89 completed surveys were need to allow for adequate power and to detect small effect sizes. Migron used a sample that included participants from a single counselor training program, limiting the generalizability of the study's results to different training programs in the US or abroad. These limitations make it difficult to broadly conclude that there is no relationship between the supervisory working alliance and CSE, and illustrate the need to further explore the association between these two variables. In addition to satisfactions with supervision and supervisee CSE, the supervisory working alliance has been found to positively predict counselor skill and personal development, adherence to treatment, and the strength of the counseling alliance (Patton & Kivlighan, 1997; Thome & Smaby, 2006). Clearly, empirical evidence suggests that positive outcomes in supervision are contingent on the establishment of a strong supervisory working alliance.

As the supervisory working alliance is affected by antecedent variables (e.g., supervisor style, self-disclosure, and conflict), as well as impacts supervision outcomes, scholars have suggested that the working alliance in supervision may serve as a mediator

between supervision antecedents and outcomes (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Ladany & Walker, 2001). The findings of Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002) and Nelson and Friedlander (2002) provide empirical evidence that support this notion. In particular, these studies found that negative events in supervision (some of which were related to cultural misunderstandings) led to a weakening in the supervisor alliance, which in turn decreased trainee satisfaction with supervision, adversely impacted the counseling alliance, and led to trainee self-doubt and the experience of extreme stress. Cheon et al. (2009) specifically explored the relationships among cultural differences, the supervisory relationship, and supervisee satisfaction. Results confirmed that the supervisory working alliance, not degree of similarity on supervisor-supervisee cultural variables, accounted for the variance in supervisee satisfaction with supervision. These results led Cheon et al. to conclude that the supervisory working alliance mediates the relationship between cultural variables and supervisee satisfaction with supervision.

Similar to Cheon et al.'s (2009) research, the current study examines the supervisory working alliance as a mediator of the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes. Specifically, it is hypothesized that higher degree of cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee may weaken the supervisory working alliance and, in turn, the weakened alliance will negatively impact supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. The current study furthers Cheon et al.'s work by exploring whether the negative effects of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on the supervisory working alliance and supervision outcomes may be moderated by supervisor level of cultural competence.

Supervisor Multicultural Competence

Research demonstrates that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee directly affects supervision, and has the potential to negatively influence the supervisory working alliance and, in turn, supervision outcomes. Empirical evidence also suggests that the impact of cultural differences on the supervisory working alliance and supervision outcomes may be moderated by the supervisor's level of multicultural competence. This section defines multicultural counseling competence, outlines the multicultural competencies specific to clinical supervisors, and considers the empirical research related to supervisor multicultural competence.

Multicultural Counseling Competence

Sue, Arredondo, and McDavis (1992) proposed a conceptual framework that describes and organizes multicultural counseling competencies. According to Sue et al. a culturally competent counselor demonstrates three fundamental characteristics.

- Culturally competent counselors actively engage in the process of becoming aware of their own assumptions and biases about human behavior. Such counselors recognize they are a product of “cultural conditioning” (Sue et al., p. 70) and that personal values have the potential to interfere with their work when counseling minority clients.
- Culturally competent counselors actively seek to understand and respect the unique worldviews culturally diverse clients. Sue et al. maintained that culturally skilled counselors are not required to adopt the worldviews of their clients, but must accept them as a valid perspective.

- Culturally competence counselors develop and implement techniques and intervention strategies that are appropriate, applicable, and sensitive to the needs to culturally diverse clients.

Sue et al. also identified three dimensions of cultural competency: (a) beliefs and attitudes, (b) knowledge, and (c) skills. The first dimension, beliefs and attitudes, deals with the counselor's need to examine his or her personal biases and stereotypes, as well as develop a positive attitude towards cultural diversity. The second dimension, knowledge, refers to the notion that a culturally competent counselor has knowledge regarding his or her own worldview, the cultural groups he or she works with, and sociopolitical influences. The final dimension, skills, is concerned with the need to have specific intervention techniques and strategies for working with minority clients. Sue et al.'s conceptual framework organized these characteristics and dimensions into a 3x3 matrix, whereby each of the three characteristics (i.e., awareness of own assumptions, values, and biases; understanding the worldview of a culturally diverse client; and development and implementation of relevant intervention strategies and techniques) has three dimensions (i.e., beliefs and attitudes, knowledge, skills). Using this framework Sue et al. developed 31 guidelines for the provision of culturally competent counseling. While Sue et al.'s framework and competencies have been criticized for overemphasizing racial differences (Weinrach & Thomas, 2004) and being difficult to learn and assess in counseling relationships (Knapik & Miloti, 2006), the competencies have been endorsed by the American Counseling Association (ACA), serving as guidelines for the inclusive and ethical practice of counseling with culturally diverse clients.

Multicultural Competencies Specific to Clinical Supervisors

Sue et al.'s (1992) multicultural counseling competencies were developed to facilitate the therapeutic relationship between a counselor and culturally diverse client. Much less attention has been devoted to the presence of cultural differences in supervision and the impact of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee functioning and development (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997). Supervisor multicultural competence has been defined as the supervisor's awareness, knowledge, and skills with regard to working with culturally diverse supervisees (Hird, Tao, & Gloria, 2006). According to current scholars, (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Inman, 2006), multiculturally competent supervisors possess awareness, knowledge, and skills across five specific dimensions that include supervisor and supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations. To date, no unifying definition or set of standards has been adopted by the ACA or Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES); however, several scholars have developed frameworks that provide instruction for developing multicultural competence in supervision and practical guidance for supervisors working with culturally diverse supervisees.

Early theoretical articles regarding multicultural issues in supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992; Carney & Kahn, 1984; Gardner, 1980; Peterson, 1991b; Vasquez & McKinley, 1982) proposed models which integrate multicultural competence into the provision of supervision. While these models brought awareness to the cultural issues present in supervision and have subsequently shaped our current understanding of multicultural supervision, they, like Sue et al.'s model, focused solely on supervisor-supervisee racial differences and oversimplified the impact of cultural differences on

supervision (Leong & Wagner, 1994). In light of these limitations and the growing need to address cultural differences in supervision, D'Angela and Daniels (1992) provided three practical action strategies supervisors could implement to affectively address multicultural issues in supervision. These strategies include:

- Attending professional development workshops that address issues concerning multicultural counseling and supervision;
- Actively seeking consultation from “cultural ambassadors” (D'Angela & Daniels, p. 306), who are acknowledged role models in the local community;
- Clarifying the strength and weakness of one's own counseling and supervision approaches to a supervisee when providing supervision services.

D'Angela and Daniels emphasized that the implementation of these strategies must be preceded by a genuine commitment to developing the awareness, knowledge, and skills needed to be multiculturally competent. They also suggested that supervisors be willing to evaluate their own level of multicultural competence with regard to awareness, knowledge, and skills.

Ancis and Ladany (2001), similar to D'Angela and Daniels (1997), developed a model for multicultural supervision after noting that existing frameworks focused solely on racial differences in supervision. Specifically, Ancis and Ladany exerted that persons were comprised of multiple cultural identities (e.g., race/ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation) and, as a result, may be a member of a socially oppressed or privileged group. As supervisors move from a place of complacency and apathy towards oppression and power differentials to increased awareness of and respect for cultural differences,

they are able to demonstrate multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills across five broad content areas. These five content areas include:

- personal development, wherein supervisors engage in ongoing self-exploration concerning their own values, biases, and personal limitation, while working to foster self-exploration, awareness, and knowledge of their supervisees;
- conceptualization, whereby supervisors understand, as well as encourage supervisees to consider the impact of contextual factors on clients and are flexible with regard to treatment approaches and interventions;
- interventions, whereby supervisors understand, as well as encourage supervisees to consider the impact of contextual factors on clients and are flexible with regard to treatment approaches and interventions;
- process, in which supervisors build a supervisory relationship that is characterized by respect and open communication, where discussions regarding cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee are initiated by the supervisor; and
- evaluation, where supervisee multicultural competence is viewed as an important outcome of supervision and is included in evaluations of the supervisee's counseling skills.

Ancis and Ladany further exerted that supervisors must have sufficiently advanced awareness, knowledge, and skills across these five content areas in order to facilitate supervisee development and competence. Ancis and Ladany's model is widely cited in the multicultural supervision literature as it provides supervisors with a transtheoretical model for working with supervisees from diverse cultural backgrounds. Several

additional supervision models that address multicultural competence have since been developed (e.g., Chang, Hays, & Shoffner, 2003; Field, Chavez-Korell, & Rodriguez, 2010; Garrett, Borders, Crutchfield, Torres-Rivera, Brotherton, & Curtis, 2001; Lassiter, Napolitano, & Ng, 2008; Miville, Rosa, & Constantine, 2005; Robinson, Bradley, & Hendricks, 2000; Singh & Chun, 2010; Torres-Rivera, Phan, Maddux, Wilbur, & Garrett, 2001). These models are not described at length in this literature review because they address cultural competency when working with a specific cultural group, focus on developing supervisee multicultural competence, or are dated and not widely cited in the supervision literature.

While an in-depth examination of all supervision models that address multicultural competence is beyond the scope of this literature review, Ober, Granello, and Henfield's (2009) merits further discussion. This model is worth noting because it provides supervisors with a process that can be implemented in supervision to increase supervisee multicultural competence and incorporates aspects of widely published models (e.g., Ancis and Ladany's (2001) model, Sue et al.'s (1992) model, and Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). In particular, Ober et al. recommends that the supervisor and supervisee specify a domain of multicultural competency (e.g., awareness) and a specific competency (e.g., understanding the worldview of a culturally diverse client) to focus on during supervision sessions. This decision is derived from collaborative discussions between the supervisor and supervisee, and takes into account the supervisee's level of cultural competence. The supervisor is then responsible for providing interventions in supervision that assist the supervisee in moving to high levels of multicultural competence. This model, much like Ancis and

Ladany's, requires supervisors to possess a high level of multicultural counseling competence as well as the ability to engage in open discussion regarding cultural issues in supervision and the implementation of strategies that facilitate supervisee movement from low to high levels of cultural competence.

Supervisor Multicultural Competence in Supervision

The preceding theoretical models emphasize the importance of providing supervision that is culturally sensitive to supervisee needs and increases supervisee cultural competence. Accordingly, several empirical studies have investigated the nature of supervisor multicultural competence in supervision, focusing on when and how often multicultural issues are addressed. One such study was conducted by Constantine (1997), who sought to determine the extent to which cultural differences in supervision occurred and the degree to which these cultural differences were discussed in the supervisory relationship. Participants included 30 predoctoral psychology interns and their supervisors. The study revealed that less than 15% of time in supervision was spent addressing multicultural issues despite the fact that all 30 supervisory dyads reported cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee on at least two demographic dimensions. Supervisees indicated that the supervisory relationship may have been enhanced if more supervision time was devoted to processing cultural differences present in the supervisory relationship, but supervisors reported they did not believe multicultural issues were important or had not given much thought to multicultural issues. The majority of supervisors (70%) reported never completing a multicultural counseling course, whereas 70% of all intern participants had taken at least one multicultural counseling course. While participants indicated the processing of cultural differences in

supervision may enhance the supervisory relationship, Constantine's findings highlight the fact that supervisees may have more multicultural training than their supervisors and, as a result, supervisors may find it difficult to provide competent multicultural supervision. Constantine, therefore, concluded it was imperative for supervisors to demonstrate increased sensitivity towards cultural issues in supervision and augment their own multicultural competence by increasing awareness, knowledge, and skills as they relate to cultural differences within the supervisory relationship.

Gloria, Hird, and Tao (2008) also conducted a study that examined supervisor multicultural competence in 211 white, psychology intern supervisors. Survey results reported that female supervisors had higher levels of multicultural supervision competence and spent more time in supervision discussing cultural differences than their male counterparts. Gloria et al. exerted that white female supervisors may be more likely to have experienced personal discrimination and, therefore, have more cultural self-awareness and heightened sensitivity to cultural issues in supervision. While gender did appear to impact multicultural sensitivity, the strongest predictor of multicultural supervisor competence was the number of interns supervisors were currently supervising and had supervised throughout their career. Gloria et al. concluded that multicultural competence seemed to develop as supervisors acquired more experience in providing multicultural supervision.

Hird et al. (2006) explored the self-reported multicultural supervision competence of White and racial/ethnic minority (REM) psychology supervisions in 316 racially similar dyads and 126 racially different dyads. Overall, White supervisors reported less multicultural supervision competence and spent less time in supervision

addressing cultural issues than REM supervisors. REM supervisors spent more time discussing cultural issues in racially similar dyads than White supervisors, who discussed cultural issues significantly more in racially different dyads. Based on these findings, Hird et al. arrived at two major conclusions: 1) REM supervisors may have spent more time processing cultural concerns in racially similar dyads because race may be a more salient issue for REM supervisors and supervisees than for White supervisors and supervisees, who as a result of White privilege may be less aware of the cultural dimensions present in supervision; and 2) White supervisors may have discussed cultural concerns more in racially different dyads than in racially similar dyads because they perceived differences in language, race, religion, and sexual orientation to be more salient in the racially diverse dyads. These studies (Constantine; 1997; Gloria et al., 2008; Hird et al., 2006) suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is important in the provision of supervision, but overall supervisors seem to lack multicultural competence and fail to discuss cultural issues in supervision, unless they have experienced personal discrimination or have previous experience in providing multicultural supervision. Constantine (1997) and Hird et al. further imply that both the presence of cultural differences in supervision and the supervisor's ability to recognize and willingness to discuss these differences impact supervision.

The Impact of Supervisor Multicultural Competence on the Supervisory Working Alliance, Supervisee Satisfaction with Supervision, and CSE

Cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee are pervasive in supervision, but the preceding research suggests that supervisors lack multicultural competence and fail to discuss cultural issues in supervision, unless they have

experienced personal discrimination or have previous experience in providing multicultural supervision. Constantine's (1997) study further suggested that supervisor lack of multicultural competence and neglect to address cultural issues in supervision may adversely impact supervision processes and outcomes. To date, several researchers have investigated the relationships among degree of supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory relationship, satisfaction with supervision, and self-efficacy.

Walker et al. (2007) qualitatively explored the influence of supervisor multicultural competence on the supervisory relationship of 111 female psychology trainees. Participants reported that they experienced gender-supportive events (e.g., the supervisor including client's gender in discussing client cases; processing gender-related transference/countertransference in supervision) or gender-unsupportive events (e.g., supervisor comments based gender stereotypes and sexual comments or advances) in supervision. Those who experienced non-supportive gender-related events were less likely to agree on the tasks and goals of supervision and had a weaker emotional bond with their supervisor. Additionally, participants, who reported non-supportive gender-related events, were less likely to self-disclose in supervision than trainees who experienced supportive gender-related events. These findings led Walker et al. to conclude that supervisors who discussed gender in supervision positively influenced the supervisory relationship, while supervisors who maintained gender-related stereotypes and acted according to these stereotypes, negatively affected the supervisory working alliance.

In addition to the supervisory working alliance, researchers have also examined the impact to supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee satisfaction with

supervision. In a study designed to develop and validate the International Student Supervision Scale, Nilsson and Dodds (2006) examined the relationships among perceived supervisor multicultural competence, supervisory discussions regarding cultural issues and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Study participants included 115 international counseling and psychology trainees enrolled in U.S. institutions. Trainees rated their supervisors as more sensitive to cultural issues and were more satisfied with supervision when supervisors discussed cultural issues in supervision. On the other hand, trainees who reported having more cultural knowledge than their supervisors were less satisfied with supervision and rated their supervisors as less sensitive to cultural issues. Lastly, trainee's in this study, similar to Constantine's (1997) findings, reported that more cultural discussions occurred when their supervisors was of color than when their supervisor was White. Mori, Inman, and Caskie (2009) also investigated the relationships between supervisor multicultural competence, cultural discussion and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Participants were 104 international students enrolled in counseling or psychology programs in the United States. Study results indicated that supervisor multicultural competence had a direct, positive influence on supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Additionally, higher levels of cultural discussion were found to predict increased supervisee satisfaction with supervision. These findings led Mori et al. to conclude that supervisors, who were multiculturally competent, engaged supervisees in cultural discussion, which, in turn, led to increases in supervisee level of satisfaction with supervision.

Several researchers have found that supervisor multicultural competence also impacts supervisee self-efficacy and perceived multicultural competence. Ladany et al.

(1997) explored whether supervisor instruction to focus on multicultural issues during supervision was related to supervisee multicultural case conceptualization ability and self-reported multicultural competence in 116 psychology and social work trainees. Results indicated that supervisor instruction to focus on racial issues in case conceptualizations was positively related to trainee multicultural case conceptualization ability and self-reported multicultural competence. Trainees, therefore, felt more confident in their case conceptualization abilities and their own multicultural competence when supervisors asked them to focus on racial issues in supervision. Vereen et al.(2008) conducted a national survey of 198 counseling trainees to determine the factors that influence development of trainee perceived multicultural competence. They, like Ladany et al. (1997), found that trainees who received clinical supervision related to cultural issues positively influenced trainee perceived level of multicultural counseling competence. Results furthermore indicated that conducting counseling with non-White clients increased trainee perceived multicultural competence. Constantine (2001) actually examined the extent to which the provision of multicultural supervision accounted for 122 counseling psychology trainees' multicultural counseling self-efficacy. Results indicated that, when controlling social desirability (i.e., need for approval) and the number of previous multicultural counseling courses completed, the average time spent in supervision per week discussing multicultural issues with supervisors was significant predictor of trainees' multicultural counseling self-efficacy. Accordingly, Constantine concluded that receiving supervision from a multiculturally competent supervisor played a key role in increasing trainee self-efficacy when working with culturally diverse clients, and appeared to be more effective than receiving multicultural training alone.

The studies above (Constantine, 2001; Ladany et al., 1997; Vereen et al., 2008) suggest that supervisor multicultural competence directly impacts supervision outcomes. While a supervisor who is multiculturally competent may increase supervisee multicultural competence, self-efficacy, and satisfaction with supervision, two studies to date propose that supervisor multicultural competence may indirectly influence supervision outcomes through the supervisory working alliance. In an effort to understand the impact of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisory processes and outcomes, Burkard et al. (2006) qualitatively explored the experience of culturally responsive and unresponsive cross-cultural supervision in 13 European American supervisees and 13 supervisees of color enrolled in graduate level psychology programs. Culturally responsive events were defined by participants as occurring when supervisors openly sought information about the client's cultural background and assisted the supervisee with exploring the impact of the client's culture on his or her situation. Culturally non-responsive events included supervisors who avoided or verbally dismissed the effect of culture on client issues and treatment. Participants reported that culturally responsive events positively impacted the supervisory relationship, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee perceived multicultural competence. In particular, supervisees reported reduced fear and anxiety with regard to discussing cultural issues in therapy as well as increased confidence. They also reported feeling more safe and comfortable in their own supervision, which enabled them to more openly discuss cultural issues and personal weaknesses. On the other hand, participants reported that culturally unresponsive events negatively impacted the supervisory relationship, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee perceived multicultural

competence. In general, supervisees reported feeling offended, upset, discussed, uncomfortable and scared; they also experienced negative feelings towards their supervisors and sought support from classmates and friends. With regard to the supervisory relationship, supervisees became distrustful of their supervisor, concealed information from the supervisor, and kept conversation in supervision on a superficial level. Burkard et al. concluded that supervisor competence with regard multicultural issues in supervision and counseling seemed to affect the supervisory working alliance for study participants, and that the supervisory alliance, in turn, impacted supervisee's reported satisfaction with supervision.

Inman (2006) quantitatively investigated the direct and indirect effects of supervisor multicultural competence in supervision on the supervisory working alliance, supervisee multicultural competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Based on the existing literature, Inman tested three path-analysis models:

- The full conceptual model hypothesized that supervisor multicultural competence was directly and indirectly predicted by the supervisory working alliance, supervisee multicultural competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The indirect paths from supervisor multicultural competence to supervisee multicultural competence and satisfaction with supervision were mediated by the supervisory working alliance.
- The mediator model hypothesized that supervisor multicultural competence predicted supervisee multicultural competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision.

- The direct model hypothesized that supervisor multicultural competence was a direct predictor of supervisee multicultural competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision.

Potential participants were randomly selected from a mailing list provided by the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy and asked to complete a survey packet containing the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI; Inman, 2005), Working Alliance—Trainee Version (WAI—T; Bahrnick, 1989), Multicultural Case Conceptualization Ability (Ladany et al., 1997), the Supervision Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ; Ladany et al., 1996), and a demographic form. Respondents included 147 master's and doctoral level trainees who were enrolled in a marriage and family therapy program, as well as postgraduate, unlicensed marriage and family therapy trainees.

Inman (2006) used structural equation modeling to statistically test the three hypothesized models. Results indicated that SMCI was significantly related to both outcome variables and strongly associated with WAI-T. The WAI-T was also significantly related to the outcome variables. Lastly, the impact of SMCI on the outcome variables decreased after the WAI-T was controlled for. Given that both direct and indirect pathways from SMCI to WAI-T and the outcome variables were statistically significant, the full model was the most parsimonious, providing the best fit for the data. The study did, however, reveal that supervisor multicultural competence had a direct, but negative, relationship with supervisee multicultural competence. Inman concluded that the supervisory working alliance mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision, while factors

(e.g., self-awareness, developmental level) beyond those examined in the study appeared to contribute to supervisee multicultural competence.

Section Summary

Multicultural competence as defined by Sue, Arredondo and McDavis (1992) involves awareness of personal assumptions and biases about human behavior, knowledge of cultural groups, and having the skills needed to work with persons from culturally diverse backgrounds. Supervisors who demonstrate multicultural competence in supervision, therefore, possess the awareness, knowledge, and skills needed to work with culturally diverse supervisees and their clients (Hird et al., 2006). While no uniform definition or set of multicultural supervision competencies has been accepted by the ACA or ACES, several scholars (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; D'Angela & Daniels, 1992; Ober et al., 2009) have developed frameworks that guide the research and practice of multicultural competence in supervision.

Using the theoretical frameworks of multicultural supervision competence researchers have explored the nature and provision of supervision that is culturally sensitive to supervisee needs. These studies highlight the importance of supervisor multicultural competence in supervision, but suggest that, overall, supervisors seem to lack multicultural competence and neglect to discuss cultural issues in supervision (Constantine; 1997; Gloria et al., 2008; Hird et al., 2006). Gloria et al. and Hird et al. did, however, suggest that supervisor multicultural competence may increase if supervisors have experienced personal discrimination or have previous experience in providing multicultural supervision. Constantine and Hird et al. also imply that supervisor multicultural competence may moderate the relationship between supervisor-

supervisee cultural differences and the process and outcomes of supervision. In particular, it appears that a supervisor's ability to recognize and willingness to discuss cultural issues may facilitate a stronger working alliance and positive supervision outcomes when cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee exist. Supervisees who experienced a supportive, multiculturally competent supervisors (e.g., have more cultural knowledge than supervisees, discuss cultural differences in supervision, focus on client multicultural issues) reported a stronger supervisory working alliance, increased satisfaction with supervision, as well as self-reported multicultural competence and more confidence in counseling abilities (Constantine, 2001; Ladany et al., 1997; Vereen et al., 2008). Supervisees who experienced a non-supportive, culturally incompetent supervisor (e.g., had less cultural knowledge than supervisee, avoided discuss cultural differences in supervision), on the other hand, reported a weaker supervisory working alliance, less self-disclosure, and less satisfaction with supervision (Constantine, 1997; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006).

While the literature demonstrates that supervisor multicultural competence influences supervision processes and outcomes, two studies to date propose that supervisor multicultural competence may also indirectly influence supervision outcomes through the supervisory working alliance. According to the results of Burkard et al. (2006) and Inman (2006), supervisor level competence with regard to multicultural issues in supervision positively influenced the strength of the supervisory working alliance which, in turn, affected supervisee reported satisfaction with supervision. Inman concluded that the supervisory working alliance seemed to mediate the relationship supervisor multicultural competence and supervisory outcomes. Similar to Inman this

study also examines the relationships between supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, and supervision outcomes. Specifically, it is hypothesized that higher levels of supervisor multicultural competence will strengthen the supervisory working alliance, which will, in turn, increase supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. The current study furthers Inman's work by exploring if high levels of supervisor multicultural competence predict a strong supervisory working alliance when degree of cultural difference between the supervisor and supervisee is high.

Chapter Summary and the Proposed Model

Clinical supervision is recognized as a necessary component in the training of competence counselors as it enhances supervisee professional functioning (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Two desired outcomes of clinical supervision are increased supervisee CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. While increases in supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision appear to enhance supervisee professional functioning and level of competence (Arbel, 2006; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Ladany et al., 1999; Larson et al., 1999; Romi & Teichman, 1995; Spence et al., 2001; Ting, 2009), research suggests that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee may negatively impact these outcomes. Racial, gender, and age differences between a supervisor and supervisee, in particular, have been shown to have a direct and negative impact on the supervisory working alliance, supervisees' perceived counseling competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision (Adair, 2001; Behling, Curtis, & Foster, 1988; Cook & Helm, 1988; McCarthy, Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen, 2002; Vander Kolk, 1974; Worthington & Stern, 1985). Other, more recent, research demonstrates that the seemingly direct relationship between supervisor-

supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes is more complex, relying on variables such as the supervisory working alliance and supervisor multicultural competence (Bhat & Davis, 2007; Burkard et al., 2009; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Granello, 2003; Harbin et al., 2008; Hilton et al., 1995; Hudson, 2007; Suzen, 2002; Weinstein, 2006).

Research concerning the supervisory working alliance and supervisor multicultural competence further demonstrates that supervisor-supervisee differences on cultural variables alone does not account for negative supervision outcomes. Instead, it appears that the nature and quality of the supervisory working alliance, as well as the supervisor's ability to provide supportive supervision that recognizes and addresses cultural differences within the supervisory relationship play a role in supervision outcomes. Supervisees who experienced supportive, multiculturally competent supervisors reported a stronger supervisory working alliance, increased satisfaction with supervision, as well as self-reported multicultural competence and more confidence in counseling abilities (Constantine, 2001; Ladany et al., 1997; Vereen et al., 2008). Cheron et al. (2009) and Inman (2006) further found that cultural differences in supervision and supervisor multicultural competence do not directly impact supervision outcomes, but are mediated by the supervisory working alliance. In particular, it appears that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee, as well as supervisor multicultural competence impact the supervisory working alliance which, in turn, affects supervision outcomes.

The current body of literature provides some important insights into how cultural differences in supervision impact supervision outcomes, but has several limitations.

Existing studies (Adair, 2001; Bhat & Davis, 2007; Cook, 1994; Cook & Helms, 1988; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Hilton et al., 1995; Ladany et al., 1997; Peterson, 1991a; Vander Kolk, 1974) remain heavily focused on racial and ethnic differences between supervisor and supervisee. Very few researchers (Bukard et al., 2009; Granello, 2003; Harbin et al., 2008; Suzen, 2002; Weinstein, 2006) have considered the impact of cultural factors such as age, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation on supervision outcomes.

Additionally, the majority of the literature available on cultural differences in supervision is based on research conducted in the field of psychology. Such studies surveyed the experiences of psychology trainees and the supervisors thus limiting the generalizability of the results to counseling trainees and their experience in multicultural supervision. Lastly, no study to date has considered how both supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance impact the relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervision outcomes.

The current study strives to fill this gap in the literature by testing a model that examines the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, and supervision outcomes in counseling trainees. Based on the existing literature, the researcher developed a moderated mediation model that exerts: 1) the effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision is mediated by supervisory working alliance, and 2) effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance is moderated by supervisor multicultural competence. That is, 1) Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of

ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation have a weaker working alliance with their supervisors and those with weaker working alliance are less likely to be satisfied with supervision and lower counseling self-efficacy; and 2) supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation will have a stronger working alliance when they perceive the supervisor to have high multicultural competence. The stronger working alliance will lead to higher satisfaction with supervision and higher counseling self-efficacy.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the methodology and design that were used in exploring the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, and supervision outcomes. It provides a description of the research design, a review of the research questions and corresponding hypotheses, participant criteria and selection procedures, and an overview of the instruments used in this study. Data collection and analysis procedures, as well as the limitations of this research methodology, are also discussed.

Purpose Statement

The overarching purpose of the research study was to test the plausibility of a theoretical model that conceptually depicts the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, the researcher tested a theoretical one-mediator, moderated mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher et al., 2007) developed for this study. The model proposes that the supervisory working alliance may mediate the negative effects of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervision outcomes. It suggests that supervisees, who perceive their supervisors to have higher levels of multicultural competence will experience a stronger working alliance, be more satisfied with supervision, and have higher self-efficacy with regard to their counseling skills than supervisees who perceived their supervisors to have lower levels of multicultural competence.

In testing the theoretical model, the researcher hoped to accomplish five specific purposes: (1) to determine if a direct, significant relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee CSE, and supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee satisfaction with supervision exist; (2) to determine if a direct, significant relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE, and supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision exist; 3) to determine if the supervisory working alliance mediates the relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision; 4) to determine if the supervisory working alliance mediates the relationships between supervisor multicultural competence, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision; and (5) to determine if supervisor multicultural competence moderates the relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE through the supervisory working alliance.

Research Design

This study employed a quantitative, non-experimental survey design. Survey design was chosen as a viable methodology for this study as the researcher aimed to: (1) gather and analyze data regarding participant characteristics and perceptions relating to specified supervision constructs, and (2) describe naturally occurring variations among the specified variables (Creswell, 2009). Survey design also allowed the researcher to efficiently collect and analyze data from a large population, thereby increasing the generalizability of the study results (Roberts, 1999). The survey packet included two sections. The first section was an overview containing instructions and Institutional

Review Board (IRB) approval information (Appendix A). The second section included, in random order, included the following: (a) a demographics questionnaire used to gain information about the supervisor and supervisee cultural demographics, supervisee clinical setting, number and frequency of supervision sessions, and the type of supervision received; (b) the 12-item WAI-SF (Ladany, Mori, & Mehr, 2007); (c) the 34-item SMC (Inman, 2005); (d) the 37-item COSE (Larson et al., 1992); and (e) the 12-item TPRS-R (Holloway & Wampold, 1984).

The exogenous variables for this study were supervisor-supervisee cultural difference (i.e., the perceived difference between supervisor and supervisee on cultural demographics, which was measured by the degree to which participants perceived their supervisors to be different than them with regard to ethnicity/race, age, gender, spiritual orientation, and sexual orientation), supervisor multicultural competence as measured by the SMC (Inman, 2005), and the supervisory working alliance as measured by WAI-SF subscales (Ladany, Mori, & Mehr, 2007). The interaction of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence was also included as an exogenous variable in this study. The exogenous, interaction variable measured the simultaneous influence of the two, exogenous variables, supervisor-supervisee cultural difference and supervisor multicultural competence, on the supervisory working alliance and two endogenous variables. This allowed the researcher to determine if supervisor multicultural competence moderated the relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the endogenous variables. The endogenous variables in this study were supervisee perceived counseling self-efficacy as measured by the COSE

subscales (Larson et al., 1992) and supervisee satisfaction with supervision as measured by the TPRS-R subscales (Holloway & Wampold, 1984).

Theoretical Moderated Mediation Model

The model aims to predict two endogenous variables, the latent construct of supervisee satisfaction with supervision and the latent construct of supervisee CSE from four exogenous variables (i.e., supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the interaction of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence and the latent construct of supervisory working alliance). Figure 1 is a pictorial representation of the structural model expressed as a path diagram. The direction of the arrows indicates theoretical causal relationships, circles represent latent constructs, and squares represent observed, measured variables. Arrows indicate expected significant associations.

Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence are hypothesized to be directly related to the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE. It is expected that the supervisory working alliance will serve as a mediating latent variable between the exogenous variables, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence, and the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE. Lastly, it is hypothesized that the supervisory working alliance will serve as a mediator variable between the interaction variable and the endogenous variables supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE, indicating that supervisor multicultural competence moderates the relationship between supervisee-supervisor cultural differences and the supervisory working alliance.

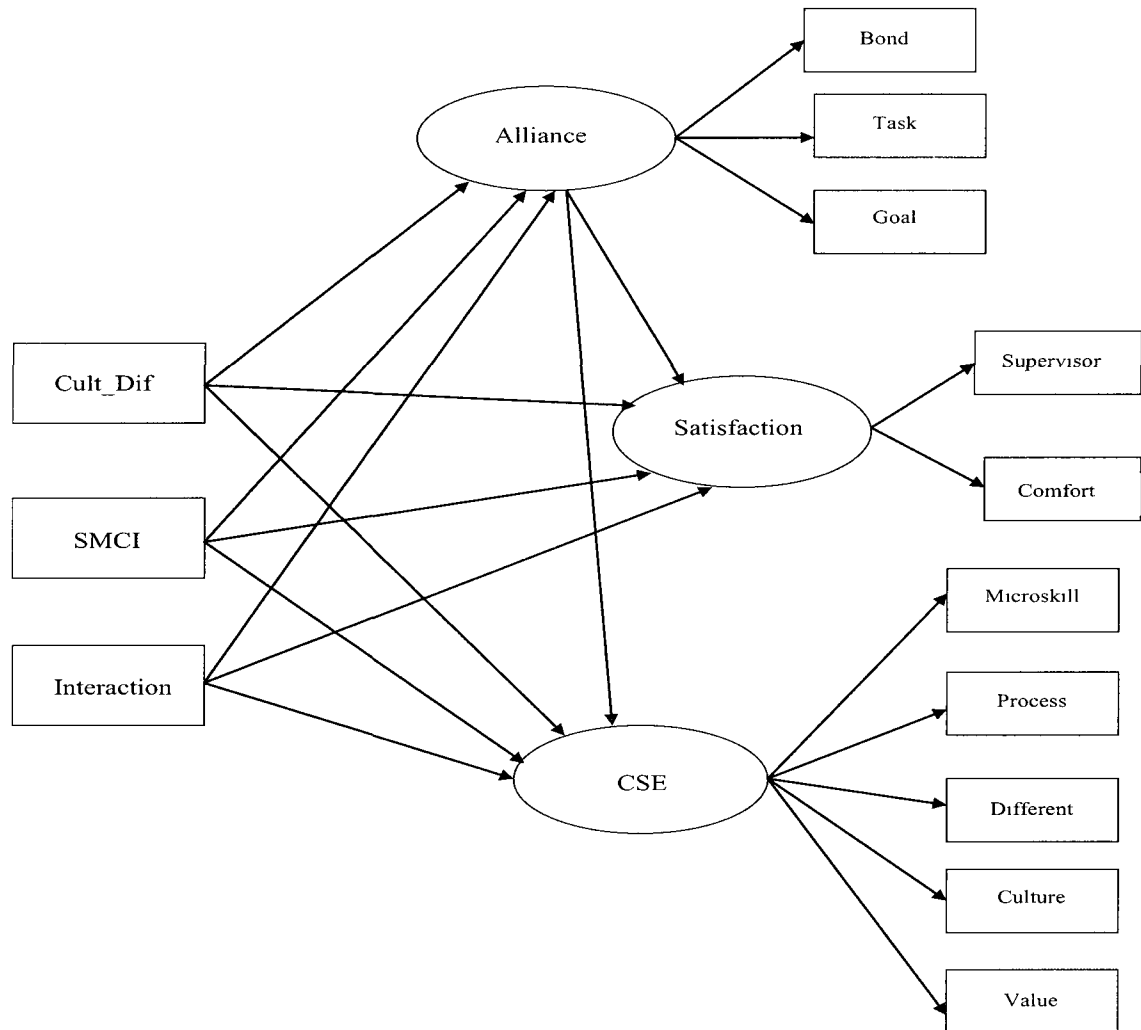


Figure 1. Theoretical Moderated Mediation Model

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To evaluate the plausibility of the proposed theoretical model, this study considered the following research questions and hypotheses:

Research Question 1: Do supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence have a direct effect on supervisee CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision?

Hypothesis 1a:

- Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences will have a direct, negative effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation have lower satisfaction with supervision and lower counseling self-efficacy than supervisees who are similar to their supervisor in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and spiritual orientation.

Hypothesis 1b:

- Supervisor multicultural competence will have a direct, positive effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. Supervisors who demonstrate higher levels of multicultural competence will positively impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision and counseling self-efficacy.

Research Question 2: Does the supervisory working alliance mediate the relationships between the independent variable (i.e., supervisor-supervisee cultural differences), the moderator variable (i.e., supervisor multicultural competence), and the outcome variables (i.e., supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE)?

Hypothesis 2a:

- The effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision is mediated by supervisory working alliance. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of

ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation have a weaker working alliance with their supervisors and those with weaker working alliance are less likely to be satisfied with supervision and lower counseling self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2b:

- The effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision is mediated by supervisory working alliance. Supervisees who perceive their supervisors to be multiculturally competent will have a stronger working alliance with their supervisors and those with a stronger working alliance are more likely to be satisfied with supervision and have a higher counseling self-efficacy.

Research Question 3: Does supervisor multicultural competence moderate the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE through the supervisory working alliance?

Hypothesis 3:

- The indirect effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance is moderated by supervisor multicultural competence. Supervisees who differ more from their supervisors in terms of ethnicity/race, gender, age, sexual orientation and/or spiritual orientation will have a stronger working alliance when they perceive the supervisor to have high multicultural competence. The stronger working alliance will lead to higher satisfaction with supervision and higher counseling self-efficacy.

Participants

Data were collected from counseling trainees enrolled in master's and doctoral level counseling programs across the United States. To participate, trainees needed to meet the following criteria: 1) enrollment in a counseling practicum or internship experience during the semester in which they complete the survey packet; 2) accrual of at least 10 direct client hours during the semester in which they are asked to participate; and 3) receipt of at least one hour of individual supervision per week during the semester in which they participate. The researcher selected the preceding criteria to ensure that participants were working with clients in a clinical setting and receiving consistent, individual supervision at the time of the study.

To meet the requirements of sampling power and provide a sufficient population to assess model fit, an initial sample size of 2,000 counseling trainees was solicited for participation. Structural equation modeling techniques are based on the assumption of large sample sizes (Kelloway, 1998). While several authors have provided guidelines on the definition of "large" (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Bentler & Chou, 1987; Marsh, Balla, & MacDonald, 1988), the general consensus is that structural equation modeling techniques require at least a sample size of 200. Marsh et al. (1988) noted that parameter estimates may be inaccurate in samples comprised of less than 200 individuals. Boomsma (1983) exerted that models of moderate complexity need a sample size of at least 200. Last, Bentler and Chou (1987) recommended that the ratio between sample size and the estimated parameters range from 5:1 to 10:1. The structural model tested in this study estimates 21 parameters and, using Bentler and Chou's ratio required a sample size of 210. Assuming the average return rate is between 10 and 30 percent (Erford, 2008), the

researcher solicited 2,000 participants to allow for a minimum of 210 completed and returned survey materials.

Instrumentation

Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI; Inman, 2005). The SMCI (please see Appendix C) is a 34-item self-report measure designed to assess perceived supervisor multicultural competence in supervision. Inventory items focus on five dimensions commonly identified in the literature as significant to the supervisory relationship, supervisor and supervisee personal development, and clinical activities. The five specific dimensions include supervisor-supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations. Sample items include, my supervisor “is knowledgeable about the limitations of traditional therapies with diverse clientele, such as women, racial/ethnic minorities and gay and lesbian clients,” “fosters a climate that facilitates discussion of diversity issues related to counseling,” and “attends to and processes issues related to power dynamics between self and supervisee and supervisee and client.” For each of the 34 items, participants are instructed to rate their perceptions of supervisor multicultural competence on a 6-point Likert type scale, which ranges from *never* (1) to *always* (6). The SMCI yields a total scoring ranging from 34 to 204 and can be obtained by summing all item ratings. Higher total scores indicate higher levels of supervisor multicultural competence. A preliminary exploratory factor analysis indicated that that the SMCI measures the five identified dimensions, but suggested that underlying structure of the inventory yielded a one-factor solution (Inman, 2006). Evidence for convergent validity for the instrument has been established by correlations between SMCI and the Cross-Cultural Counseling Inventory-

R (LaFromboise, Coleman, & Hernandez, 1991). With regard to reliability, Inman (2006) and Mori et al. (2009) reported the coefficient alpha to be .97. Beaumont (2010) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .98.

Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S; Ladany, Mori, & Mehr, 2007). The WAI-S (Appendix D) is a 12-item self-report measure designed to assess a supervisee's perceptions of the supervisory working alliance. The WAI-S was adapted from the Working Alliance Inventory (Horvath & Greenberg, 1986), an instrument that was designed to evaluate the strength of the working alliance between the counselor and client. The original instrument, which is based on Bordin's (1979) model of the therapeutic alliance, measures three aspects of the working alliance: goals, tasks, and bond. The three subscales of the WAI and WAI-S correspond to these three factors. To develop the WAI-S, Horvath (1991) took the four items from each WAI subscale that had the highest factor loadings. Ladany et al. (2007) revised the WAI-S for use in a supervision context by altering the wording of the inventory. Specifically, the term "therapist" was changed to "supervisor," "client" was changed to "counselor," "counsel" was replaced with "supervise," and "therapy" was replaced with "supervision" to reflect the supervisory alliance.

Based on Bordin's (1979) model, the Goal subscale measures the degree to which the supervisor and trainee agree on supervision goals. An example from the Goal subscale includes the item, "(Supervisor's name) and I are working towards mutually agreed-upon goals." The Task subscale gauges the degree to which the supervisor and trainee agree on the tasks of supervision. An example item from the Task subscale is, "(Supervisor's name) and I agree about the things I will need to do in supervision." The

Bond subscale examines the strength of the emotional bond between supervisor and trainee. An example item from this scale is, “I believe (supervisor’s name) likes me.” For each of the 12 items, participants are instructed to rate their perception of the supervisory relationship on a 7-point Likert type scale, which ranges from *never* (1) to *always* (7). To score the inventory, the item ratings for each subscale are summed with possible scores ranging from 4 to 28. Subscale scores are obtain by summing the item ratings for each subscale. Higher scores indicate higher perceived agreement with the supervisor on goals and tasks of supervision as well as a stronger emotional bond between supervisor and trainee. The results of a confirmatory factor analyses on the WAI revealed a hierarchical bilevel model best represented the underlying factor structure (Tracey & Kototovic, 1989). Specifically, the WAI assesses the three-first order aspects of the working alliance (i.e., bond, task, goal), but additionally assesses a general, second-order alliance factor. Consequently, previous researchers (Beaumont, 2010; Busseri & Tyler, 2003) have elected to use only the total score for the WAI-S. In this study, the subscale scores were used.

Evidence for the validity of the WAI-SF is minimal; however, the inventory is positively correlated with supervisee perceptions of supervisor competence, supervisee cultural competency, and rates of disclosure in supervision (Beaumont, 2010).

Additionally, the WAI, which is a widely used instrument, has several meta-analytic studies that support its strong content and predictive validity (Horvath, 1994; Horvath & Symonds, 1991). In a study by Busseri and Tyler (2003), the WAI and the WAI-SF were found to have similar predictive validity. With regard to reliability, internal consistency reliabilities for the WAI-SF range from .88 (Ganke, 2008) to .95 for the combined three

subscales (Busseri & Tyler, 2003; Tracey & Kokotovic, 1989). Tracey and Kokotovic (1989) reported Cronbach's alpha for the WAI's task, bond, and goal subscales to be .83, .91, and .88, respectively. For the WAI-SF, Busseri and Tyler (2003) reported Cronbach's alpha for the task, bond, and goal subscales to be .90, .86, and .90, respectively. Using the WAI-SF adapted for supervision settings, Beaumont (2010) reported Cronbach's alpha for the total score to be .78. The strength of this reported Cronbach's alpha is adequate in light of the WAI-SF's item count ($n=12$) and Beaumont's sample size ($n=108$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007).

Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992). The COSE (please see Appendix E) measures counseling supervisees' perceived self-efficacy regarding their ability to effectively counsel clients (Larson & Daniels, 1998). This inventory is based on Bandura's (1982) assumption that individual's sense of self-efficacy, the belief that one is capable of performing certain behaviors and tasks, mediates the relationship between what people know how to do and the behaviors/tasks they actually engage in. The COSE is a 37-item self-report inventory that measure five factors of counseling self-efficacy: microskills, process, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence, and awareness of values (Larson et al., 1992). Based on the results of Larson et al.'s factor analysis the microskills subscale consists of 12 items that directly pertain to microcounseling skills in isolation. An example from this subscale is, "I am certain that my interpretation and confrontation responses will be concise and to the point." The process subscale includes 10 items that reflect counselors actions occurring over a series of responses. An example from the process subscale is, "I am worried that the wording of my responses lack reflection of feeling, clarification, and probing, and may be confusing

and hard to understand.” The difficult client behaviors subscale consists of seven items and focuses on clients that are unmotivated, suicidal, alcoholic, indecisive, or silent. An example difficulty client item includes, “I am unsure as to how to deal with clients who appear noncommittal and indecisive.” The cultural competence subscale includes four items that pertain to counselor competence when working with culturally different clients. An example item from this subscale is, “I am afraid that I may not be able to effectively relate to someone of lower socioeconomic status than me.” The last subscale, awareness of values, contains four items that relate to counselor values and biases. An example item includes, “I am likely to impose my values on the client during the interview.”

Participants are asked to respond to the 37 items using a 6-point Likert scale that ranges from *strong disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). Items on each subscale are summed to yield five subscale scores. The microkills subscale score ranges from 12 to 72; the counseling process from 10-60, the difficult client behavior from 7 to 42; the cultural competence from 4 to 24; and counselor values and biases from 4-24. Larson (personal communication) also exerts that a total COSE score can be calculated by summing the five subscales. Total COSE scores range from 37 to 222. Nineteen of the inventory’s items are reversed scored.

Convergent validity among counseling trainees has been empirically established through relationships between COSE and positive feedback (Daniels & Larson, 2001), counseling training (Larson et al., 1999), self-esteem, state and trait anxiety, problem solving effectiveness, performance satisfaction, and the execution of microskills (Larson et al., 1992). Discriminate validity of the COSE is evidenced by its minimal correlations

with measures of defensiveness, aptitude, academic achievement, and personality type.

Larson et al. (1999) reported internal consistency for the COSE total score to be .93.

Internal consistencies for the five factors are as follows: Microskills= .88; Process = .87;

Difficult Client Behaviors= .80; Culturally Competent= .78; and Awareness of

Values= .62 (Larson et al., 1999). Test-retest reliabilities over a 3-week period as

reported by Larson et al. were COSE Total, $r = .87$; Microskills, $r = .68$; Process, $r = .74$;

Difficult Client Behaviors, $r = .80$; Culturally Competent, $r = .71$; and Awareness of

Values, $r = .83$. The strength of the test-retest reliabilities for total COSE and four of the

five factors is satisfactory given Larson et al.'s (1999) sample size ($n = 67$) and the

COSE's total item count ($n = 37$), as well as subscale item counts (Process $n = 10$,

Difficult Client Behaviors $n = 7$, Cultural Competence $n = 4$, Awareness of Values $n = 4$;

Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). According to the guidelines established by Ponterotto

and Ruckdeschel, the test-retest reliability of the microskills subscale falls just below

satisfactory. Using a sample size of 67 and an item count of 12, Ponterotto and

Ruckdeschel recommend a subscale have a reliability coefficient of at least .70.

Additionally studies have shown Cronbach's alpha for the COSE to range from .90 to .91

(Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Duan, 2007).

Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R; Ladany, Ellis, Friedlander, & Stern, 1992). The TPRS-R (please see Appendix F) is a 12-item self-report instrument that assesses trainee's perceived satisfaction with supervision. Trainees are asked to rate the extent to which each item characterizes their feeling on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from *not characteristic of my feelings* (1) to *highly characteristic of my feelings* (5).

Three factors, each consisting of four items, emerged factor analysis: Evaluation of the

Supervisor, Evaluation of Self, and Level of Comfort. This led Holloway and Wampold to conclude that satisfaction with supervision, as measured by the TPRS-R, consisted of the trainee's reaction to the supervisor's perceived qualities and performance, the trainee's perception of his/her own behavior in supervision, and the trainee's level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. An example item from the Evaluation of the Supervisor dimension is, "I was eager to hear what my supervisor had to say." For the evaluation of self, an example item includes, "I felt my supervisor wanted me to come to some conclusions about the client, but I don't know exactly what." One item from the level of comfort dimension is, "I got irritated at some of my supervisor's remarks." Each subscale consisted of four items and the scores range from 4 to 20. A total scale score, ranging from 12 to 60, can be calculated by summing the three subscale scores. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of trainee satisfaction with supervision.

The original instrument, TPRS, was designed to measure trainee reactions to a particular supervision interview (Holloway & Wampold, 1984), whereas the TPRS-R was slightly modified to reflect trainee reactions across a period of supervision. Specifically, Ladany, Ellis, Friedlander, and Stern (1992) changed the instrument instructions from rate "Please put a circle around the answer most representative of your present feelings about the supervision session you last participated in." to "Please put a circle around the answer most representative of your feelings about supervision with your supervisor over the course of this semester to date."

The construct validity of the instrument is supported by theoretically predicted relationships between trainee satisfaction and patterns of verbal interaction with the supervisor (Holloway & Wampold, 1983), trainee perceptions of fewer role difficulties in

the supervisory relationship (Olk & Friedlander, 1992), and the supervisory working alliance (Ladany, Ellis, & Friedlander, 1999). Reported internal consistencies for the TPRS-R total score have ranged from .83 to above .86 (Holloway & Wampold, 1984; Ladany, et al., 1999; Olk & Friedlander, 1992).

Demographic questionnaire. A demographic questionnaire, completed by supervisees, was used to gather information concerning participant age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and current educational status (Appendix B). Supervisees were also asked to provide information concerning their degree program, previous supervised counseling experience, approximate number of clients seen per week, current internship/practicum setting, number of supervision sessions to date with current supervisor, frequency and duration of supervision meetings, and number of direct client hours. In addition to the information concerning supervisee personal characteristics, participants were asked to provide information regarding their supervisors' personal characteristics (i.e., age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual orientation).

A variable called "supervisor-supervisee cultural difference" was created from five demographic components (i.e., age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation) to indicate the degree of difference between supervisee and supervisor (Cheon et al., 2009). To create this variable, supervisees who expressed differences in gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation as their supervisor received a score of "1" on each item. Participants were asked to indicate the supervisor's age range (e.g., 20-24, 25-29, 30-34). Those who placed their supervisor in a different age range than their own received a score of "1" on the age item.

Scores on the cultural difference variable could range from 0 to 5, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of cultural difference.

Procedures

Participants for this study were solicited from a member mailing list provided by the American Counseling Association (ACA). To ensure that participants were graduate students, the researcher requested from ACA that only graduate student members be selected from the mailing list. Graduate student members of ACA are required to be enrolled, at least part-time, in a master's or doctoral counseling program. In particular, the Member Services Coordinator for ACA randomly selected 2,000 graduate student members from the ACA membership list and sent the names and email addresses of these potential participants to the researcher. The researcher then sent an electronic invitation, delivered via email, to all 2,000 randomly selected graduate student members requesting their participation in the study. The invitation was sent to potential participants the first week in November 2010. The email was forwarded at the end of the semester to increase the likelihood that trainees had accumulated direct client hours and received nearly a semester of individual supervision. Additionally, Ladany et al. (1999) suggested that supervisory working alliance needed sufficient time to develop and recommended that this variable be measured toward the middle to end of the supervisory experience.

Participants accessed and completed demographic information and study instruments through an internet-based survey. With approximately 74% of adults using the Internet (The Pew Research Center's Internet & American Life Project, 2009), Internet-based surveys are now considered a feasible and efficient option for data collection. For this study, an internet-based survey was chosen because of the advantages

it offers over a mail-based survey. Electronic surveys allow for improved questionnaire formatting, improved data quality, instant electronic storage of data, elimination of data entry, and faster data collection (Dillman, 2000; Parsons, 2007). Additionally, Internet-based surveys allow for a large, diverse participant pool to respond in a timely manner at a small cost to the researcher (Birnbaum, 2004; Porter, 2004; vanSelm & Jankowski, 2006). Some researchers have expressed concern regarding the validity and reliability of Internet-based surveys. The results of various studies, however, have reported that results from paper and pencil surveys do not significantly differ from the results generated through electronic surveys (Fouladi, McCarthy, Moller, & Pettit, 2002). Additionally, Riva, Teruzzi, and Anolli (2003) examined the validity and reliability issues associated with Internet-based surveys, and concluded that there are no significant differences in the psychometric properties when utilizing data derived from Internet-based surveys.

In the initial electronic invitation, the researcher described the research, asked that participants complete the survey by the noted deadline, and included a hyperlink to the internet based survey. The survey software used for data collection was *SurveyMonkey* (www.surveymonkey.com). *SurveyMonkey* is an online tool that enables researchers to create and manage electronic surveys while maintaining participant confidentiality. Once participants accessed the survey an introductory section containing the description of the study, informed consent information, as well as the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval information was provided (Appendix A). After participants read this information and provided consent to participate in the study by clicking the “NEXT” button at the bottom of introductory section, they were then asked to answer two questions regarding the participation requirements. These questions included: 1) Are you

currently receiving individual supervision this semester? and 2) Are you currently enrolled in a doctoral level or master's level practicum or internship experience? If participants answered yes to both questions, they moved to Section II of the survey. Section II included, in random order, the demographics questionnaire, the WAI-T (Bahrack, 1990), the CSPD-RF (Wilbur, 1991) and TPRS-R (Holloway & Wampold, 1984). When completing Section II, participants were asked to consider and evaluate their experiences with their current individual university or site supervisor. Upon completion of Section II, participants were thanked for their participation and given a chance to provide their email address in order to be entered into a drawing for one of 15 \$25 gift certificates to www.amazon.com. To ensure confidentiality, participant email addresses were removed from the original data set and maintained in a separate, secure file. Following data collection, 15 individuals were randomly selected and the gift certificates were sent electronically. The file containing participant email addresses was then deleted.

The survey was available via *SurveyMonkey* for four weeks following the initial participation invitation. Salant and Dillman's (1994) steps for administering mailed surveys was be adapted and implemented to ensure a high response rate: 1) a personalized initial invitation email was be sent to all potential participants, which included the survey link; 2) a follow-up email was be sent to all nonrespondent members of the sample eight days after the initial invitation was sent; 3) a second follow up email was sent to all nonrespondents three weeks after the initial invitation was sent. This follow up included a personalized invitation to participate and the survey link. While the researcher tracked who has responded to the survey for follow up purposes, at no time

during data collection and analysis was participants' personal identification information (e.g., email address) associated with the results of their survey.

Data Analysis

Overview of Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM), a second generation multivariate analysis technique, was the primary statistical analysis used to examine the interactions among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. SEM determined the extent to which the *a priori* theoretical model was supported by sample data (Rayvok & Marcoulides, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) by allowing the researcher to examine the relationships among multiple observed and latent variables.

The use of SEM techniques yields several advantages over first generation multivariate methods, such as multiple regression analysis (Golob, 2003; Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). First, SEM offers researchers an enhanced understanding of the complex relationships that exist among theoretical constructs. As the social science field continues to explore increasingly complex phenomenon, the theoretical models used to explain such phenomenon are also increasing in complexity. SEM techniques provide researchers with a comprehensive method for specifying and empirically testing the plausibility of complex theoretical models (Kelloway, 1998).

Second, SEM allows for the simultaneous analysis of direct and indirect effects with multiple exogenous and endogenous variables (Stage, Carter, & Nora, 2004). A direct effect occurs when the exogenous variable influences a endogenous variable. An

indirect effect, on the other hand, occurs when the relationship between the exogenous and endogenous variable is mediated by one or more intervening variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). While multiple regression analysis can also be used to explore indirect relationships among variables, it assumes that no measurement error exists for the exogenous variables (Rayvok & Maroulides, 2000). Such an assumption rarely applies to actual practice.

Third, SEM techniques take into account the measurement error in the model's observed variables, where, as previously stated, multiple regression ignores potential measurement and, as a result, is highly susceptible to errors in interpretation. Fourth, SEM allows for the researcher to compare alternative models in order to assess the relative fit of the model, which decreases the high frequency of model misspecification found in regression analysis (Skosireva, 2010). Fifth, SEM permits the same variable to be interpreted as both a exogenous and endogenous variable (Stage et al., 2004). Sixth, SEM provides a path diagram, or visual representation of the hypothesized relationships among variables, that can be directly translated into the mathematical equations needed for analysis (Rayvok & Marolides, 2000; Stage et al., 2004).

Lastly, SEM is more rigorous and flexible than regression techniques, accounting for non nonlinearities and missing data (Kelloway, 1998). While SEM has several advantages over traditional, first generation multivariate methods, there are limitations associated with using this technique. Similar to other multivariate statistical techniques, SEM examines the correlations among variables, but cannot establish causal effects. In other words, SEM can distinguish if variable A is related to variable B, but fails to discern whether: 1) variable A causes variable B, 2) variable B causes variable A; or c)

whether a third, extraneous variable is responsible for the relationship between the two. As a result, the successful application of SEM techniques relies on the researcher's theoretical knowledge of each variable (Stage et al., 2004). SEM is also an inherently confirmatory technique and is most advantageous when the researcher has an *a priori* theoretical model to test. It is not an exploratory technique and "is ill suited for exploring and identifying relationships" among variables (Kelloway, 1998, p.7).

Data Analysis Procedures

Prior to conducting SEM, all survey results were downloaded into SPSS 18.0 (2009), a statistical software program. Data were then screened for missing data, outliers, linearity, nonnormality, and multivariate assumptions. Frequency distributions were used to report descriptive data for both supervisee and perceived supervisor participant characteristics. Supervisee characteristics included: age, gender, spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, current educational status, degree program, approximate number of clients seen per week, current internship/practicum setting, number of supervision sessions to date with current supervisor, frequency and duration of supervision meetings, and number of direct client hours. Perceived supervisor characteristics included: age, gender, spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Descriptive data (e.g., means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis) were also reported on all participant inventory scores. Additionally, the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable and interaction variable were calculated. Data were then downloaded into LISREL 8.8 (2009), a SEM software program, to conduct the SEM analysis.

The process of SEM included five stages: model specification, model identification, model estimation, model testing, and model modification (Bollen & Long, 1993). The first stage, model specification, occurred prior to data collection and analysis, and involved the development of a theoretical model using the available literature to determine variables of interest and the relationships among them. Model specification involved a two-step building process (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, the measurement model was specified; this involved identifying the observed variables that comprised each of the three latent variables (i.e., supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE). The first latent variable, supervisory working alliance, was estimated by the three observed factors (i.e., bond, task, goal) that comprise the underlying structure of the WAI-SF. The second latent variable, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, was estimated by the three factors (i.e., evaluation of supervisor, evaluation of self, and level of comfort) of the TPRS-R. The third and final latent variable, supervisee CSE was estimated by the five factors (i.e., microskills, counseling process, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence, and counselor values/ biases) that comprise the underlying structure of the COSE.

Next, the structural models were specified; this involved identifying the direct and indirect relationships among the exogenous variables (i.e., supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and the interaction variable) and the endogenous, latent variables (i.e., supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE) in the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The main structural model specified for this study was a one-mediator, moderated mediation model (Figure 1; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher et al., 2007). This model tested

hypotheses 3 and specified direct and indirect relationships among the following variables: supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, interaction variable, supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, the interaction effect of supervisor level of multicultural competence on supervisor-supervisee cultural differences (i.e. the interaction variable) was hypothesized to impact supervision outcomes through the supervisory working alliance.

To test the remaining study hypotheses, two alternative models were also specified. The alternative models contained nested relationships, meaning that these models were developed by fixing some of the free parameters in the moderated mediation model to 0.00 (Kelloway, 1998). That is, the two alternative models, with fewer parameters, were a subset of the moderated mediation model, with more parameters.

The first alternative model, the reduced, direct path model, tested hypotheses 1a and 1b, and specified direct relationships among the following variables: supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. It was hypothesized that supervisor-supervisee multicultural competence negatively impacted supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, while supervisor multicultural competence was positively related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. The following parameters were fixed to zero in the direct path model: 1) the interaction variable to the endogenous variables, 2) the exogenous variables to the supervisory alliance, and 3) the supervisory working alliance to supervisory satisfaction with supervision and CSE.

The second alternative model, the reduced, mediation model, tested hypotheses 2a and 2b, as well as specified the direct and indirect relationships among the following variables: supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. It was hypothesized that the supervisory working alliance mediated the direct relationships between: 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, and 2) supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. The parameters from the interaction variable to the endogenous variables were fixed to zero. In order to determine the extent to which these theoretical models fit the true model generated from the data, the researcher employed the remaining four SEM steps: model identification, model estimation, model testing, and model modification.

Model identification. Model identification is a requirement for producing results that can be estimated in SEM analysis. This stage occurs prior to estimating model parameters (i.e., relationships among variables in the model) and is dependent on the designation of parameters as free (i.e., a parameter that is unknown and needs to be estimated), fixed (i.e., a parameter that is fixed at a specific value, often a 0 or 1), or constrained (i.e., a parameter that is unknown, but constrained to equal one or more other parameters). For a model to be considered identified, it must be theoretically possible to establish a unique estimate for each parameter (Kelloway, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

The measurement model must first be identified for the overall SEM to be identified. According to O'Brien (2004), the measurement model is most likely identified

when: 1) there are two or more latent variables, each with at least three indicators that load on it, the errors of these indicators are not correlated, and each indicator loads on only one factor; or 2) there are two or more latent variables, but there is a latent variable on which only two indicators load, the errors of the indicators are not correlated, each indicator loads on only one factor, and the variances or covariances between factors is zero. To increase the likelihood of identification in the structural model, a causal path from each latent variable to a corresponding observed variable must be fixed. This one fixed, nonzero loading is termed a “reference variable” and is often the variable with the most reliable scores (Kline, 2005). In this study, the reference variables included the bond subscale of the WAI-SF, the evaluation of supervisor subscale of the TPRS-R, and the microskills subscale of the COSE.

Bollen (1989) further outlined a set of rules for the identification of structural models: the t rule and the recursive rule. The t rule asserts that in an identified model the number of parameters to be estimated is less than the nonredundant (i.e., unique) elements in the sample covariance matrix S (i.e. the true model generated from the data). Simply stated, the structural model must have more “known” pieces of information than “unknown” pieces in order to find unique solutions. To determine whether this necessary condition is met, the number of “knowns” (i.e., the number of unique elements in the variance-covariance of the structural model) is calculated using $p(p+1)/2$, where p is equal to the number of observed variables. The number of “unknowns” is equal to the number of free parameters to be estimated in the model (i.e., the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables, relationships between the endogenous variables, factor loadings, errors in the equations, variance/covariance of the exogenous variables).

In the moderated mediation structural model, there were 13 observed variables; therefore, the number of unique elements in the variance-covariance matrix (i.e., known) was 91. The number of free parameters to be estimated in the model was 27. These results suggested that the moderated mediation model may be overidentified, meaning that the number of unique elements in the variance-covariance matrix exceeded the number of free parameters in the model. An overidentified model yields a number of possible solutions. Given that the goal of SEM is to select the solution that comes closest to explaining the observed data, an overidentified model is ideal (Kelloway, 1998). In the mediation model, there were 13 observed variables, hence the number of unique elements in the variance-covariance matrix was also 91. The number of free parameters to be estimated by the model was 24. In the direct path model, there were also 13 observed variables and 91 unique elements in the variance-covariance matrix. The number of free parameters to be estimated by the model was 20. These results suggest that the mediation and direct path models were also overidentified.

The recursive rule states that a structural model should be recursive to be identified. A structural model is recursive when all of the relationships specified by the model are unidirectional (i.e., two variables are not reciprocally related; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). To satisfy the recursive rule: 1) the Psi matrix (i.e., errors in the structural equations) of a structural model must be diagonal, meaning that there are no correlated errors in the endogenous variables; and 2) the Beta matrix must be able to be arranged so that all free elements are in the lower triangle of the matrix, meaning that no reciprocal relationships or feedback loops exist among the endogenous variables (Bollen, 1989).

The structural models used in this study met these two requirements, thus it was determined that the models satisfied the recursive rule and were identified.

Model estimation. Model estimation involves estimating the parameters of the theoretical model in such a way that the theoretical parameter values yield a covariance matrix as close as possible to the observed covariance matrix S . SEM analysis programs use an iterative procedure, often referred to as a fitting function, to minimize the differences between the estimated theoretical covariance matrix Σ and the observed covariance matrix S . Several fitting functions are available to researchers (e.g., unweighted or ordinary least squares, generalized least squares, maximum likelihood). LISREL 8.8 (2009) uses maximum likelihood (ML) to determine parameter estimates. ML is the most widely used type of estimation (Kelloway, 1998) and has several advantages over other fitting functions. In particular, ML is 1) not scale dependent, 2) allows dichotomous exogenous variables (Skosireva, 2010), and 3) consistent and asymptotically efficient in large samples (Bollen, 1989; Kelloway, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). ML does assume multivariate normality of dependent variables, but researchers exert that ML methods can still be employed when minor deviations in normality occur in the data (Bollen; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). ML is a full information technique, meaning that it estimates all model parameters simultaneously to produce a full estimation model. After preliminary parameter estimates are derived, the iteration process occurs whereby LISREL attempts to improve these estimates with subsequent calculation cycles. The final estimates represent the best fit to observed covariance matrix S .

Model testing. Prior to testing the structural model, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model was run to ensure that the factor indicators loaded on the latent variables in the direction expected. Schumacker and Lonax (2004) stated that the researcher must determine whether the chosen observed indicators for a latent construct actually measure the construct before the structural model can be tested. After confirming the fit of the measurement model, the researcher analyzed the three structural models to determine the extent to which these models were supported by the sample data. In particular, an overall test of fit was used to evaluate the degree discrepancy between the theoretical covariance matrices Σ and the sample covariance matrices S .

There are several global fit measures (e.g., Chi-square (χ^2) test, goodness-of-fit indices, and the root-mean-square error of approximation [RMSEA]) that can aid the researchers in assessing whether the theoretical model adequately fits the sample data. For this study, the Chi-square (χ^2) test, also referred to as the χ^2 goodness of fit test, was used as a preliminary assessment of model fit. A non-significant χ^2 value indicates that theoretical model covariance matrix Σ and the sample covariance matrix S are similar. The χ^2 goodness of fit test is, however, sensitive to violations of the assumptions of multivariate normality and sample size. Multivariate non-normality in the data can inflate χ^2 statistics. Additionally, the χ^2 goodness of fit test uses N to calculate model fit, therefore, as N increases, the χ^2 value also increases (Kelloway, 1998). This makes it nearly impossible to obtain a nonsignificant test statistic in sample sizes over 200. Given that the χ^2 goodness of fit test is reliant on sample size to calculate model fit and is sensitive to violations in multivariate normality, researchers are at an increased risk for making a Type I error and concluding that a significant difference exists between the

theoretical model covariance matrix Σ and the sample covariance matrix S , when in fact the two matrices are similar (Kelloway, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As a result, scholars have argued that multiple indices of overall model fit be used in conjunction with the χ^2 goodness of fit test (Lent, Lopez, Brown, & Gore, 1996). Accordingly, this study will also use the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI).

RMSEA is based on the analysis of residuals. Index values range from 0.00 to 1.00 with lower values indicating a better fit to the data. Any value lower than 1.00 is assumed to be an adequate fit to the data, with values lower than .05 being a very good fit to the data (Steiger, 1990). The χ^2 goodness of fit test and RMSEA are tests of absolute fit and are concerned with the structural model's ability to reproduce the sample covariance matrix S . In other words, absolute fit measures "indicate how well the proposed interrelationships between the variables match the interrelationships between the actual or observed interrelationships" (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006, p.558).

The CFI is derived by comparing the theoretical model with the null model and index values range from zero to 1.00. Index values of .95 or higher indicate a well-fitting model. Unlike absolute fit indices which assume perfect fit, the CFI fit indices is an incremental fit measure (i.e., relative or comparative fit measure) that determines the relative position of model fit on a continuum that ranges from worst fit (i.e., no relationships in the data) to perfect fit. The PNFI, which is a parsimonious fit measure, was used to determine the impact of adding additional parameters to the model. PNFI adjusts for degrees of freedom in the baseline model and, determines whether the impact of adding additional parameters on model fit is worth the decrease in degrees of freedom.

Unlike other fit indices, PNFI has no standard cut-off point for determining a good fit, although some researchers (i.e., Meyers et al., 200; Mulaik et al., 1989) suggest that any number above .50 indicates an acceptable model. Instead, this index is best used to compare two or more models; the model having the highest PNFI would be the most parsimonious model.

While the models in this study were assessed for absolute fit, comparative fit, and degree of parsimony, Kelloway (1998) suggested that structural models also be tested against viable alternative models. That is, two or more plausible models are compared to one another to determine which model best fits the sample data. If the alternative models include nested relationships, as the models in this study did, they can be directly compared using the χ^2 difference test. For this study, χ^2 values associated of the moderated mediation structural model, mediation model and the direct path models were directly compared. Since the difference between the χ^2 values associated with each model is “itself distributed as χ^2 with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in degrees of freedom for each model” (Kelloway, 1998, p.36), the difference between the mediated and direct path model χ^2 values and degrees of freedom were first computed. A critical χ^2 value was then obtained using the df yielded by the difference between the df of the mediated model and the df of the direct path model. The critical χ^2 value was then compared to the χ^2 value yielded by subtracting the χ^2 of the mediated model from the χ^2 value of the direct path model. If the yielded χ^2 value was greater than the critical χ^2 value, a significant difference between the two models existed and the addition of parameters in the mediated model led to a significant increase in model fit. If the yielded χ^2 value was less than the critical χ^2 value, there were no significant differences between

the two models and the addition of parameters in the full model did not result in a significant increase in model fit. The difference between the moderated mediation model and the direct path model, as well as the moderated mediation and the mediated model were also tested using the same procedures outlined above.

Model modification. The final stage of SEM involves model modification. In this stage, researchers employ model modification methods in an attempt to find a model that better fits the data. For this study, the researcher performed a specification search that involved eliminating nonsignificant parameters from the theoretical model (i.e., theory trimming) and examining the model's standardized residual matrix. The most commonly used procedures for eliminating parameters include comparing the t statistic for each parameter to the tabled t value to determine statistical significance (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). While the preceding procedures can improve model fit, they remain controversial. Specification searches are exploratory in nature and are based on the sample data instead of previous theory and research, as a result parameters eliminated from the model may have reflected sample characteristics that do not generalize to the broader population (Kelloway, 1998). Additionally, model modification may lead to an inflation of Type I error rates and be misleading (Kelloway, 1998). For this reason, the researcher strived to balance the elimination of parameters to the model with improving the fit of the model.

Validity Threats

It is necessary for researchers to identify potential threats to the validity of their research, and design a study that minimizes the likelihood that these threats will arise. Two types of threats to validity exist: internal validity threats and external validity threats. Internal validity threats are related to internal validity (i.e., the extent to which we can accurately state that the independent variable produced the observed effect) and arise

when experimental procedures, treatments, or participant experiences interfere with the researcher's ability to draw accurate inferences from the data regarding the causal relationships between variables (Creswell, 2009). Typically these threats are related to history, maturation, regression to the mean, selection, mortality, diffusion of treatment, and instrumentation. External validity threats are related to external validity (i.e., the extent to which study findings are generalizable across populations, tasks, and settings/environments) and occur when the researcher incorrectly generalizes findings from the sample data to other populations, or settings (Creswell, 2009). Threats to external validity are typically the result of participant characteristics, the uniqueness of the setting, or the timing of data collection, and include interaction of selection and treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, and interaction of history and treatment.

Although precautions were taken to minimize internal and external validity threats in the design of this study, potential limitations included the use of a correlational design, selection bias, use of volunteers, reliance on self-report data, limited generalizability, and issues with study instruments and variables. This study employed a correlational design; the inability of this design to manipulate the exogenous variable or to randomly assign participants to conditions may have threatened the internal validity of the study. The interpretation of results are limited to statistics that describe the correlations between supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. As causal relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables cannot be inferred, this study could not conclude that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence caused a change in the quality of the

supervisory alliance, which led to negative supervision outcomes. There could also be an extraneous variable, not measured by this study, which significantly contributed to supervision outcomes.

To reduce the occurrence of a sampling threat, a random sample of potential participants was initially solicited. The methodology, however, relied on the use of volunteer participants; therefore, those who elected to actually complete the survey packet did so based on personal interest in the study topic or research in general and may not have been representative of the general population. Another sampling concern was related to participant selection criteria and survey response rates. Participants had to meet three selection criteria (i.e., completing practicum or internship experience, accrued at least 10 direct client hours, and receiving one hour of individual supervision per week during the semester in which they participate) to be eligible to participate in the study; however, the list of potential participants generated by ACA included graduate student members who may or may not have met the above selection criteria. It was impossible to determine how many of the 2,000 potential participants, who received an electronic invitation with the survey link, did not meet the criteria to participate in the survey. As a result, the response rate, the percentage of respondents returning the survey (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009), for this study was unknown. The researcher's inability to calculate a response rate meant that she cannot ensure the study results are accurate, or representative of the target population (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Additionally, the results of this study can only be generalized to supervisors and supervisees with demographic characteristics similar to those of the participants.

All data collected for this study relied on participant self-report and assumed self-assessments were consistent with actual behavior. Given that such data are particularly vulnerable to bias due to the social desirability effect, it was important to consider that study participants may have wished to present themselves in a more favorable light and tailored responses to make their behavior more socially desirable. Due to the inherent power differential in supervision, supervisees may have also inflated their ratings of the supervisory working alliance, satisfaction with supervision, and CSE. In addition to social desirability effects, it is important to note that the findings of this study reflected the supervisee's perception of his/her supervisor characteristics (i.e., age, race, gender, ethnicity, religious/spiritual orientation, and sexual orientation) and degree of multicultural competence, which may have been difficult and led to inaccuracy. Additionally, the results relied on the supervisee's perception of the working alliance, satisfaction, and CSE. Obtaining both the supervisor and supervisee perception on all of the variables may have offered alternative explanations for the relationships that occur between these variables.

Although the instruments used in this study demonstrate some evidence for validity and acceptable reliability (Charter & Field, 2000), there were a few concerns regarding instrumentation that could have affected the validity of the results. The 12-item WAI-SF was used in lieu of 36-item Working Alliance Inventory-Trainee Version (WAI-T) to increase the likelihood that participants will complete the entire survey packet. The WAI-SF, which is based on the Working Alliance Inventory, has been used in very few studies pertaining to supervision (Beaumont, 2010; Ladany et al., 2007) and evidence for this instrument's validity is minimal. While the WAI and the WAI-SF have been found to

have similar predictive validity (Busseri & Tyler, 2003), it remains difficult to conclude that the WAI-SF is an accurate measure of supervisee perceptions of the supervisory working alliance.

An additional instrumentation concern was the inability to weight the demographic characteristics that constituted the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable. Each of these demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, sexual orientation, ethnicity, theoretical orientation, religion) was considered to equally impact the supervisory relationship; therefore, the impact of one demographic variable may be magnified or minimized by the composite score.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This study used a non-experimental survey design to obtain quantitative data related to supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee counseling self-efficacy (CSE), and supervisee satisfaction with supervision for the purpose of testing the plausibility of a moderated mediation, theoretical model. The theoretical model proposed that the supervisory working alliance may mediate the negative effects of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervision outcomes. It also suggested that the indirect effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance is moderated by supervisor multicultural competence. This chapter outlines the results of the study, beginning with a description of the sample's demographic characteristics. Next, missing data, variable transformations, scoring responses to the inventories, and multivariate assumptions are discussed. Lastly, findings from the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model and results of SEM are provided.

Description of the Sample

The target population for this study was counseling trainees enrolled in master's and doctoral level counseling programs across the United States. Participants had to 1) be enrolled in a counseling practicum or internship experience during the semester in which they completed the survey packet; 2) have accrued at least 10 direct client hours during the semester in which they are asked to participate; and 3) have received at least one hour of individual supervision every week during the semester in which they participated. Two

thousand potential participants were randomly selected from the American Counseling Association's (ACA) graduate student membership list. To control for ordering bias, potential participants were randomly assigned to one of five groups. Each group was provided a unique link in order to access the study survey.

On November 5, 2010, a personalized email invitation and survey link were sent to each of the 2,000 potential participants. In total, 1,966 emails were delivered and 34 emails were undeliverable. During the initial solicitation, 220 individuals participated in the survey, which accounted for 58.5% of the total number of respondents. The first, personalized reminder email was sent to the 1,742 nonrespondents on November 15, 2010. Overall, 1,712 emails were delivered and 30 emails were undeliverable. During the first reminder period, 111 individuals participated in the survey, accounting for 29.3% of the total number of respondents. On November 29, 2010, a final, personalized email reminder was sent to the remaining 1,631 nonrespondents. Overall, 1,596 emails were delivered and 35 emails were undeliverable. During the final reminder period, 55 individuals participated in the survey, accounting for 14.6% of the total number of respondents.

The actual number of solicited participants that were qualified to participate in the study is unknown. Individuals included on the randomly generated list of 2,000 ACA graduate student members are only required by ACA to be enrolled, at least part-time, in a master's or doctoral counseling program, making it is impossible to determine how many of the 2,000 students were receiving supervision and enrolled in a practical experience at the time of the study. Therefore, the exact return rate of participants was impossible to calculate. Overall, 386 participants responded to the survey and 117

individuals emailed the researcher during the data collection period to be removed from the participant list as they were not currently receiving supervision. Another 28 participants electronically opted out of the study. Of the 386 participating in the survey, 115 respondents failed to meet the minimum participation requirements and were removed from the data set. Of those who participated in the survey and met the minimum participation requirements, 50 were eliminated from the data set because they completed an insufficient number of questions (i.e., more than 15% of items on each measure were incomplete; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) to allow for use in the analysis of any of the research questions. As a result, there were a total of 221 participants who completed the survey with sufficient detail to allow proper statistical analysis of the research questions (81.5% of eligible respondents completed the survey).

Participant Demographic Information

Descriptive analyses were conducted on participant and supervisor demographic information. Participants were asked to report information concerning their age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, current educational status, degree program, previous supervised counseling experience, approximate number of clients seen per week, current internship/practicum setting, number of supervision sessions to date with current supervisor, frequency and duration of supervision meetings, and number of direct client hours. With regard to trainee age, the majority of participants reported ranging in age from 21 to 30 years of age (Table 1). Two participants chose not to report their age.

Table 1

Participant Age Range

	Frequency	Percent
21-25	55	24.4
26-30	70	31.7
31-35	21	9.5
36-40	23	10.4
41-45	19	8.6
46-50	13	5.9
51-55	11	5.0
56-60	7	3.2
61-65	2	0.9
Over 65	1	0.5

The majority ($n=185$; 83.7%) of trainee participants were female, 36 (15.8%) trainees were male, and 1 (0.5%) trainee was transgender. Two (0.9%) participants did not report their gender. Most participants identified as White ($n=165$; 74.4%), 25 (11.3%) identified as African American, 12 (5.4%) as Hispanic, 4 (1.8%) as Native American, 2 (0.9%) as Asian American, 6 (2.7%) as biracial/multiracial, and 7 (3.2%) identified as other, including Middle Eastern, Indian British, Mexican American, and Japanese. Two participants chose not to report their race/ethnicity. Most participants reported their sexual orientation to be heterosexual ($n=200$; 90.5%). Eleven participants (5.0%)

identified as gay/lesbian, 8 (3.6%) as bisexual, and 1 (0.5%) as questioning. One participant (0.5%) chose not to disclose his/her sexual orientation. The majority of participants were Christian (64.7%; Table 2) and 45.7% ($n=101$) reported their degree of spiritual/religious practice to be practicing, 76 (34.4%) somewhat practicing, 41 (18.6%) not practicing. Three participants (1.4%) chose not to disclose their spiritual/religious orientation or degree of practice.

Table 2

Participant Religious/Spiritual Orientation

	Frequency	Percent
Christian	150	67.0%
Agnostic	28	12.5%
Buddhist	7	3.1%
Jewish	3	1.3%
Muslim	1	0.4%
Other ^a	30	13.4%

Note. ^a Other= integrative, spiritual, Atheist, belief in a higher power, Unitarian, Wiccan, Sikh, and Shinto

Most participants were master's students (88.2%) or doctoral students (9.5%; Table 4), who were enrolled in a community mental health counseling program ($n = 143$; 64.7%), school counseling program ($n = 23$; 10.4%), college counseling program ($n = 4$; 1.82%) or counselor education program ($n = 17$; 7.7%). Some participants ($n = 33$;

14.9%) report being enrolled in other programs including: marriage and family counseling, pastoral counseling, chemical dependency counseling, forensic counseling, and rehabilitation counseling. One participant was enrolled in an education specialist program and one chose not to provide his/her current program type (Table 3).

Table 3

Participant Educational Level

	Frequency	Percent
Master's student	195	88.2%
Doctoral student	21	9.5%
Educational Specialist student	1	0.5%
Other	4	1.4%

Half of all trainee participants were enrolled in a master's level internship ($n=111$; 50.5%); 76 (34.4%) were enrolled in a master's level practicum, 12 (5.4%) were enrolled in a doctoral level practicum, 4 (1.8%) were enrolled in a doctoral internship, and 17 (7.7%) reported being in other practical experiences such as Ed.S. level internship, or completing both a practicum and internship experience. One participant chose not to provide his/her practical experience.

Participants reported working in the following clinical settings: community mental health agency (36.7%), school (12.7%), university or college (12.2%), private practice (9.5%), residential (6.3%), hospital (5%), vocational rehabilitation (1.8%), and other (12.7%),

such as a crisis center, non-profit company, veteran's health administration, employee assistance program, social services, and military chaplaincy. Seven participants chose not to provide information regarding their clinical setting. The number of clients participants saw per week at their clinical site ranged from 1 to 60, with the mean number of clients seen per week being 11. Seven participants chose not to provide information regarding the number of clients they saw per week. The number of accrued direct hours ranged from 15 to 460 hours, with the mean for accrued direct hours being 105.16. The average number of reported supervision sessions to date was 13.76, and ranged from 8-90 sessions. Supervision session length ranged from 6 to 180 minutes, lasting an average of 65.73 minutes ($SD = 25.27$). Six participants chose not to provide information regarding supervision session length.

Participants were also asked to provide information related their current supervisor's age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and religious/spiritual orientation. Participants reported that the majority of their supervisors ranged in age from 30-55 (Table 4).

Table 4

Supervisor Age Range as Reported by Participants

	Frequency	Percent
21-25	3	1.3%
26-30	10	4.5%
31-35	30	13.4%
36-40	28	12.5%
41-45	36	16.1%
46-50	40	17.9%
51-55	28	12.5%
56-60	22	9.8%
61-65	22	9.8%
Over 65	3	1.3%

The majority of supervisors were reported to be female ($n=159$, 71.9%), and 61 (27.6%) were male. One participant chose not to provide information on supervisor gender. With regard to race/ethnicity, participants reported their supervisors to be White ($n = 178$; 79.5%), African American ($n = 24$; 10.9%), Hispanic ($n = 6$; 2.7%), Biracial ($n = 6$; 2.7%), Asian American ($n = 3$; 1.4%), Native American ($n = 3$; 1.4%), and other ($n = 2$; 0.4%).

Supervisor sexual orientation was reported to be heterosexual ($n = 193$; 87.3%), gay/lesbian ($n = 6$; 2.7%), bisexual ($n = 1$; 0.5%), and other ($n = 12$; 5.4%). Nine

participants did not report supervisor sexual orientation. Supervisor religious/spiritual orientation was Christian ($n = 127$; 57%), Agnostic ($n = 5$; 2.3%), Jewish ($n = 3$; 1.4%), Buddhist ($n = 3$; 1.4%), and other ($n = 54$; 24.1%). Thirty participants (13.8%) did not report supervisor religious/spiritual orientation. With regard to supervisor degree of spiritual practice, trainee participants reported that 43.4% ($n = 96$) of supervisors were practicing, 20.8% ($n = 46$) were somewhat practicing, and 11.8% ($n = 26$) were not practicing. Nearly a quarter (24%) of participants did not report supervisor level of spiritual practice. The majority of participants (57.9%) indicated that their supervisor had not disclosed information regarding their age, gender, race, sexual orientation, or spiritual orientation to them.

Summary of Participant Demographics

The majority of participants in this study were White, heterosexual females between the ages of 21 and 30, who identified as practicing Christians. Most participants were master's students enrolled in a community/mental health counseling program at the time of the study. Half of all participants were enrolled in a master's level internship and approximately a third of participants in a master's level practicum experience.

Participants worked in a variety of clinical settings including community mental health agencies, public schools, universities or colleges, private practice, residential settings, hospitals, and vocational rehabilitation centers. Most participants had accrued an average of 100 direct hours at the time of the study and saw approximately 10 clients per week.

All participants were receiving supervision and reported they had participated in an average of 13.76 supervision sessions at the time of the study. On average, their supervision sessions were 65.73 minutes in length.

Participants reported that the majority of their supervisors were White, heterosexual females. Supervisors varied widely in age; the majority of supervisors were older than participants, ranging in age from 31 to 65 years of age. Most participants reported that their supervisors identified as Christian or other; however, nearly a third of participants chose not to provide their supervisor's religious/spiritual orientation.

Missing Data and Variable Transformations

Not every participant who completed the survey answered every question. Out of the 95 items included on the SMCI, WAI-SF, COSE and TPRS-R that were necessary for full statistical analysis, 90 questions (94.7%) had one or more blank spaces from participants who chose not to answer a particular question. However, no item on each instrument had more than eight blank spaces. As a result, every item on these four instruments had at least a 96.4% response rate by the 221 participants, with missing data comprising less than 5% of the cases on a given variable. While Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend ignoring or removing missing data on 5% or fewer cases, the researcher chose to use an imputation procedure to handle the missing data. An imputation procedure was chosen over ignoring or removing missing data because the main statistical analysis required the calculation of subscale scores. If the missing data were removed from the analysis, many cases would have been excluded from the data set in order to calculate a subscale score, drastically reducing the study's *N*. Thus, all missing values for the items included on the SMCI, WAI-SF, COSE and TPRS-R were replaced using a liner trend at point calculation in SPSS 18.0 (2009).

Participants also chose not to fully answer the demographic items related to the cultural difference variable. These items included supervisee age, race, gender, sexual

orientation, religious orientation, and degree of practice as well as supervisor age, race, gender, sexual orientation, religious orientation, and degree of practice. Of the 12 items needed to calculate the cultural differences variable, 9 items (75%) had one or more blank spaces from participants who chose not to answer a particular question. The items relating to supervisee age, race, gender, sexual orientation and degree of practice, as well as supervisor age, gender, and race had no more than three blank spaces per variable, yielding a 98.6% response rate by the 221 participants. The item relating to supervisor sexual orientation had 10 blank spaces and comprised 4.9% of cases. The items relating to supervisor religious orientation and degree of practice had 31 and 54 blank spaces, respectively. Missing data comprised 13.9% of the cases on the supervisor religious orientation variable and 24.3% of cases on the supervisor degree of practice variable. Given the large number of missing responses, it is unlikely that the data were missing at random from these two items when compared with the other 10 demographic items. Instead, it is assumed that participants chose to intentionally skip these questions. A modal imputation procedure was used to replace missing values for supervisee/supervisor age, race, gender, sexual orientation, and spiritual/religious orientation. Due to the large number of missing data, supervisee and supervisor degree of spiritual practice were eliminated from the calculation of the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable.

The supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable was calculated using the five demographic components (i.e., age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation) to indicate the degree of difference between supervisee and supervisor (Cheon et al., 2009). To calculate this variable, supervisees who expressed differences from their supervisor with regard to gender, religious/spiritual orientation,

race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation received a score of “1” on each item. Participants were asked to indicate their supervisor’s age range (e.g., 20-24, 25-29, 30-34). Those who placed their supervisor in a different age range than their own received a score of “1” on the age item. Scores on the cultural difference variable ranged from 0 to 5, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of cultural difference. Scores on the cultural difference variable ranged from 0 to 5, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of cultural difference. Most participants ($n = 94$; 42.5%) indicated they differed from their supervisor on two cultural variables, while 51 (23.1%) differed from their supervisors on one cultural variable and 30 (22.6%) of participants reported differing from their supervisor on three cultural variables. Six participants (2.7%) did not differ from their supervisors on any of the cultural variables, while 19 (8.60%) differed from their supervisor on four cultural variables and one participant (.50%) differed on five cultural variables.

To examine whether supervisor multicultural competence moderated the relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE through the supervisory working alliance, an interaction variable had to be created. In particular, the researcher was interested in understanding whether the interaction between supervisee-supervisor cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence moderated the effect of supervisee-supervisor cultural differences on the supervisory working alliance. To create the interaction variable, the interaction between the cultural differences variable, which measured degree of supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, and the SMCI total scores, which measured perceived supervisory multicultural competence, was calculated using a two step process.

First, the SMCI total scores were centered to increase the interpretability of the interactions and decrease multicollinearity (McClelland & Judd, 1993; Schumaker & Lomax, 2004). To center this continuous variable, the SMCI total mean score was subtracted from each data point using SPSS 18.0 (2009). The newly centered scores of the SMCI total were then multiplied by the discrete, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable to create the interaction variable.

Scoring Responses on Inventories

Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory

The Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI; Inman, 2005) was used in this study to assess participant perceptions of their supervisor's multicultural competence in supervision. The SMCI consists of 34 items and uses a total score ranging from 34 to 204 (Appendix C). Therefore, the maximum available range is 170. Participant total scores for the SMCI were obtained by summing all item ratings in SPSS 18.0 (2009) prior to importing data in LISREL 8.80 (2009). Higher SMCI total scores indicate higher levels of supervisor multicultural competence. The mean score for the SMCI was 139.59 ($SD= 35.97$). Participant scores on the SMCI ranged from 51 to 204. If the midrange of this instrument can be considered to be between 118 and 120, 73% of participants scored above the midrange. These results seem to indicate that most participants viewed their current supervisors as relatively multiculturally competent. The SMCI scores were slightly negatively skewed ($-.404$) and platykurtic ($-.640$; Figure 2). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=.986$, $p = .285$) and Q-Q plots suggested that the SMCI scores were normally distributed. In past studies, the SMCI total score has demonstrated high reliability. Inman (2006) and Mori et al. (2009) reported the coefficient alpha to be .97.

Beaumont (2010) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .98 for the total score. In the present sample, the Cronbach's alpha for the total score was .98.

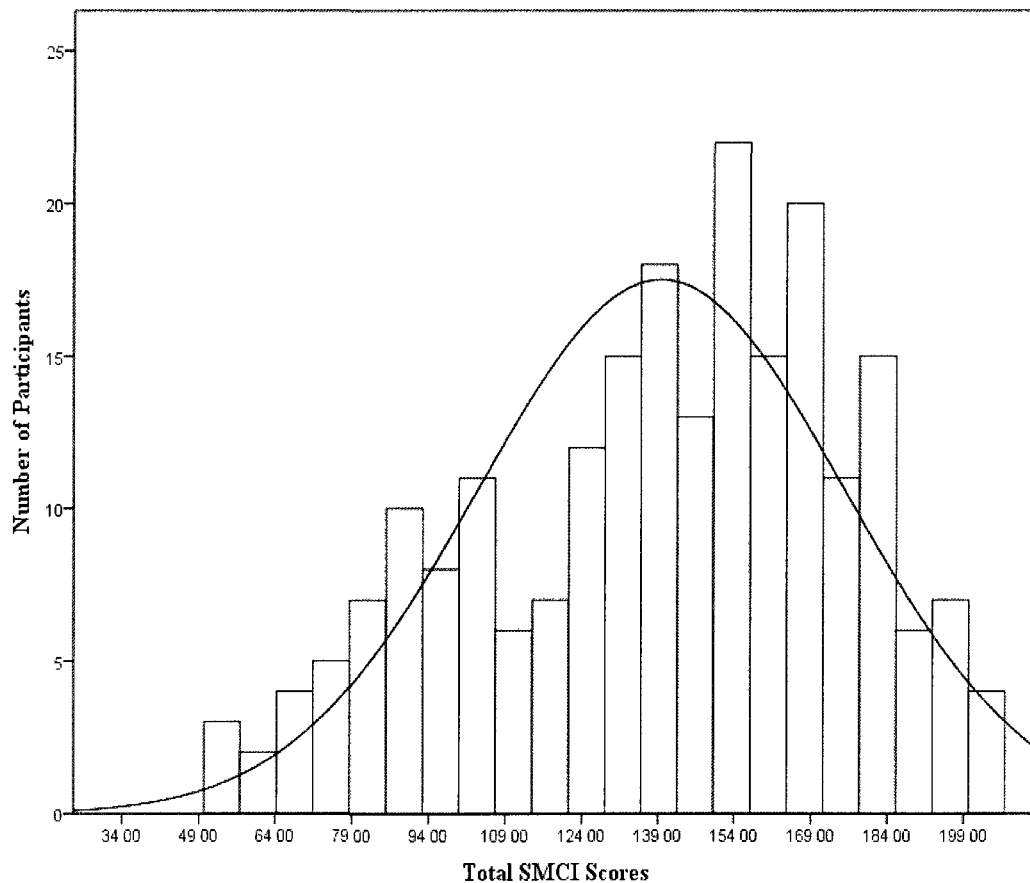


Figure 2. Distribution of total SMCI scores

Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form

The three sub-scale scores (i.e., bond, task, and goal) of the Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S; Ladany, Mori, & Mehr, 2007) were used in this study to

measure participant perceptions of the supervisory working alliance (Appendix D). The Bond subscale examines the strength of the emotional bond between supervisor and trainee. The Task subscale gauges the degree to which the supervisor and trainee agree on the tasks of supervision. The Goal subscale measures the degree to which the supervisor and trainee agree on supervision goals. Each subscale consists of four items and the subscale scores range from 4 to 28. Two of the items were reversed scored. Participant subscale scores for the WAI-S were obtained by summing individual item ratings; this was accomplished using SPSS 18.0 (2009) prior to importing data in LISREL 8.80 (2009). Higher scores on the subscales indicate a stronger working alliance between the supervisor and supervisee. Table 5 provides the means and standard deviations for the WAI-S subscale scores.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for the WAI-S Subscale Scores

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Bond	23.34	4.52
Task	22.5	4.13
Goal	19.06	2.59

Bond subscale. The majority of participants (91.86%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 73.3% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 22-28). Only 8.14% of participant scores fell within the bottom half of total

possible range (i.e., 4-16) on the bond subscale. These results seem to suggest that participants perceived the strength of their supervisory bond to be strong. Six of the bond subscale scores fell 3 standard deviations below the mean and had z scores that exceeded -2.5. These scores were considered to be outliers (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2008). As Figure 3 demonstrates, the distribution was negatively skewed (-1.432) and leptokurtic (2.251).

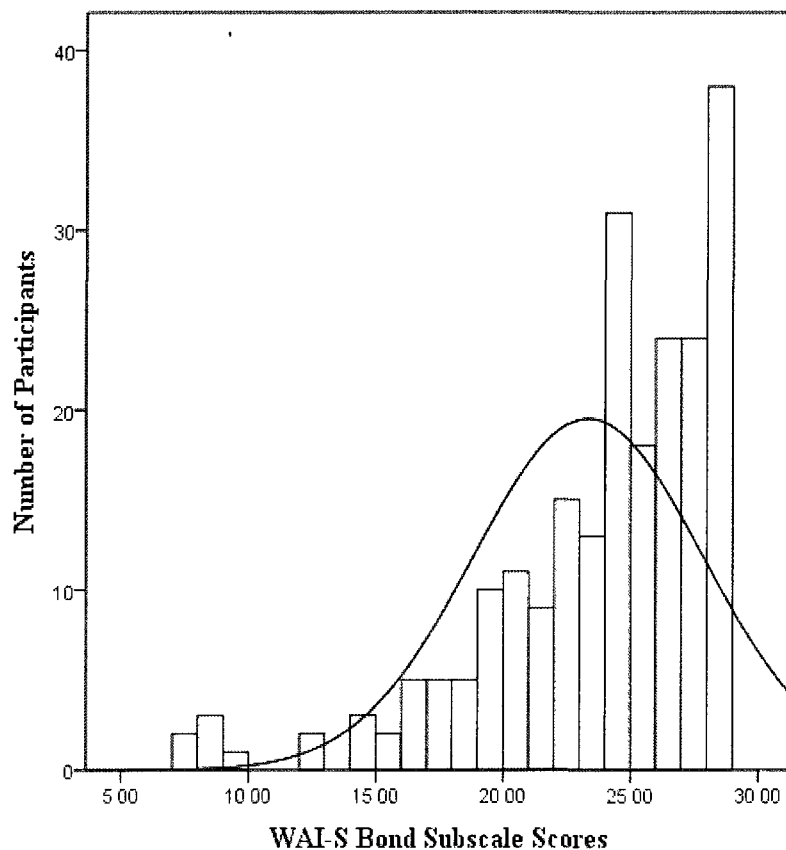


Figure 3. Distribution of WAI-S Bond subscale scores

As a result, a logarithm transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 4, was slightly negatively skewed (-.25) and platykurtic (-.196) with no outliers.

The transformed mean was .73 ($SD=.37$). Using a stringent alpha level (i.e., $p < .001$; Meyers et al., 2006), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=.1.97$, $p = .001$) indicated the univariate normality assumption for the task subscale held. Visual inspection of the Q-Q plots confirmed this finding.

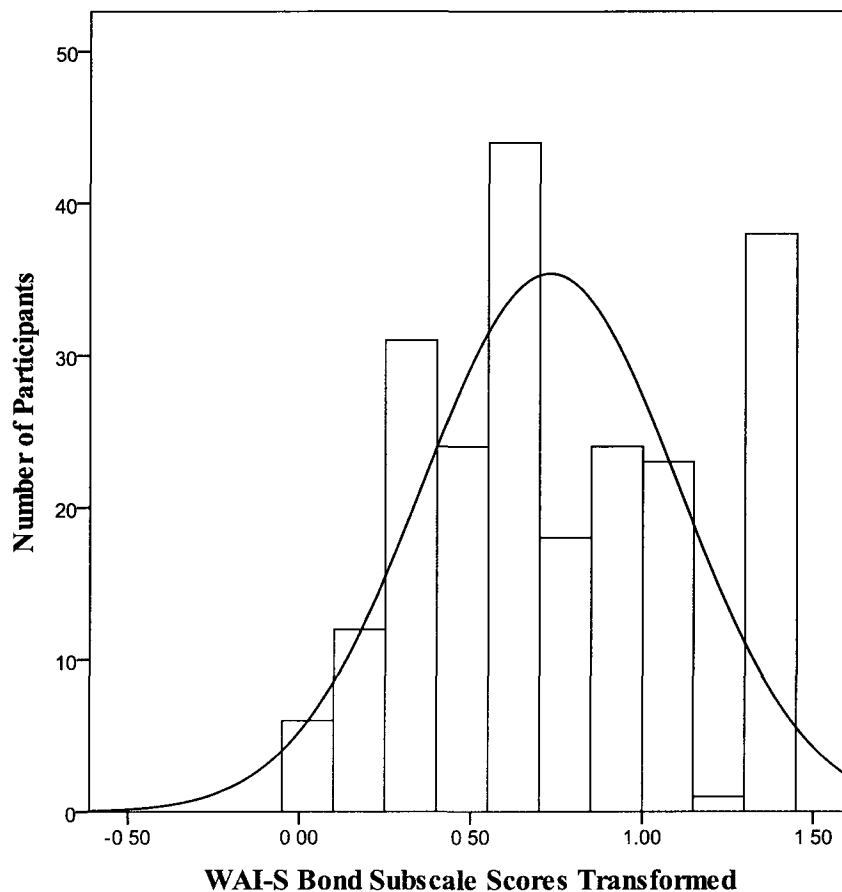


Figure 4. Distribution of transformed WAI-S Bond subscale scores

Task subscale. On the task subscale, the majority of participants (90.95%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 66.06% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 22-28). Only 9.05% of participant scores fell within the

bottom half of the total possible range (i.e., 4-16) on the task subscale. These results seem to suggest that participants perceived there to be strong agreement on the tasks of supervision in their current supervisory relationship. Four of the task subscale scores fell 3 standard deviations below the mean and had z scores that exceeded -2.5. These scores were considered to be outliers (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2008), and, as Figure 5 demonstrates, had a significant impact on the distribution's skewness (-1.052) and kurtosis (1.060).

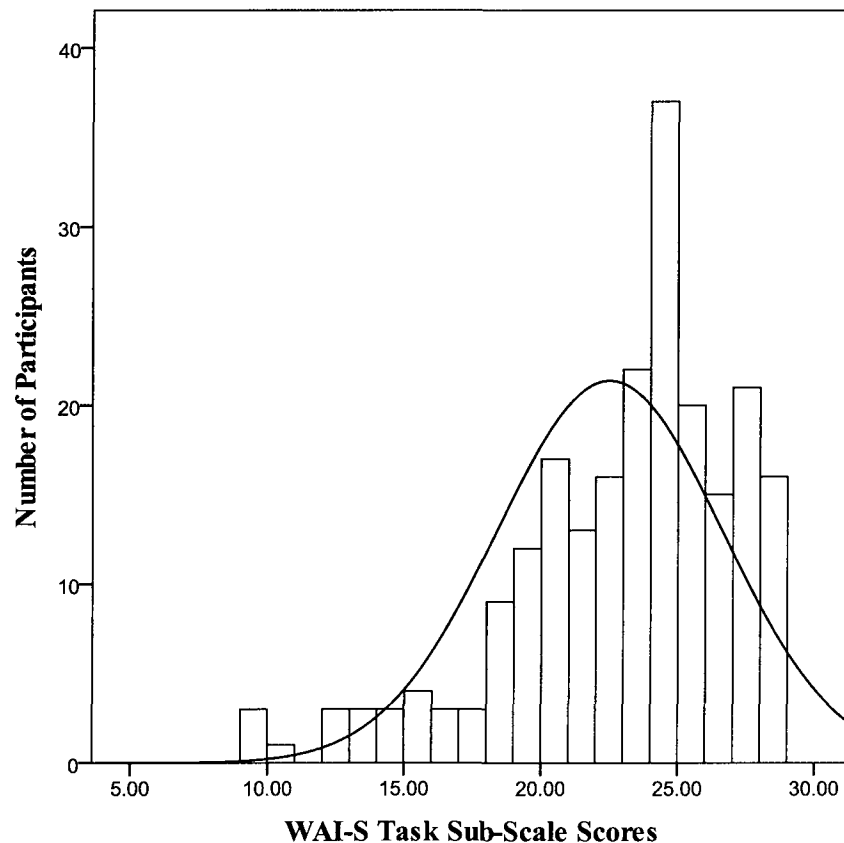


Figure 5. Distribution of WAI-S Task subscale scores

As a result, a square root transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 4, was slightly negatively skewed (-.238) and platykurtic (-.227) with no

outliers (Figure 6). The transformed mean was 3.05 ($SD = .803$). Using a stringent alpha level (i.e., $p < .001$; Meyers et al., 2006), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221) = .084$, $p = .001$) indicated the univariate normality assumption for the task subscale held. Visual inspection of the Q-Q plots confirmed this finding.

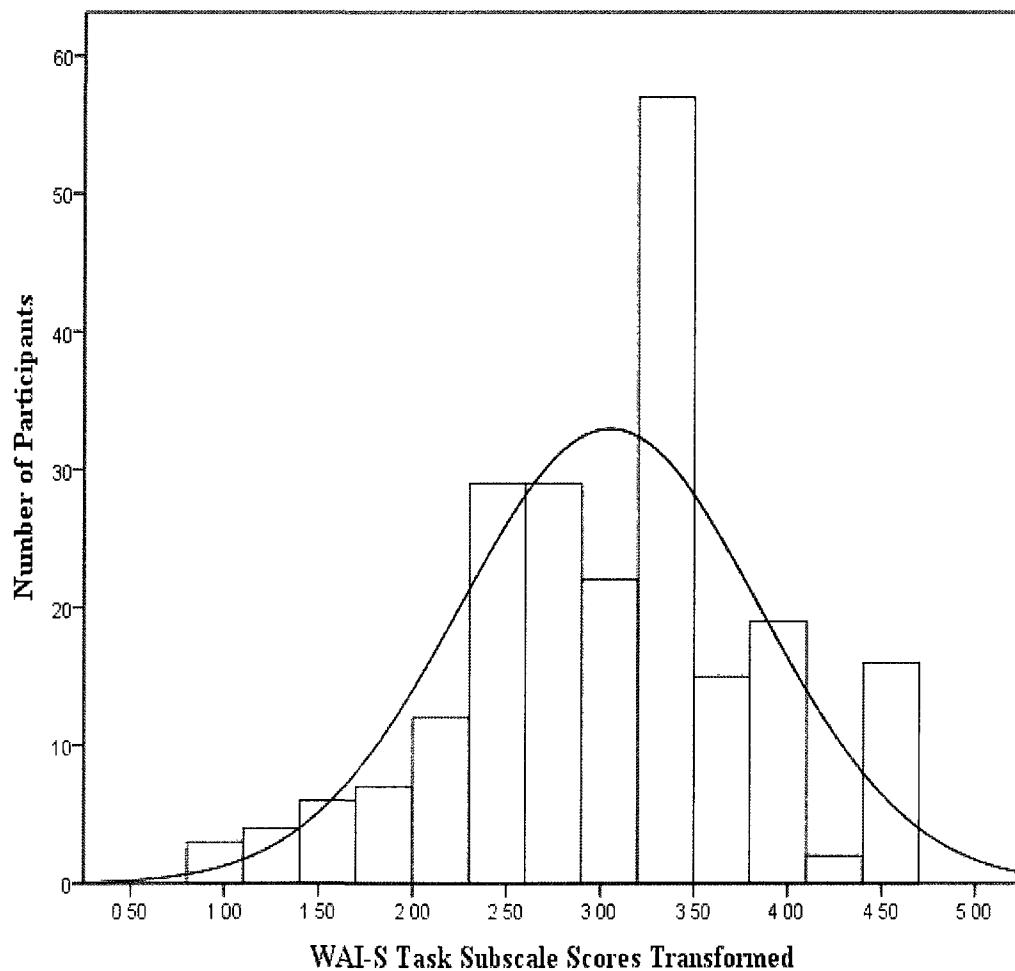


Figure 6. Distribution of WAI-S Task subscale scores transformed

Goal subscale. The majority of participants (87.78%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 61.99% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible

range (i.e., 22-28). Only 12.22% of participant scores fell within the bottom half of the total possible range (i.e., 4-16) on the goal subscale. These results seem to suggest that participants also perceived there to be strong agreement of the goals of supervision in their current supervisory relationship. The distribution negatively skewed (-0.699) and slightly platykurtic (-0.232 ; Figure 7). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, however, revealed that the normality assumption may have been violated ($D(221)=2.09, p < .001$).

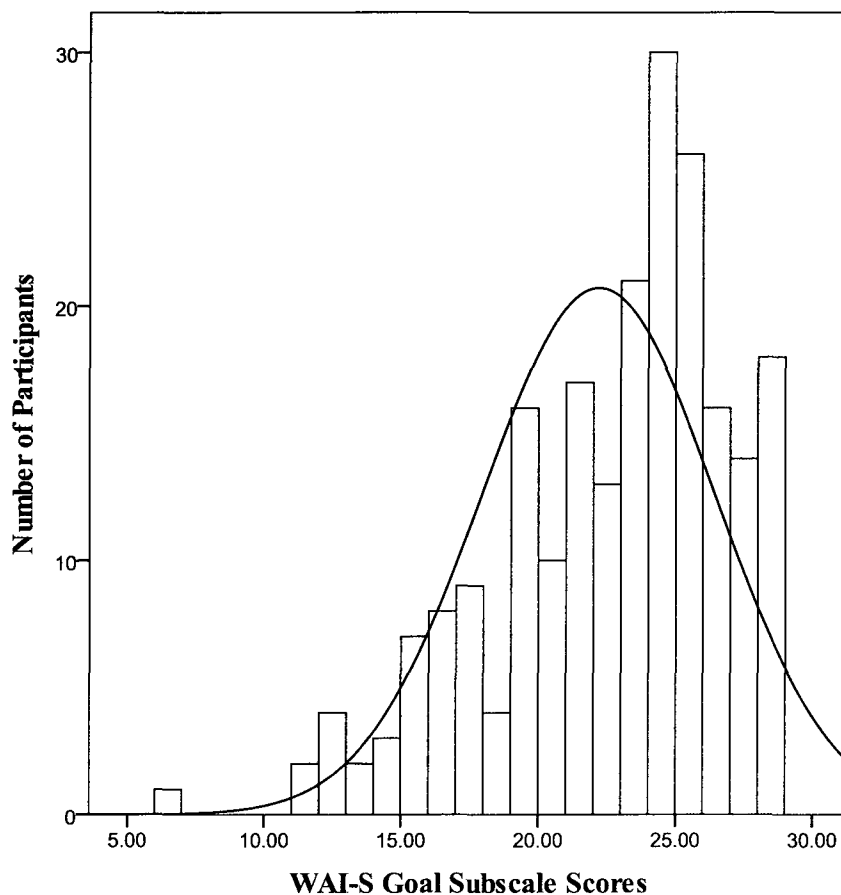


Figure 7. Distribution of WAI-S Goal subscale scores

As a result, a square root transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 8, was slightly negatively skewed ($-.061$) and platykurtic ($-.625$) with no outliers. The transformed mean was 2.65 ($SD = .816$). Using a stringent alpha level (i.e., $p < .001$; Meyers et al., 2006), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221) = .085$, $p = .001$) indicated the univariate normality assumption held for the transformed distribution. Q-Q plots confirmed this finding.

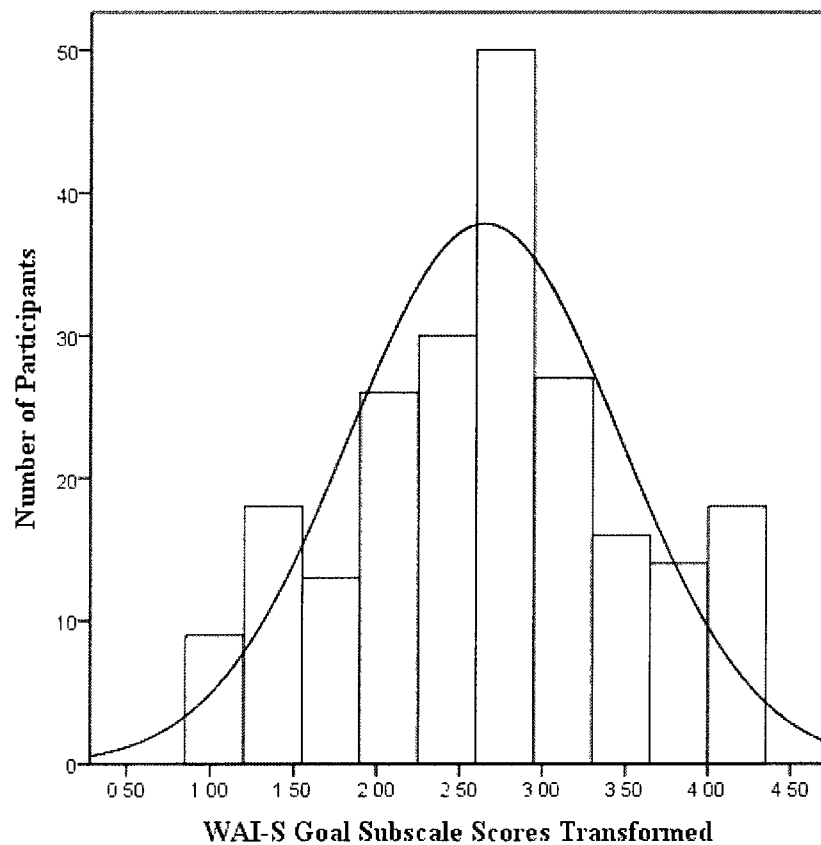


Figure 8. Distribution of WAI-S Goal subscale scores transformed

The internal consistency reliabilities for the WAI-S range from .88 (Ganke, 2008) to .95 for the combined three subscales (Busseri & Tyler, 2003; Tracey & Kokotovic, 1989). Tracey and Kokotovic (1989) also reported Cronbach's alpha for the WAI's task, bond, and goal subscales to be .83, .91, and .88, respectively. The WAI-SF has not been widely used, but the total score demonstrated moderate reliability in Beaumont's (2010) dissertation study. Specifically, Beaumont (2010), who used the WAI-SF total score reported the Cronbach's alpha to be .78. The strength of this reported Cronbach's alpha is adequate in light of the WAI-SF's item count ($n=12$) and Beaumont's sample size ($n=108$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). In the present sample, Cronbach's alpha for the bond, task, and goal subscales was .90, .88, and .78 respectively. The strength of these reported Cronbach's alphas range from excellent to good in light of the WAI-SF's item count per subscale ($n = 4$) and the current study's sample size ($n = 221$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007).

Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory

The subscale scores of the Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992) were used to measure participant's perceived self-efficacy regarding their ability to effectively counsel clients (Appendix E). The COSE subscales include microskills, counseling process, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence, and counselor values and biases subscales. The microskills subscale consists of 12 items that directly pertain to microcounseling skills in isolation and scores range from 12 to 72. The process subscale includes 10 items that reflect counselors actions occurring over a series of responses and scores range from 10 to 60. All 10 subscale items are reverse scored. The difficult client behaviors subscale consists of seven items and focuses on clients that

are unmotivated, suicidal, alcoholic, indecisive, or silent and scores range from 7 to 42. Four of the subscale items are reversed scored. The cultural competence subscale includes four items that pertain to counselor competence when working with culturally different clients and scores range from 4 to 24. Two of the subscale items are reversed scored. The last subscale, awareness of values, contains four items that relate to counselor values and biases and scores range from 4 to 24. Two of the subscale items are reversed scored. Participant subscale scores were obtained by summing individual item ratings; this was accomplished using SPSS 18.0 (2009) prior to importing data in LISREL 8.80 (2009). Higher scores on the five subscales indicate that supervisees' are confident in their ability to effectively counsel clients. Table 6 provides the means and standard deviations for the COSE subscale scores.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for the COSE Subscales

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Microskills	57.07	5.82
Counseling Process	43.66	6.90
Difficult Client Behavior	29.65	4.78
Cultural Competence	19.26	2.77
Counselor Values and Biases	15.20	2.10

Microskills subscale. The majority of participants (98.64%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 58.82% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 57-72). Only three participant scores fell within the bottom half of the total possible range (i.e., 12-42) on the microskills subscale. These results suggest that participants perceived themselves to have high self-efficacy regarding their use of microcounseling skills. The distribution of scores was negatively skewed ($-.364$) and leptokuric ($.832$; Figure 8). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=1.21$, $p = .107$) and Q-Q plots further suggested that the microskills subscale scores were normally distributed.

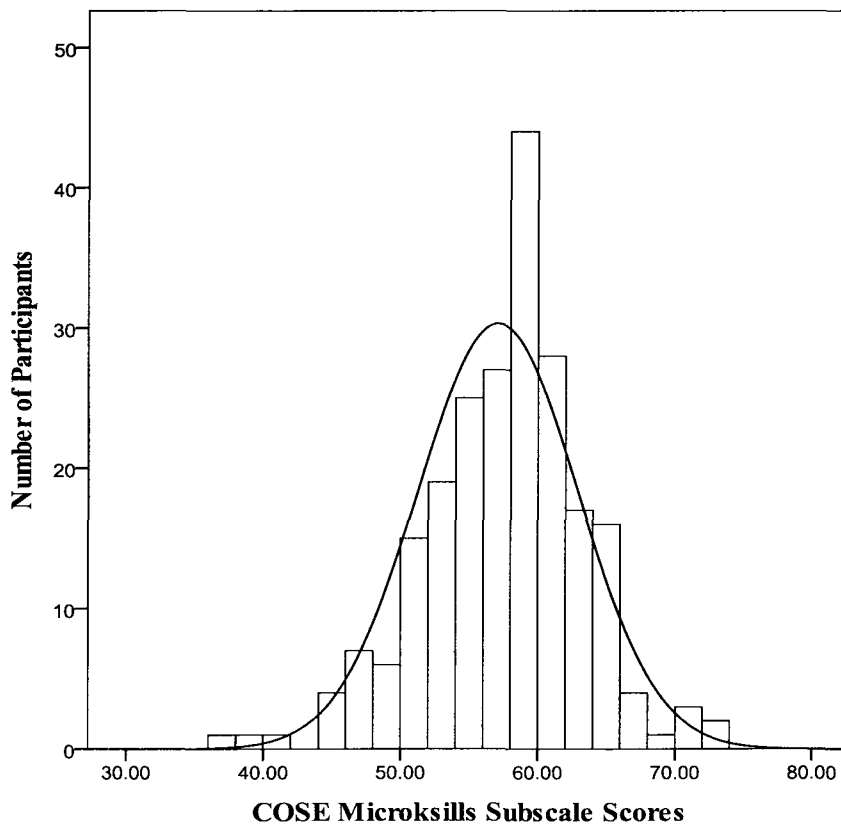


Figure 9. Distribution of COSE Microskills subscale scores

Counseling process subscale. Most participants (88.69%) scored in the top half of the total possible score range, with 37.57% scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (48-60). Approximately, 11% of participant scores fell within the bottom half of the total possible range (i.e., 10-35) on the counseling process subscale. These results seem to indicate that the majority of participants perceived themselves to have moderate to high self-efficacy regarding their actions during client sessions. The distribution of scores was negatively skewed (-.318) and platykurtic (-.294; Figure 9). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=1.20$, $p = .110$) and Q-Q plots further suggested that the counseling process subscale scores were normally distributed.

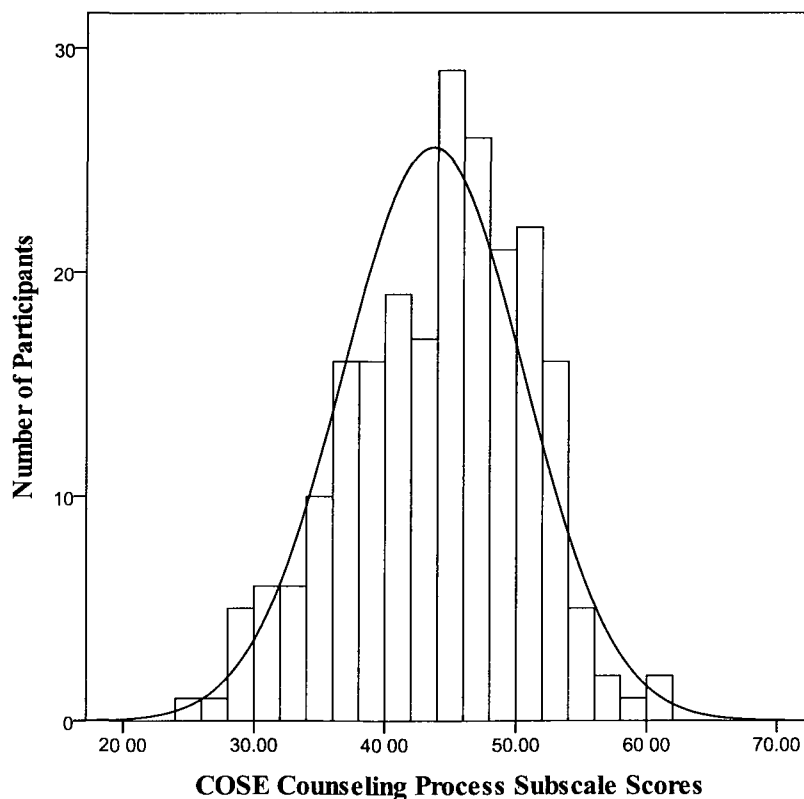


Figure 10. Distribution of COSE Counseling Process subscale scores

Difficult client subscale. The majority of participants (88.69%), scored in the top half of the total possible score range, but only 5.88% scored in the top 75% of the possible scoring range (37-42). However, 11.33% of participants scored within the bottom half of the total possible range (i.e., 7-24) on the difficult client subscale. These results suggest that most participants perceived themselves to have moderate self-efficacy with regard to working with clients who demonstrate difficult behavior (e.g., unmotivated, suicidal, alcoholic, indecisive, or silent). The distribution of scores was slightly negatively skewed (-.040) and platykurtic (-.561; Figure 10). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=1.11$, $p = .173$) and Q-Q plots further suggested that the difficult client subscale scores were normally distributed.

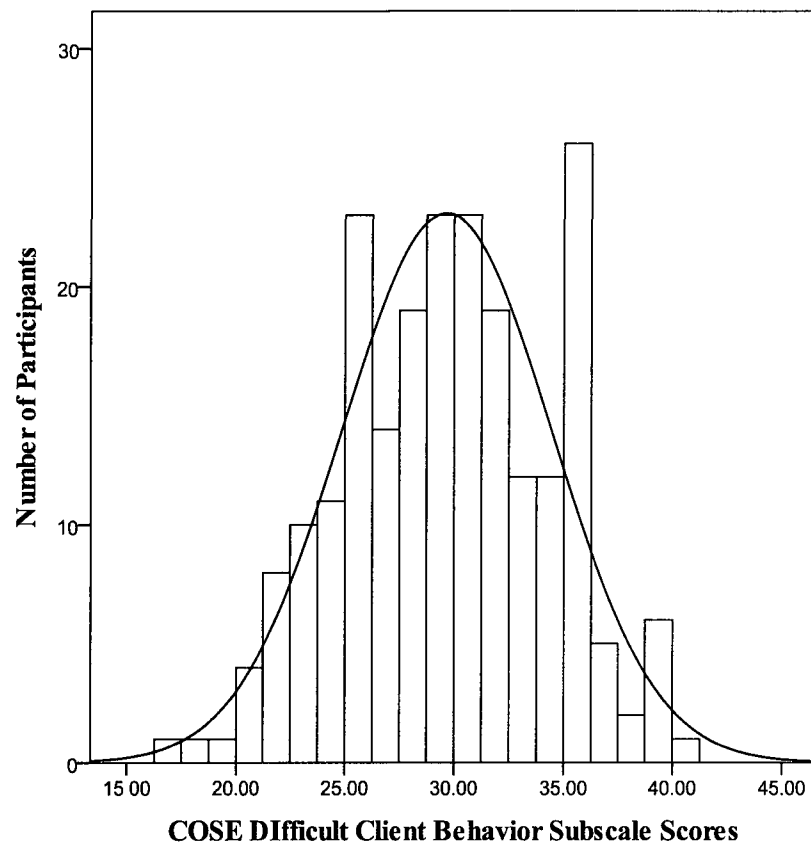


Figure 11. Distribution of COSE Difficult Client Behavior subscale scores

Cultural competence subscale. All most all of the participants (97.74%) scored in the top half of the total possible score range on the cultural competence subscale, and 62.90% scored in the top 75% of the possible scoring range (19-24). Only five participant scores fell within the bottom half of the total possible score range (4-14) on the cultural competence subscale. These results seem to indicate that most participants perceive themselves to have a high self-efficacy with regard to working with culturally different clients. The distribution of scores was negatively skewed (-.365) and slightly platykurtic (-.103; Figure 11). Using a stringent alpha level (i.e., $p < .001$; Meyers et al., 2006), the

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=.1.66$, $p = .008$) suggested that the cultural competence subscale scores were normally distributed. Visual inspection of the Q-Q plots supported this finding.

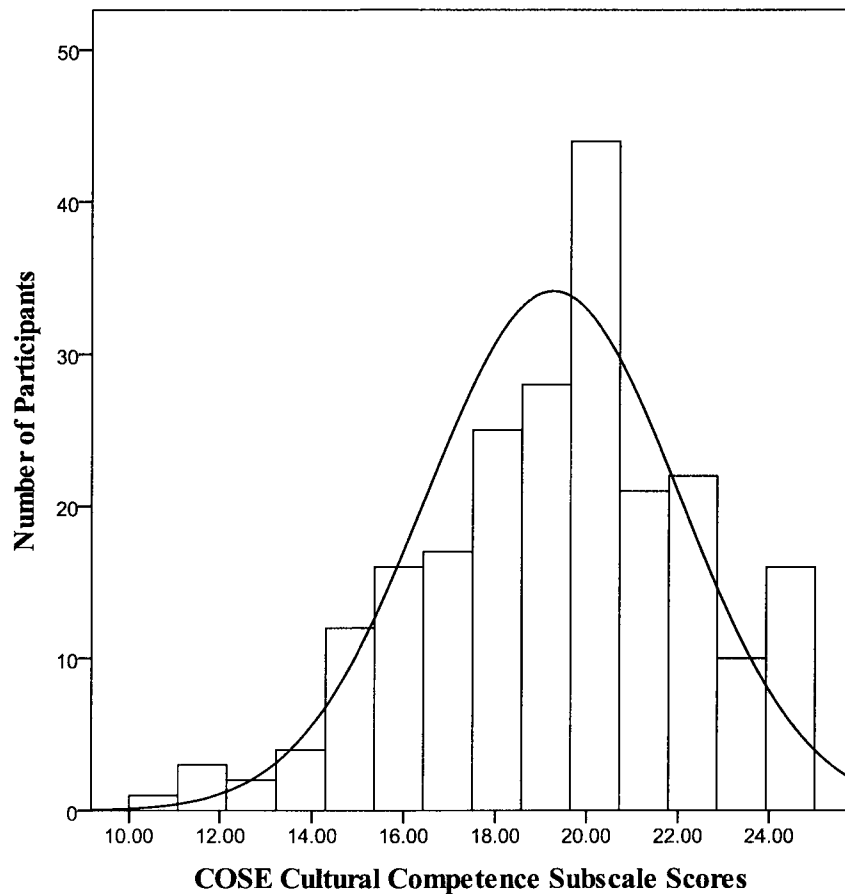


Figure 12. Distribution of COSE Cultural Competence subscale scores

Counselor value and biases subscale. Most participants (80.54) scored in the top half of the possible scoring range, but only 4.97% of those participants scored in the top 75% of the possible scoring range. Another 19.45% of participants scored within the bottom half of the total possible score range (i.e., 4-14). These results suggest that

participants perceived themselves to have moderate self-efficacy with regard to awareness of own values and biases. The distribution was positively skewed (.419) and leptokuric (.98; Figure 12). Using a stringent alpha level (i.e., $p < .001$; Meyers et al., 2006), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=.1.59$, $p = .013$) suggested that the counselor values and biases subscale scores were normally distributed. Visual inspection of the Q-Q plots supported this finding.

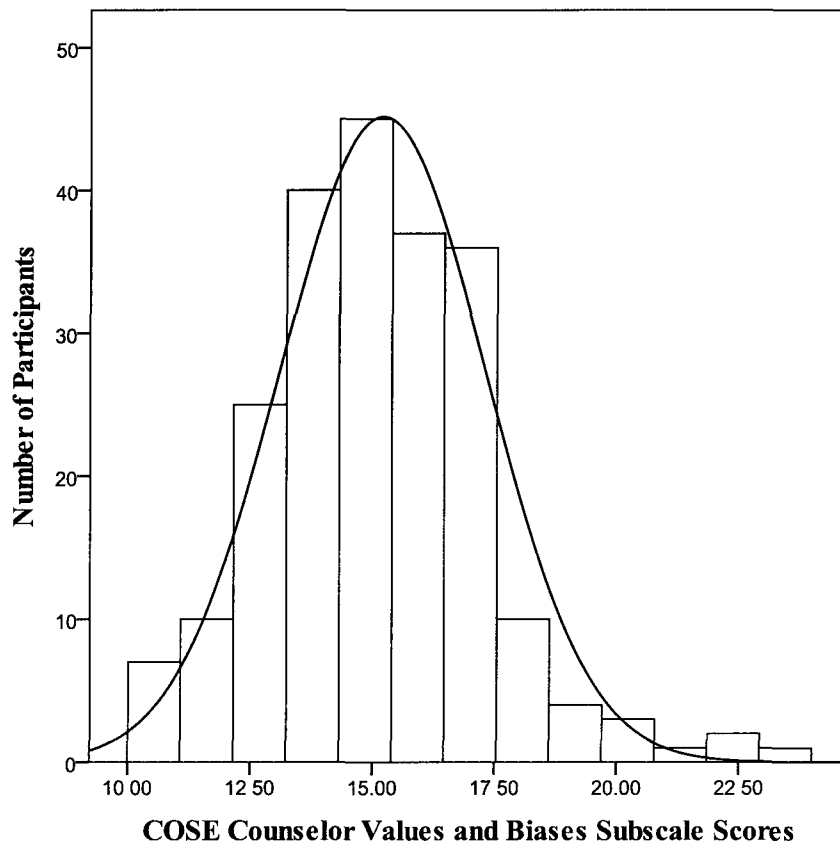


Figure 13. Distribution of COSE Counselor Values and Biases Subscale Scores

Larson et al. (1992) reported internal consistencies for the five factors:

Microskills, $\alpha = .88$; for Process, $\alpha = .87$; Difficult Client Behaviors, $\alpha = .80$; Cultural Competence, $\alpha = .78$; and Awareness of Values, $\alpha = .62$. Larson et al. (1999) reported internal consistency for the COSE total score to be .93. Additional studies have reported Cronbach's alpha for the COSE to range from .90 to .91 (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Duan, 2007). In the present sample, Cronbach's alpha for Microskills = .85, Counseling process = .84, Difficult clients = .75, Cultural competence = .76, and Values = .19. The strength of these reported Cronbach's alphas for the microskill, process, difficult client behaviors and cultural competence is adequate in light of the item counts per subscale (Microskills $n=12$, Process $n=10$, Difficult Client Behaviors $n=7$, Cultural Competence $n=4$) and the current study's sample size ($n = 221$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). Cronbach's alpha for the value subscale (.19) is not satisfactory (Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007).

Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised

The subscale scores of the Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R; Ladany, Ellis, Friedlander, & Stern, 1992) were used to assess participant perceived satisfaction with their supervision experience (Appendix, F). The TPRS-R subscales include evaluation of the supervisor, evaluation of self, and level of comfort. The evaluation of supervisor scale measures the trainee's reaction to the supervisor's perceived qualities and performance. The evaluation of self measures the trainee's perception of his/her own behavior in supervision. The level of comfort scale measures the trainee's level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. Each subscale consists of four items and the scores range from 4 to 20. Eight of the subscale items are reversed

scored. Participant subscale scores were obtained by summing individual item ratings; this was accomplished using SPSS 18.0 (2009) prior to importing data in LISREL 8.80 (2009). Table 7 provides the means and standard deviations for the TPRS-R subscale scores.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for the TPRS-R Subscales

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Evaluation of Supervisor	16.49	3.47
Evaluation of Self	16.67	3.26
Level of Comfort	17.27	3.23

Evaluation of supervisor. Participant scores on the evaluation of supervisor scale ranged from 4 to 20. The majority of participants (90.15%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 59.28% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 16-20). These results indicate that most participants were satisfied with their supervisor's perceived qualities and performance. The distribution was leptokurtic (.861). Two scores fell more than three standard deviations below the mean and have z-scores that exceeded -2.5. These scores were considered to be outliers (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2008), and, as Figure 13 demonstrates, impacted the distribution's skewness (-1.146).

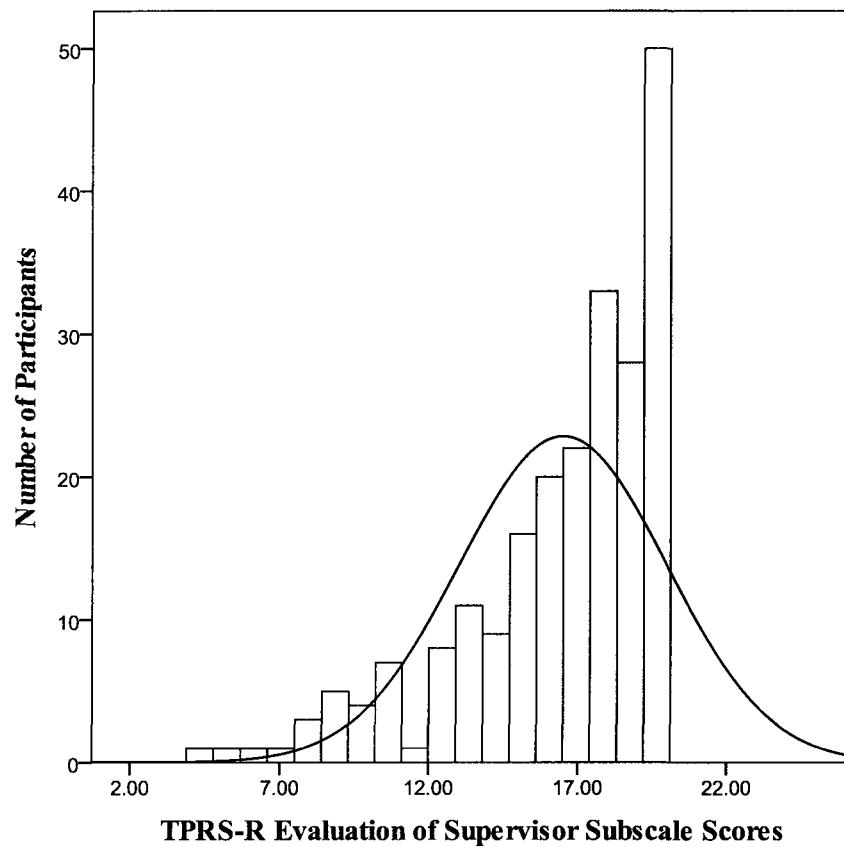


Figure 14. Distribution of TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor subscale scores

As a result, a square root transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 14, was slightly negatively skewed ($-.492$) and platykurtic ($-.603$) with one outlier. The data was winzorized by recoding the outlier value to the nearest acceptable value (i.e., lower bound value). Tukey's Hinges and the hinge spread were used to determine the lower bound value (1.12). The transformed mean was 3.15 ($SD = .786$). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221) = .122$, $p < .001$) and Q-Q plots indicated a possible normality violation.

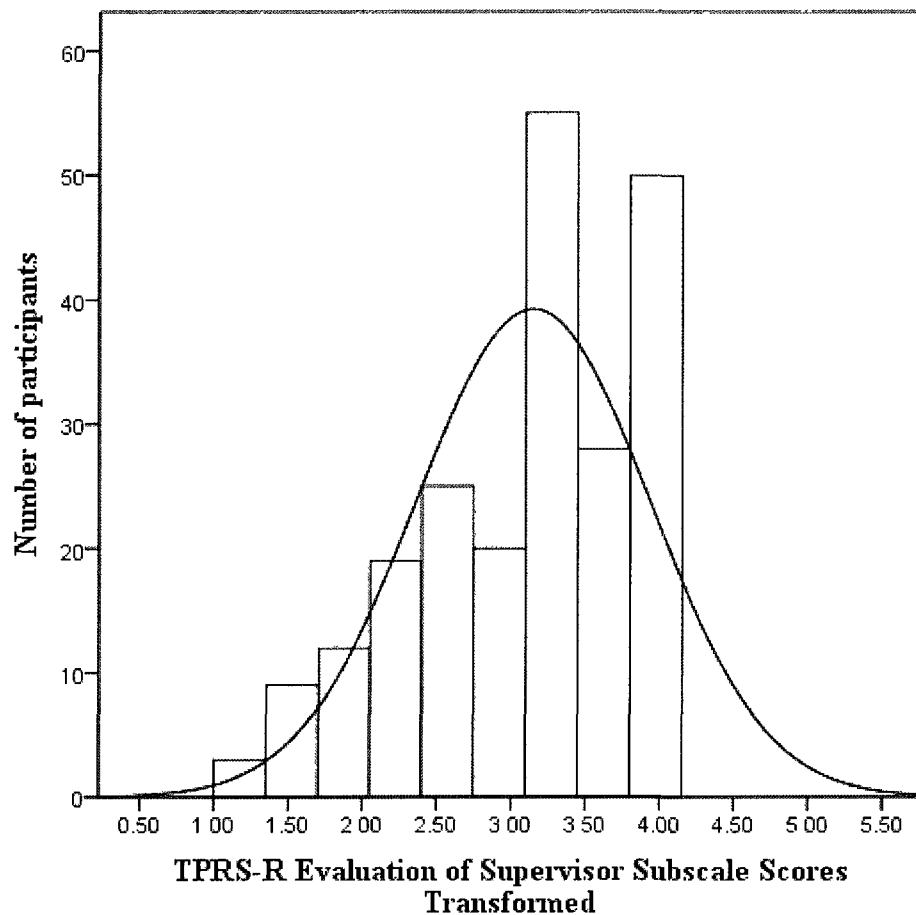


Figure 15. Distribution of TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor subscale scores transformed

Evaluation of trainee subscale. Participant scores on the evaluation of trainee scale ranged from 5 to 20. The majority of participants (89/14%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 69.23% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 16-20). These results indicate that most participants were satisfied with their own behavior in supervision. The distribution was leptokurtic (.819). One score fell more than three standard deviations below the mean and has z-scores that exceeded -

2.5. This score was considered to be an outlier (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2008), and, as Figure 15 demonstrates, impacted the distribution's skewness (-1.088).

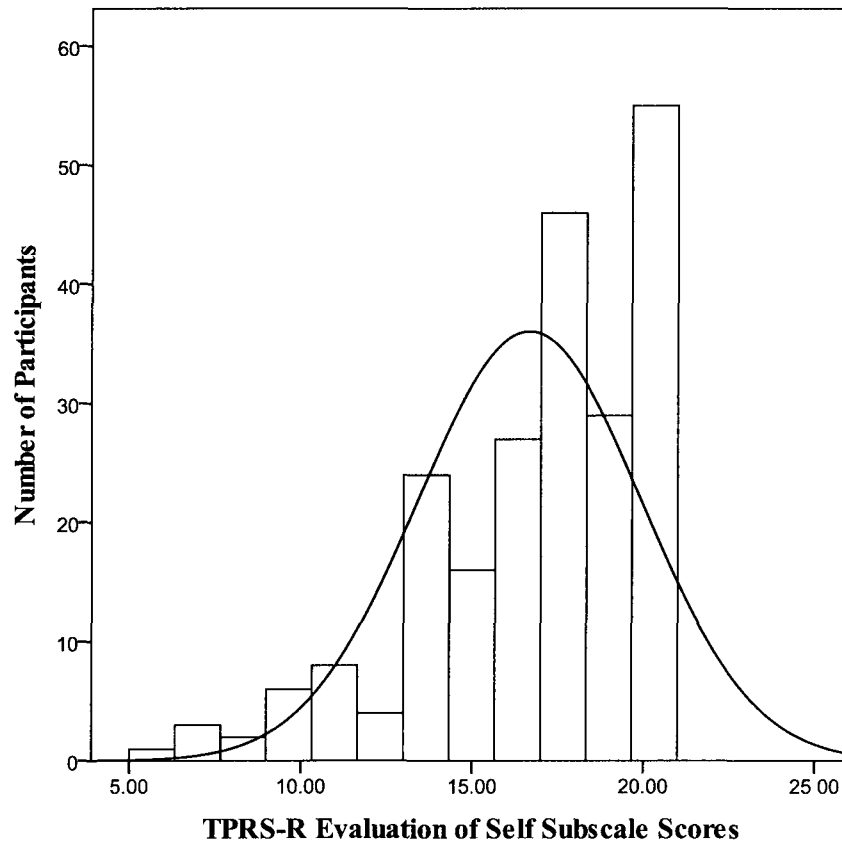


Figure 16. Distribution of TPRS-R Evaluation of Self subscale scores

As a result, a square root transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 16, was negatively skewed (-.421) and platykurtic (-.671) with no outliers. The transformed mean was 3.06 ($SD = .763$). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221)=.134$, $p < .001$) and Q-Q plots indicated a possible normality violation.

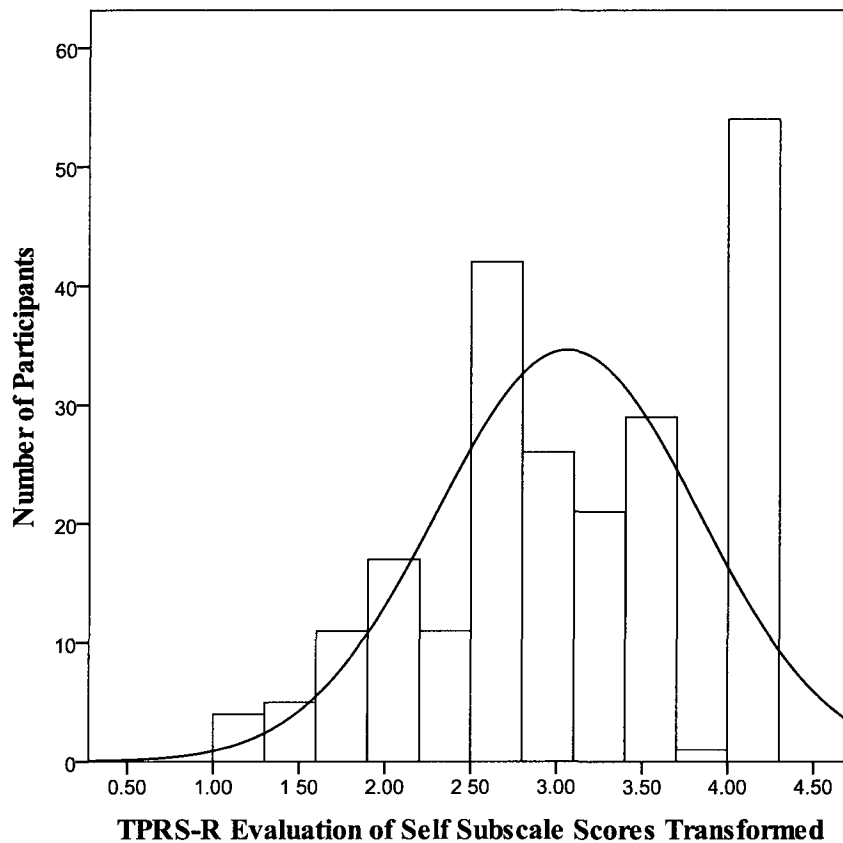


Figure 17. Distribution of TPRS-R Evaluation of Self subscale scores transformed

Level of comfort subscale. Participant scores on the level of comfort scale ranged from 4 to 20. The majority of participants (93.67%) scored in the top half of the total possible range, with 77.82% of participants scoring in the top 75% of the possible range (i.e., 16-20). These results indicate that most participants were satisfied with their level of comfort in expressing ideas in supervision. Two scores fell more than three standard deviations below the mean and has z-scores that exceeded -2.5. These scores was considered to be an outliers (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2008), and, as Figure 17 demonstrates, impacted the distribution's skewness (-1.594) and kurtosis (2.504).

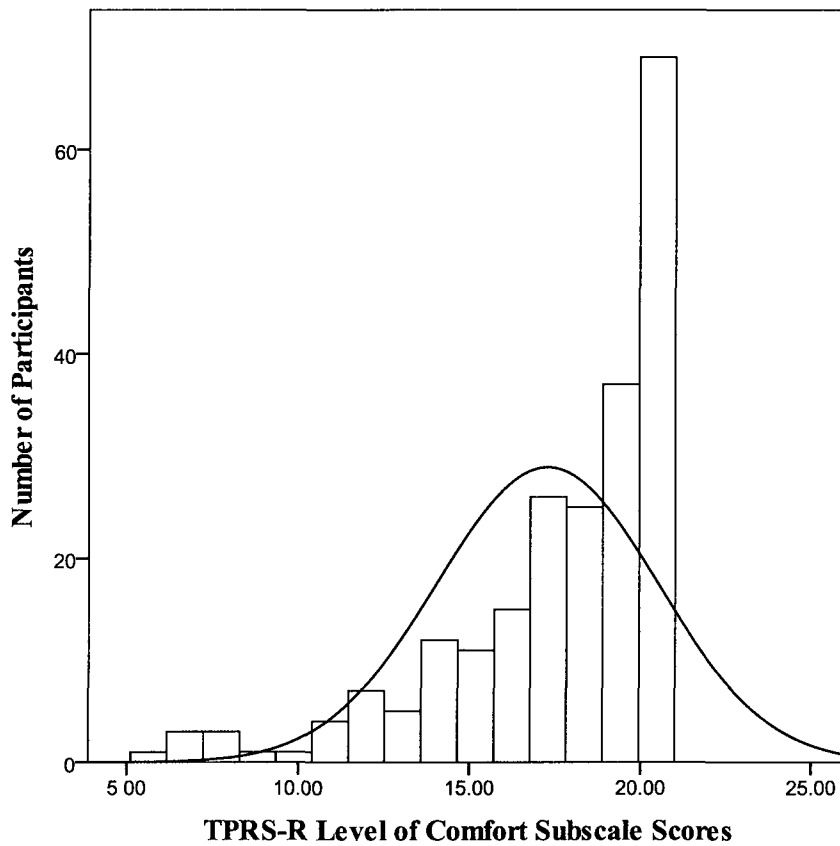


Figure 18. Distribution of TPRS-R Level of Comfort subscale scores

As a result, a logarithm transformation was performed. The transformed distribution, see Figure 18, was negatively skewed (-.23) and platykurtic (-.997) with no outliers. The transformed mean was .804 ($SD = .357$). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($D(221) = .196$, $p < .001$) and Q-Q plots indicated a possible normality violation.

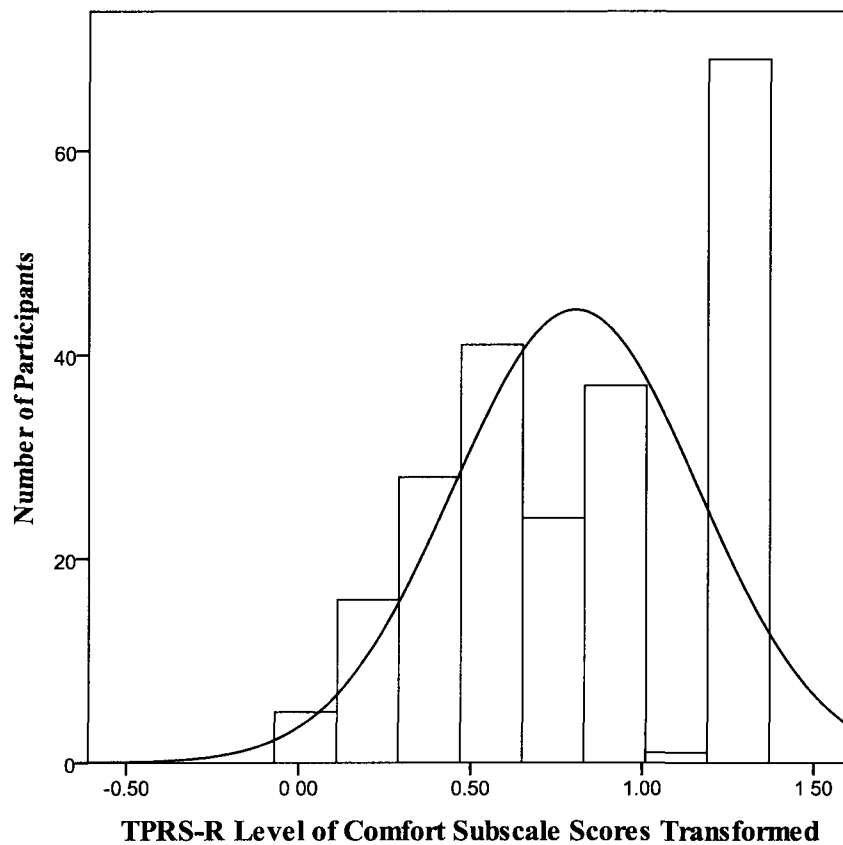


Figure 19. Distribution of TPRS-R Level of Comfort subscale scores transformed

Previous studies report internal consistencies for the TPRS-R total score have ranged from .71 to above .86 (Holloway & Wampold, 1984; Ladany et al., 1999; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). In the present sample, Cronbach's alphas for the subscales were: evaluation of supervisor=.88, evaluation of self=.79, and level of comfort=.76. The strength of these reported Cronbach's alphas for the three subscales is adequate in light of the number of items per subscale ($n=4$) and the current study's sample size ($n = 221$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007).

Multivariate Statistical Assumptions

To ensure an accurate SEM model, data need to first be examined for multivariate nonnormality, and heterogeneity of variance (Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The data for this study were screened for multivariate normality and linearity by examining a bivariate scatterplot matrix that included all continuous variables of interest. Each combination of variables in the scatterplot matrix was roughly elliptical in shape, demonstrating enough multivariate normality and linearity to proceed with the analysis (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006). Data were also screened for multivariate outliers by calculating Mahalanobis Distance, which measures the multivariate distance between each case and the multivariate mean (i.e., centroid). Each case was evaluated using the chi-square distribution and was considered an outlier if it exceeded the chi square critical value at an alpha level of .001. For the current study, the chi square critical value for 12 degrees of freedom, which was equal to the number of variables under investigation, at an alpha level of .001 was 32.91. Therefore, any case with a Mahalanobis distance value equal to or greater than 32.91 was considered to be a multivariate outlier. Two cases were identified as having a Mahalanobis Distance greater than the critical value (i.e., 33.94 and 35.79), but since the outliers comprised less than 1% of the sample and were not much larger than the critical value these cases were left in the data set (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The homogeneity of variance assumption was assessed using Box's *M* test for equality of variance covariance matrices to determine whether the endogenous variables' covariance matrices were equal across levels of the discrete, exogenous variable, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences. Box's *M* test was not significant

($F[66, 1137] = 303, p = .303$), indicating that the homogeneity of variance assumption held.

Findings

This section presents the results of the confirmation factor analysis of the measurement model that was conducted prior to the SEM procedures. Additionally, a summary of hypothesis testing based on the results of SEM procedures is provided.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) of the measurement model was run prior to estimating the structural model in order to ensure that the factor indicators loaded on the latent variables in the direction expected (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The measurement model for this study included three endogenous latent variables: supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The first latent variable, supervisory working alliance, was estimated by the three factors (i.e., bond, task, goal) that comprise the underlying structure of the WAI-SF. The three factor indicators were predicted to be positively correlated with the latent variable. The second latent variable, supervisee CSE was estimated by the five factors (i.e., microskills, counseling process, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence, and counselor values/ biases) that comprise the underlying structure of the COSE. The five factor indicators were predicted to be positively correlated with the latent variable. The third latent variable, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, was estimated by the three factors (i.e., evaluation of supervisor, evaluation of self, and level of comfort) of the TPRS-R. The three factor indicators were predicted to be positively correlated with the

latent variable. Directionality between the latent constructs was not specified in the measurement model. Table 8 provides a summary of the measurement model.

Table 8

Model Summary for the CFA of the Measurement Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Supervisory Working Alliance			
WAI-SF Bond Subscale	.86*	.19	15.56
WAI-SF Task Subscale	.91*	.21	17.23
WAI-SF Goal Subscale	.85*	.23	15.32
Counselor Self-Efficacy			
COSE Microskills Subscale	.83*	.33	14.07
COSE Counseling Process Subscale	.80*	.41	13.39
COSE Difficult Client Behaviors Subscale	.75*	.29	12.38
COSE Cultural Competence Subscale	.71*	.17	11.42
COSE Counselor Values/Biases Subscale	.34*	.15	4.82
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision			
TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor Subscale	.82*	.20	13.64
TPRS-R Evaluation of Self Subscale	.56*	.20	8.46
TPRS-R Level of Comfort Subscale	.60*	.18	10.37

* $p < .05$

Results indicated a poor fit of the CFA model [$\chi^2(41) = 209.44, p = .00$; RMSEA = .137; CFI = .91; PNFI = .66] to the data. The standardized parameter estimates, however, were significant at the $p < .05$ level and consistent with the hypotheses noted in the preceding paragraph, loading in the appropriate direction. The individual parameters comprising the model were also analyzed. As predicted, the latent variable supervisory working alliance was significantly positively correlated with its factor indicators: WAI-SF bond subscale ($r = .86, p < .05$), WAI-SF task subscale ($r = .91, p < .05$), and WAI-SF goal subscale ($r = .85, p < .05$). The latent variable supervisor CSE was also significantly positively correlated with its factor indicators: COSE microskills subscale ($r = .83, p < .05$), COSE counseling process subscale ($r = .80, p < .05$), COSE difficult client behaviors subscale ($r = .75, p < .05$), COSE cultural competence subscale ($r = .71, p < .05$), and COSE counselor values/biases subscale ($r = .34, p < .05$). Finally, the latent variable supervisee satisfaction with supervision was significantly positively correlated with its factor indicators: TPRS-R evaluation for supervisor subscale ($r = .82, p < .05$), TPRS-R evaluation of self subscale ($r = .56, p < .05$), and TPRS-R level of comfort ($r = .60, p < .05$; Figure 19).

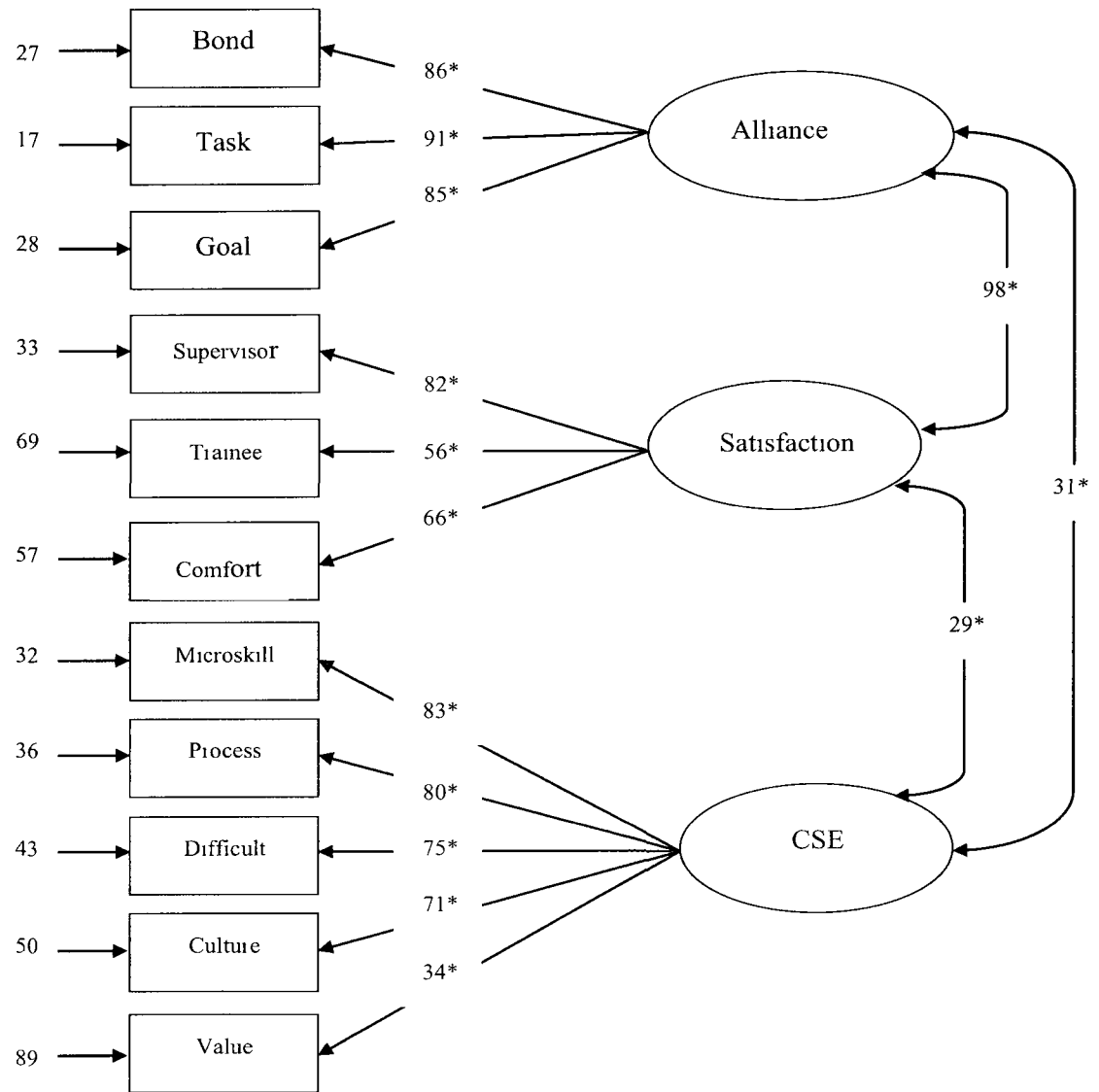


Figure 20 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Measurement Model

* $p < .05$

Given that the first measurement model yielded a poor fit to the data [$\chi^2 (41) = 209.44, p = .00$; RMSEA = .137; CFI = .91; PGFI = .53], the standardized residual matrix was analyzed to determine whether the elimination of certain variables would improve model fit. Standardized residuals with large values (> 2.58) indicate that a particular relationship is not well accounted for by the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Upon examining the standardized residual covariance matrices, the TPRS-R evaluation of self subscale had five large standardized residual values (9.16, -4.52, 3.95, 3.87, 3.13) and was determined to be a good candidate for elimination from the model.

A second CFA was conducted without the TPRS-R evaluation of self subscale to determine if removing the observed variable would improve model fit statistics. In the modified measurement model, the latent variable supervisee satisfaction with supervision included evaluation of self and level of comfort subscales of the TPRS-R. All other latent variables and their corresponding factor indicators remained the same as in the original measurement model (Figure 20). Results indicated that the modified measurement model was a better fit to the data [$\chi^2 (32) = 89.63, p = .00$; RMSEA = .09; CFI = .96; PGFI = .54]. Table 9 provides a summary of the modified measurement model.

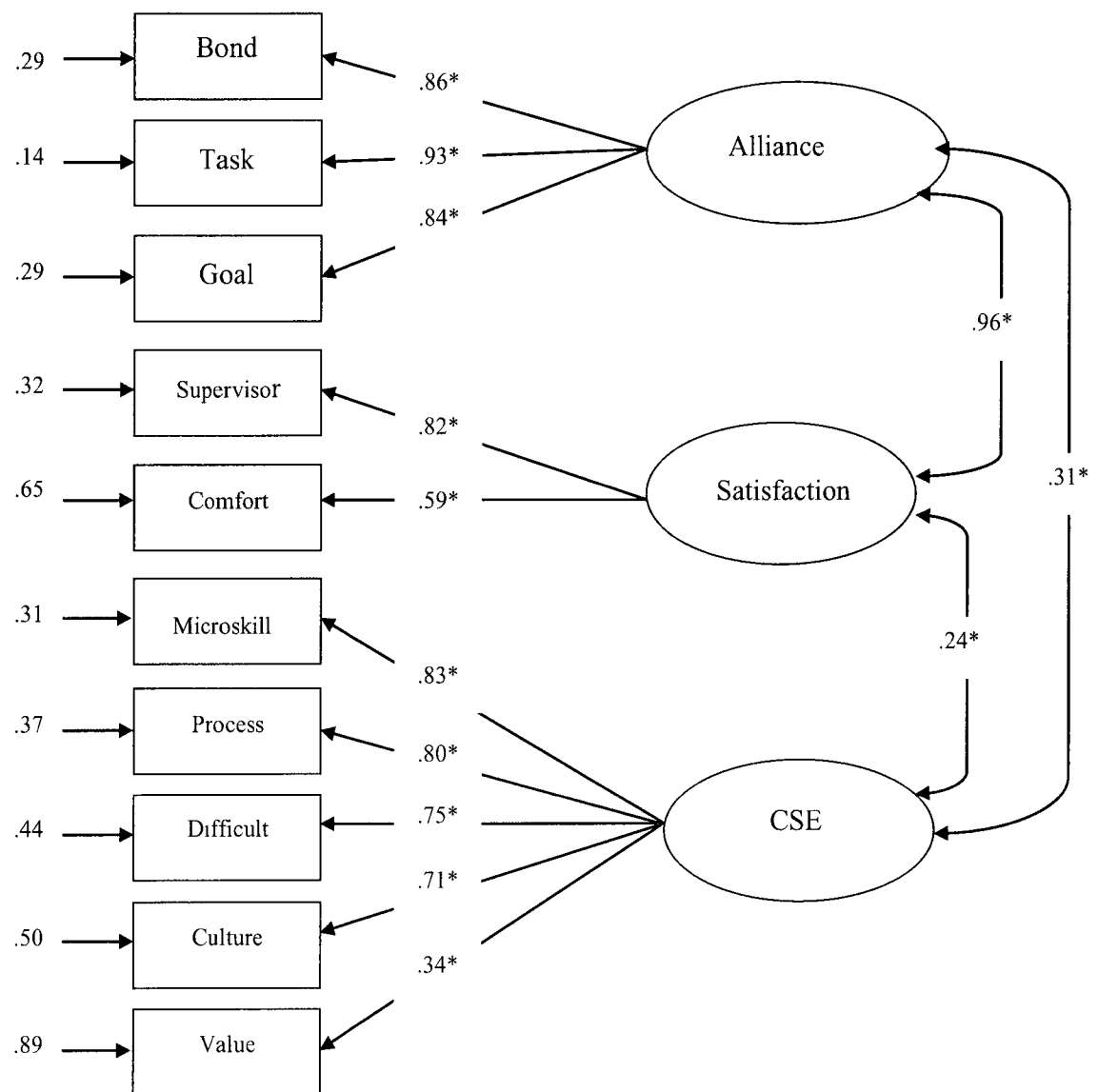


Figure 21: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Modified Measurement Model

* $p < .05$

Table 9

Model Summary for the CFA of the Modified Measurement Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Supervisory Working Alliance			
WAI-SF Bond Subscale	.85*	.19	15.26
WAI-SF Task Subscale	.93*	.21	17.68
WAI-SF Goal Subscale	.84*	.23	15.21
Counselor Self-Efficacy			
COSE Microskills Subscale	.83*	.33	14.18
COSE Counseling Process Subscale	.80*	.41	13.32
COSE Difficult Client Behaviors Subscale	.75*	.29	21.31
COSE Cultural Competence Subscale	.71*	.17	11.42
COSE Counselor Values/Biases Subscale	.34*	.15	4.82
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision			
TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor Subscale	.83*	.20	13.07
TPRS-R Level of Comfort Subscale	.59*	.19	9.05

* $p < .05$ **Structural Equation Models**

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was utilized to estimate the directional relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural difference, supervisory multicultural competence, supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. Specifically, three nested structural models (i.e., direct path model,

mediation model, and the full model) were analyzed to determine the plausibility of the five research hypotheses. The structural models were run in a nested sequence, allowing each model's fit to be directly compared to the other, alternative models.

Direct path model. The direct path structural model was designed to test Hypothesis 1a and 1b. Hypothesis 1a stated that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences would have a direct, negative effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. Hypothesis 1b stated that supervisor multicultural competence would have a direct, positive effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision. To test these two hypotheses, the indirect paths were fixed at 0.00 in the structural model. These included the paths between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the supervisory working alliance, supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance, the interaction variable and the supervisory working alliance, as well as the paths between the supervisory working alliance, supervisee CSE and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The direct paths from the interaction variable to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE were also fixed at 0.00 (Figure 21). Table 10 includes a model summary of the direct path model.

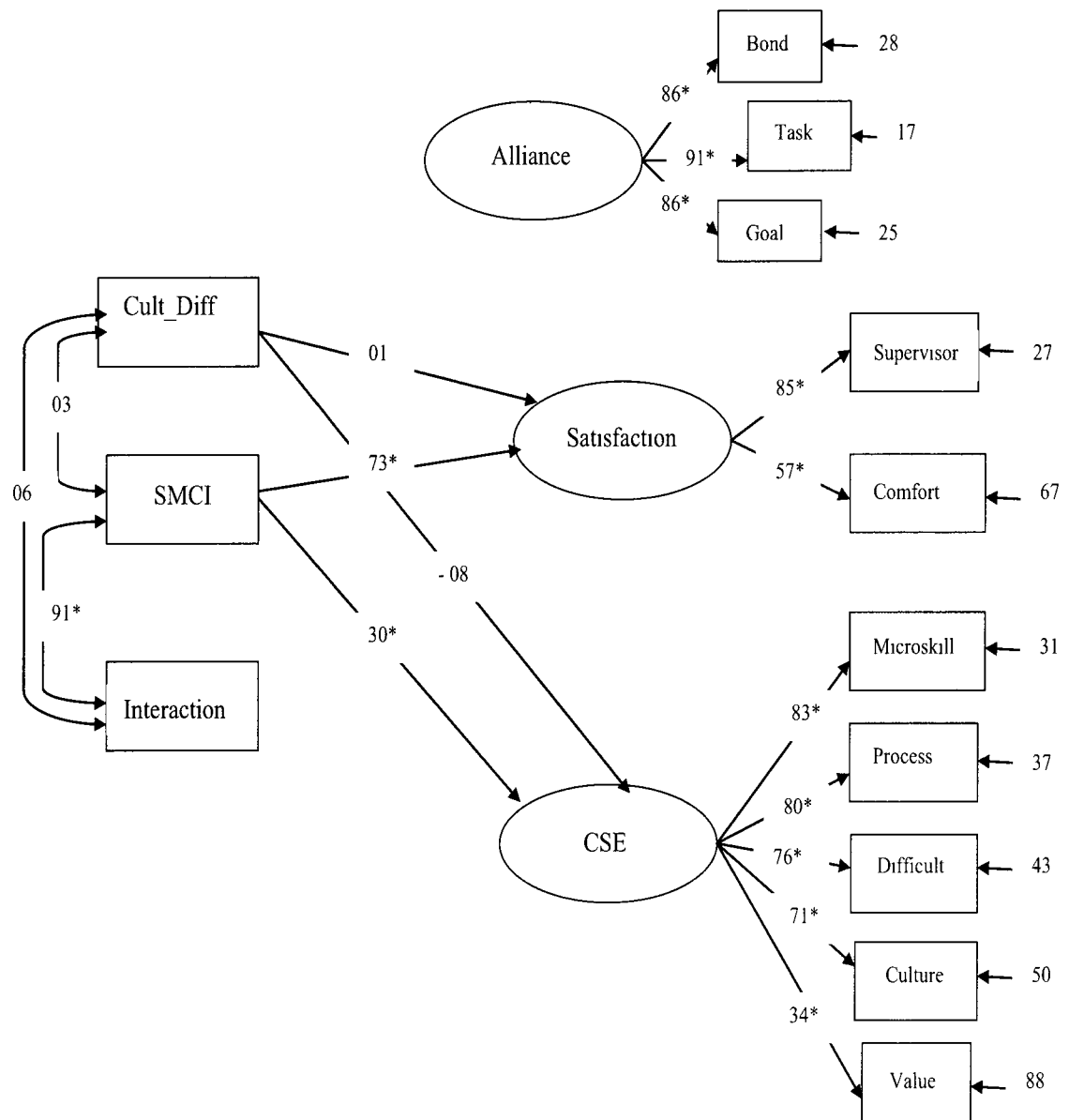


Figure 22. Direct Path Model

* $p > .05$

Table 10

Model Summary for Direct Path Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est/S.E.
Counselor Self-Efficacy by:			
COSE Microskills Subscale	.83*	.33	14.18
COSE Counseling Process Subscale	.80*	.44	12.4
COSE Difficult Client Behaviors Subscale	.76*	.31	11.73
COSE Cultural Competence Subscale	.71*	.18	10.81
COSE Counselor Values/Biases Subscale	.34*	.15	4.8
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision by:			
TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor Subscale	.85*	.20	13.07
TPRS-R Level of Comfort Subscale	.57*	.24	6.94
Counselor Self-Efficacy on:			
Supervisor-supervisee Cultural Differences	-.08	.07	-1.16
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.30*	.00	4.23
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision on:			
Supervisor-supervisee Cultural Differences	.01	.06	0.17
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.73*	.00	11.77

* $p < .05$

Results indicated the direct path structural model, which estimated the direct paths from supervisor-supervisee cultural difference to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE, and from supervisor multicultural competence to supervisee satisfaction with

supervision and CSE, was a poor fit to the data [$\chi^2(61) = 268.66, p < .05$; RMSEA = .124; CFI = .87; PNFI = .67].

Hypothesis 1a, which stated that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences would have a direct, negative effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision, was not supported. The direct path between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee CSE was negative, but not significant ($\beta = -.08, t = -1.16, ns$). The direct path between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisee satisfaction with supervision was also not significant ($\beta = .01, ns$). Hypothesis 1b, which stated that supervisor multicultural competence would have a direct, positive effect on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision was supported. As predicted, supervisors who demonstrate higher levels of multicultural competence positively impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision ($\beta = .73, t = 11.77, p < .05$) and CSE ($\beta = .30, t = 4.23, p < .05$). Together, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence accounted for approximately 53% of the variance in supervisee satisfaction with supervision and 9.4% of the variance in supervisee CSE.

Mediation model. The mediation structural model was designed to test Hypothesis 2a and 2b. Hypothesis 2a stated that the effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision would be mediated by the supervisory working alliance. Hypothesis 2b stated that the effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision would be mediated by the supervisory working alliance. To test these two hypotheses, both the direct and indirect paths between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence,

supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE were analyzed in the mediation model. The direct and indirect paths from the interaction variable to the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and CSE were constrained (Figure 22). Table 11 provides a summary of the mediated structural model.

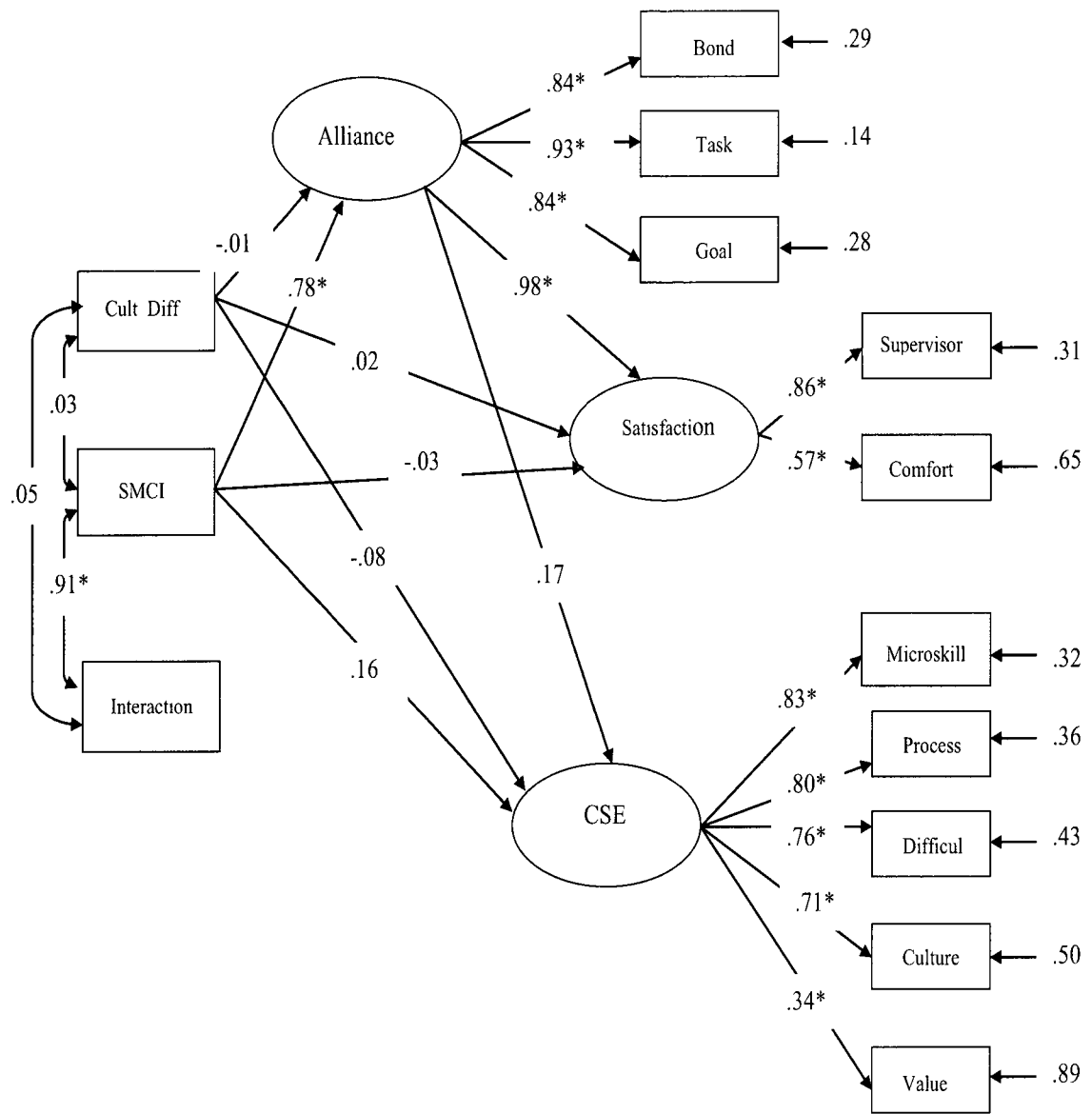


Figure 23. Mediated Model

* $p < .05$

Table 11

Model Summary for Mediation Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est/S.E.
Counselor Self-Efficacy on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	-.08	.07	-1.15
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.16	.00	1.38
Supervisory Working Alliance	.17	.12	1.42
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	.02	.05	0.38
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	-.03	.00	-0.32
Supervisory Working Alliance	.98*	.10	9.71
Supervisory Working Alliance on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	-.01	.05	-0.14
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.78*	.00	13.88

* $p < .05$

The chi-square test for the mediation model was significant [$\chi^2(57) = 113.62, p < .05$], but was a better fit to the data than the direct path model. Other fit indices (RMSEA = .067; CFI = .98) indicated the mediation model was a good fit to the data. The second model was also more parsimonious (PNFI = .71) than the direct path model (PNFI = .67).

Hypothesis 2a, which stated that the effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision would be mediated by supervisory working alliance, was not supported. The direct path

between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisory working alliance was not significant ($\beta = -.01$, $t = -0.14$, *ns*). In order to establish mediation, the exogenous variable, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, needed to be significantly correlated with the endogenous mediating variable, supervisory working alliance (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Judd & Kenny, 1981). Additionally, the relationships between the exogenous variable, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction and CSE also needed to be significantly correlated (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Judd & Kenny, 1981).

Hypothesis 2b, which stated that the effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision would be mediated by supervisory working alliance was partially supported. The path from supervisor multicultural competence to the supervisory working alliance was significant ($\beta = .78$, $t = 13.88$, $p < .05$), as was the path from supervisory working alliance to supervisee satisfaction with supervision ($\beta = .98$, $t = 9.71$, $p < .05$). In fact, the direct path from supervisor multicultural competence to supervisee satisfaction was not significant in the mediator model, as it was in the direct path model. These findings suggest that the supervisory working alliance fully mediates the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. As predicted, supervisees who perceive their supervisors to be multiculturally competent had a stronger working alliance with their supervisors and those with a stronger working alliance were more likely to be satisfied with supervision. The path from the supervisory working alliance to supervisee CSE with supervision was not significant ($\beta = .17$, $t = 1.42$, *ns*), suggesting that the direct relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE is not

mediated by the supervisory working alliance. Together, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence accounted for approximately 61% of the variance in the supervisory working alliance. Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and supervisory working alliance accounted for approximately 92% of the variance in supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Whereas, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and supervisory working alliance only accounted for 11% of the variance in supervisee CSE.

Moderated mediation model. The moderated mediation structural model was designed to test the third and final hypothesis. Hypothesis 3 stated that the indirect effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee CSE and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance is moderated by supervisor multicultural competence. To test this hypothesis, the moderated mediation structural equation model was analyzed (Figure 23). In the moderated mediation model, the direct and indirect paths between the interaction variable, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE were examined. Additionally, the direct and indirect paths from supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE were examined. Table 12 provides a model summary for the moderated mediation structural model.

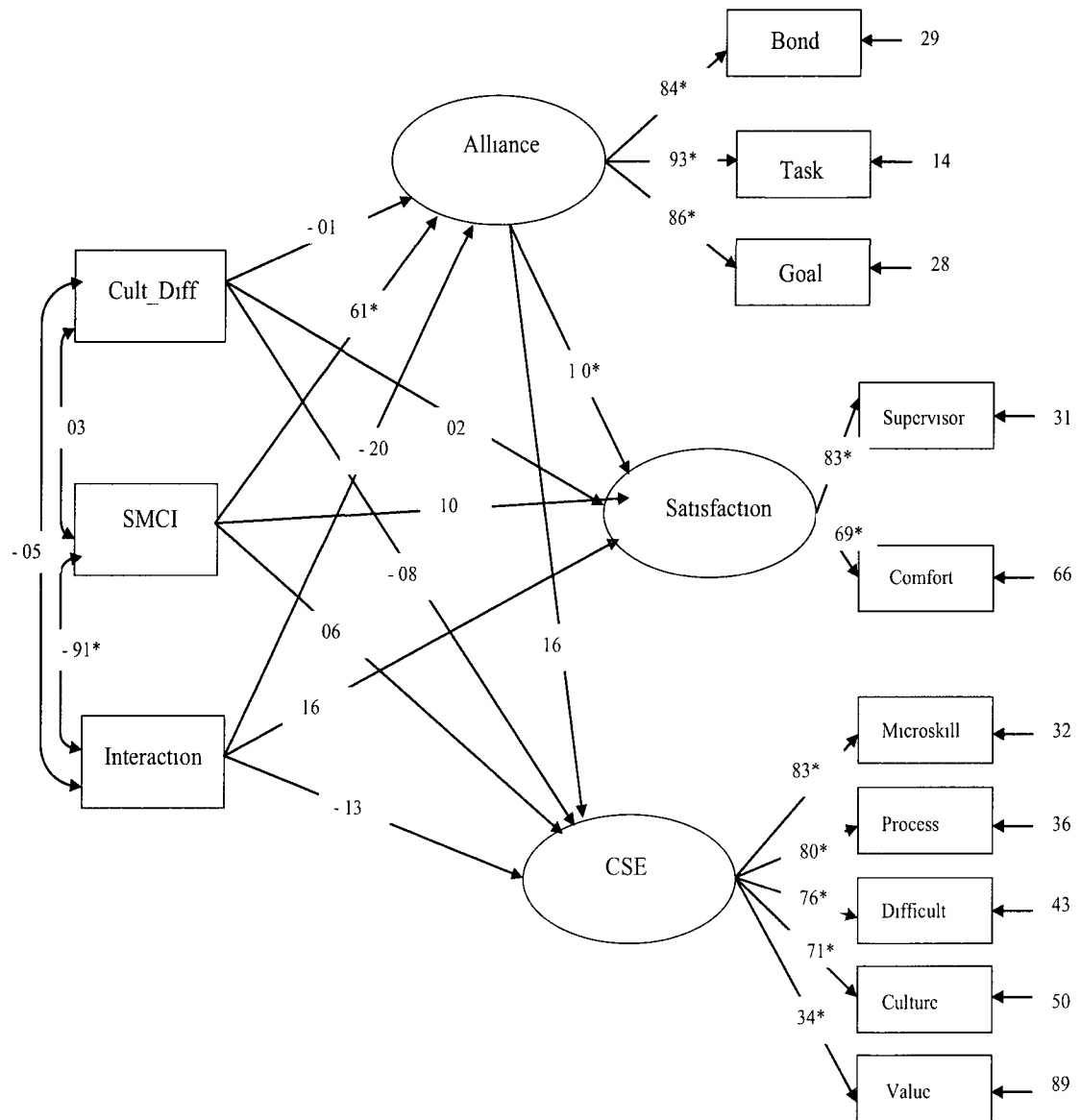


Figure 24 Moderated Mediation Model

* $p < .05$

Table 12

Model Summary for the Moderated Mediation Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est/S.E.
Counselor Self-Efficacy on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	-.08	.07	-1.19
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.05	.01	0.30
Supervisory Working Alliance	.16	.12	1.31
Interaction	-.13	.00	-0.79
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	.02	.05	0.45
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.10	.00	0.81
Supervisory Working Alliance	1.00*	.10	9.74
Interaction	.16	.00	1.36
Supervisory Working Alliance on:			
Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences	-.01	.05	-0.23
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.61*	.00	5.43
Interaction	-.20	.00	-1.79

* $p < .05$

The chi-square test was significant [$\chi^2(54) = 108.16, p < .05$], but other fit indices (RMSEA = .068; CFI = .98) indicated the moderated mediation model was a good fit to the data. The moderated mediation model was least parsimonious model (PNFI = .66 as compared PNFI = .71 for the mediated model and PNFI = .69 for the direct model).

Hypothesis 3, which stated that the indirect effect of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision through the supervisory working alliance would be moderated by supervisor multicultural competence, was not supported. The path from the interaction variable to the supervisory working alliance was not significant ($\beta = -.20, t = -1.79, ns$). The paths from the interaction variable to the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision ($\beta = .16, t = 1.36, ns$) and supervisee CSE ($\beta = -.13, t = -0.79, ns$) were also not significant. This finding is expected given that a moderating effect requires a significant relationship between the exogenous variable and the endogenous, mediating variable, as well as a significant relationship between the exogenous and endogenous variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Similar to the mediation model, the paths from: 1) supervisor multicultural competence to supervisory working alliance ($\beta = .61, t = 5.43, p < .05$) and supervisory working alliance to supervisee satisfaction with supervision ($\beta = 1.00, t = 9.74, p < .05$) were significant. Together, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and the interaction of these two variables accounted for approximately 62% of the variance in the supervisory working alliance. Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the interaction between the two variables, and supervisory working alliance accounted for approximately 93% of the variance in supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Whereas, supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the interaction between the two variables, and supervisory working alliance only accounted for 11% of the variance in supervisee CSE.

Nested model comparisons. The degree of difference between the three nested models was directly tested using the χ^2 difference test. The χ^2 difference between the direct path model and the mediated model was 154.99 with a 4 degrees of freedom. This obtained value was larger than the critical value for χ^2 with 4 degrees of freedom [$\chi^2 (4) = 9.49, p = .05$], meaning that there was a significant difference between the direct path model and the mediated model. The χ^2 difference between the direct path model and the moderated mediation model [$\chi^2 (7) = 160.50$] was also larger than the critical value for χ^2 with 7 degrees of freedom [$\chi^2 (7) = 14.07, p = .05$] and indicated that there was also a significant difference between the direct path model and the moderated mediation model. The presence of a significant difference between the direct model and the mediated model, as well as moderated mediation model indicated that the additional parameters in the mediated and moderated mediation models resulted in a significant increase in model fit.

The χ^2 difference between the mediated model and the moderated mediation model [$\chi^2 (3) = 5.08$] was less than the critical value for χ^2 with 3 degrees of freedom [$\chi^2 (3) = 7.82, p = .05$]. This finding indicated there was not a significant difference between the two models and that the additional parameters in the moderated mediation model did not result in a significant increase in fit. The parsimonious fit indices, PGFI, for the mediated and moderated mediation models supports the results of the χ^2 difference test. This fit index, which adjusts for the known effects of estimating more parameters, was lower for the moderated mediation model (PNFI = .66) when compared to the mediation model (PNFI = .71). These results indicate that the loss of degrees of freedom in the moderated mediation model was not worth the benefit of increasing absolute model fit

through the estimation of additional parameters. Taking into account the χ^2 difference test and the parsimonious fit index, PNFI, the researcher concluded that the mediated model yielded a better fit to the data than the direct path or moderated mediation model.

Model Modification

While the mediated model was determined to be the best fit to the sample data, several paths in the model were not statistically significant. The final stage of SEM analysis, model modification, allowed the researcher to examine model parameters that were not statically significant and consider eliminating them from the model (i.e., theory trimming; Kelloway, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The nonsignificant paths from 1) the supervisory working alliance to supervisee CSE, 2) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to the supervisory working alliance 3) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and 4) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to supervisee CSE were eliminated and, therefore, fixed to 0.00 in the modified mediation model (Figure 24).

To ensure that the elimination of these parameters was theoretically justifiable, the researcher reviewed previous study findings regarding the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE (Meyer et al., 2006). With regard to the direct relationships supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and endogenous variables (i.e., the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, CSE), four recent studies (Bhat & Davis, 2007; Cook & Helms, 1988; Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Harbin et al., 2008) found that actual demographic differences (i.e., race, age, gender, sexual orientation) were not related to the supervisory working alliance,

supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. Instead, these studies found that other factors, such as supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, and racial identity, were predictive of positive supervision outcomes. Given these findings, the researcher determined the elimination of the parameters among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and endogenous variables was supported. Regarding the parameter between the supervisory working alliance and CSE, three (Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Mirgon, 2007) of the five studies that quantitatively examined the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee indicated that the working alliance was not significantly related to supervisee CSE. These findings suggested that the elimination of the parameter between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee CSE from the mediation model was theoretically viable. Table 13 provides a summary of the modified measurement model.

Table 13

Model Summary for the Modified Mediation Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est/S.E.
Counselor Self-Efficacy on:			
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.30*	.00	4.23
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision on:			
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	-.03	.00	-.32
Supervisory Working Alliance	.98*	.10	9.71
Supervisory Working Alliance on:			
Supervisor Multicultural Competence (SMCI)	.78*	.00	13.88

* $p < .05$

Results indicated that the direct path from supervisor multicultural competence to supervisee counseling self-efficacy was significant ($\beta = .30$, $t = 4.23$, $p < .05$; Figure). The parameters from 1) supervisor multicultural competence to the supervisory working alliance ($\beta = .78$, $t = 13.88$, $p < .05$), and 2) the supervisory working alliance to supervisee satisfaction with supervision ($\beta = .98$, $t = 9.71$, $p < .05$) were also significant.

The chi-square test for the modified mediation model was significant [$\chi^2(61) = 117.11$, $p < .05$], but other fit indices (RMSEA = .065; CFI = .98) indicated the modified mediation model was a good fit to the data. The modified mediation model was more parsimonious (PNFI = .75) than the original mediation model (PNFI = .71). The additional fixed parameters in the modified model did not significantly increase model

fit. The χ^2 difference between the modified model and the mediated model [$\chi^2(4) = 3.49$] was less than the critical value for χ^2 with 4 degrees of freedom [$\chi^2(4) = 9.49, p = .05$].

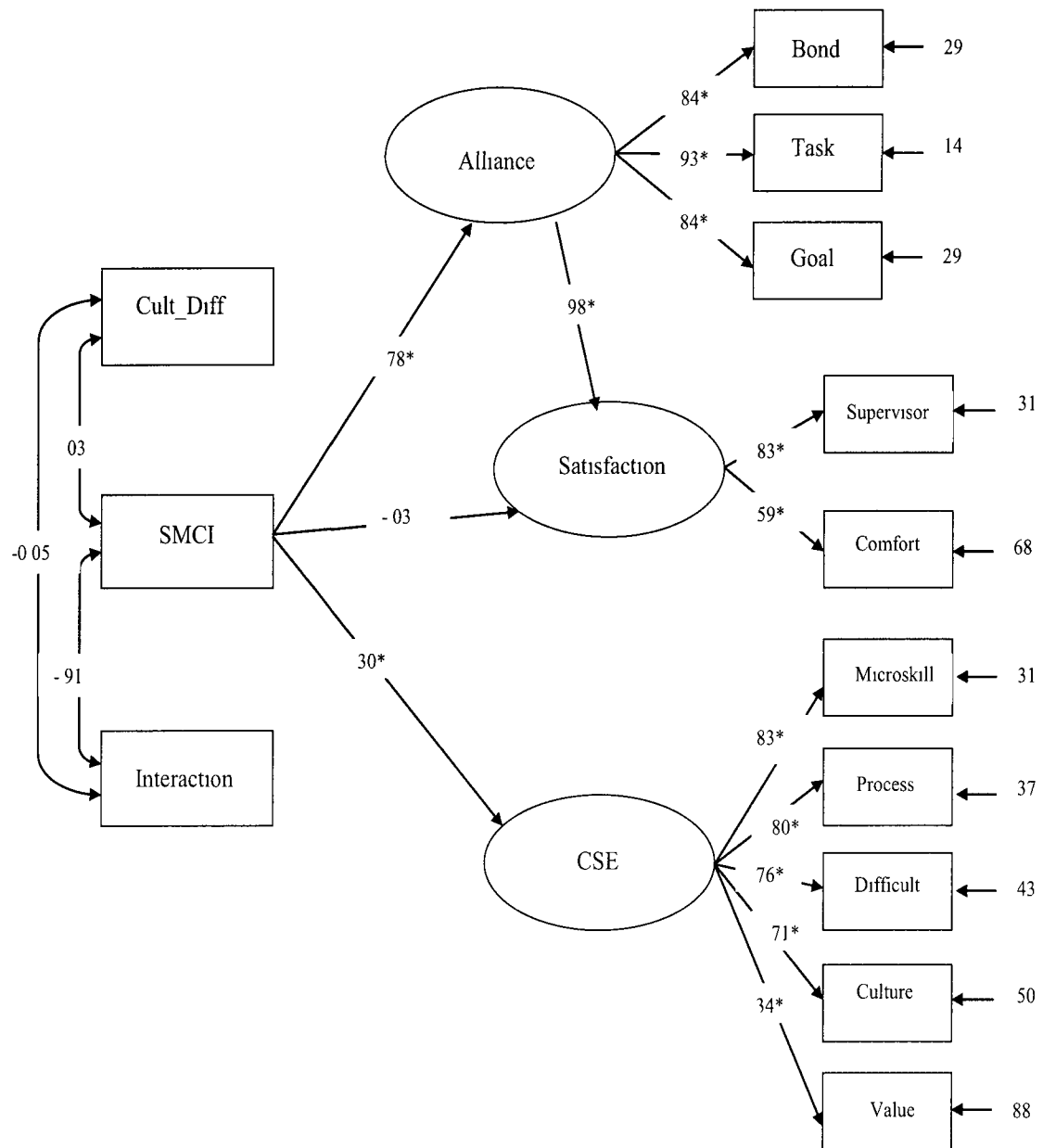


Figure 25. Modified Mediation Model

* $p < .05$

Summary of Findings

The findings from the confirmatory factor analysis conducted on the measurement model revealed that all observed indicators for the three latent variables were significant and loaded in the appropriate direction. However, the relationship between the observed indicator, TPRS-R evaluation of self subscale, and the latent variable, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, was not well accounted for by the model, and the measurement model's fit improved when the TPRS-R evaluation of self indicator was removed. The modified measurement model, which did not include TPRS-R evaluation of self, was then used to analyze the structural model.

SEM analysis yielded several main findings. First, findings indicated that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences was not significantly related to the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. Therefore, differences between the supervisor and supervisee in age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and religious/spiritual orientation did not impact supervisee satisfaction with supervision and level of CSE. Given that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the outcome variables were not related in the structural model, supervisor multicultural competence did not moderate the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on the endogenous outcome variables through the mediating supervisory working alliance. However, a significant, direct relationship did exist between supervisor multicultural competence and the endogenous variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. Meaning that participants, who rated their supervisors as being more multiculturally competent, were more satisfied with supervision and had higher CSE. Findings further indicated that the direct relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and

supervisee satisfaction with supervision was fully mediated by the supervisory working alliance. That is, supervisees who perceived their supervisors to be multiculturally competent reported a strong working alliance with their supervisors and those with a strong working alliance were satisfied with supervision. The relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE was not mediated by the supervisory working alliance. Lastly, the modified mediation model was found to yield the most parsimonious fit to the data.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research study was to test the plausibility of a theoretical, moderated mediation model that conceptually depicted the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee counselor self-efficacy (CSE), and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, the model exerted that supervisees, who are culturally different from their supervisors, would experience a strong supervisory working alliance, be satisfied with supervision, and have high CSE when they perceived their supervisors to be multiculturally competent. A random sample of 2,000 American Counseling Association (ACA) graduate student members were invited to participate in the study and received a link to the Internet-based survey. In total, 221 counseling trainees completed the survey.

The majority of participants identified themselves as White (74%), heterosexual (90%) females (84%) between the ages of 21 and 30 (56%). Most identified as practicing Christians (67%). Participants were primarily master's students (88%) enrolled in a community/mental health (65%) or school (10%) counseling program at the time of the study. All participants were enrolled in a practical experience and worked in a variety of clinical settings: community mental health agencies, public schools, universities or colleges, private practice, residential settings, hospitals, and vocational rehabilitation centers. On average, participants had accrued 100 direct client hours and participated in 14, 60-minute supervision sessions at the time of the study. Participants reported that the majority of their supervisors were also White (80%), heterosexual (87%) females (72%).

The majority of supervisors were older than participants, with 92% of supervisors ranging in age from 31 to 65 years of age. Most participants reported that their supervisors identified as Christian (57%). With regard to supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, most participants (97%) reported differing from their supervisors on one or more cultural variables.

The results of this study indicated that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences were not related to supervision processes and outcomes. In particular, the direct relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and: 1) supervisee satisfaction with supervision 2) supervisee CSE, and 3) the supervisory working alliance were not statistically significant. Accordingly, the supervisory working alliance was not found to mediate the proposed, direct relationship between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the outcome variables. Supervisor multicultural competence also failed to moderate the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences on the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, or CSE. While these results suggest that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee do not impact supervision processes and outcomes, this sample may have lacked the variation needed in the cultural differences variable to detect a statistically significant differences.

The results did demonstrate that supervisor multicultural competence was related to both supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. Meaning, supervisees who perceived their supervisors to be multiculturally competent also reported being highly satisfied with their supervision experiences and having high CSE. The supervisory working alliance was found to fully mediate the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In fact, the

supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision had a nearly deterministic relationship ($\beta = .98, p < .05$). These findings suggest that participants who perceived their supervisors to be multiculturally competent reported a strong working alliance with their supervisors, and this strong working alliance, in turn, determined high supervisee satisfaction with supervision.

The relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE, on the other hand, was not mediated by the supervisory working alliance. When the supervisory working alliance was entered into the model, the direct relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE was no longer statistically significant and the direct relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee CSE was not statistically significant. These findings suggest that supervisor multicultural competence, not the supervisory working alliance, directly influences supervisee CSE.

The mediation model was found to be the most parsimonious fit to the data, when compared to the moderated mediation model and the direct path model. However, several paths in the mediation model were not statistically significant. The researcher modified the mediation model by eliminating the paths that were not statistically significant. The resulting modified mediation model exerted that: 1) supervisor multicultural competence was directly related to supervisee CSE, and 2) the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision was fully mediated by the supervisory working alliance. SEM analysis indicated that the modified mediation model was a good fit to the data and was more parsimonious than the original mediation model. Model modification is, however, considered an exploratory technique and, until

the modified mediation model is cross validated, the modifications made to the model should be interpreted cautiously (Kelloway, 1998).

Relationship of Findings to Prior Studies

As discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, existing empirical evidence does support the hypothesis that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee influence supervision processes and outcomes. Several studies (Adair, 2001; Behling, Curtis, & Foster, 1988; McCarthy, Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen, 2002; Vander Kolk, 1974; Worthington & Stern, 1985) demonstrate that racial, gender, and age differences between a supervisor and supervisee can have a direct and negative impact on the supervisory working alliance, supervisees' perceived counseling competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Adair (2001) found that racial differences between the supervisor and supervisee were related to supervisee dissatisfaction with supervision and distrust of the supervisor. Likewise, researchers (Anderson et al., 2000, Behling, Curtis, & Foster, 1988; McCarthy, Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Worthington & Stern, 1985) found supervisees in cross-gendered supervision dyads were dissatisfied with their supervision experiences and, as a result, preferred to work with a supervisor of the same gender. Lastly, Suzen (2002) found a negative correlation existed between supervisor age and supervisee perceptions of the supervisory bond. As supervisors grew increasingly older than supervisees, supervisees were more likely to rate the supervisory bond lower. The current study, however, provided no evidence to confirm that cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee affected the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision or supervisee CSE.

Instead, the results of this study seem to support several existing studies that suggest actual demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee do not impact supervision processes and outcomes. Bhat and Davis (2007) found that racially matching supervision dyads did not significantly contribute to the strength of the supervisory working alliance and concluded that race alone had little influence over the interpersonal relationship that develops in supervision. Duan and Roehlke (2001) demonstrated that perceived supervisor positive attitudes, rather than supervisor personal characteristics, predicted supervisee satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Harbin et al. (2008) additionally found that decreased supervisee satisfaction with supervision was related to supervisor homonegativism in both matched and cross-matched dyads on sexual orientation. Lastly, Cheon et al.'s (2009) study indicated that supervisor-supervisee degree of match on cultural variables (i.e., age, race, gender, religious affiliation, theoretical orientation, and sexual orientation) did not impact supervisee satisfaction; instead the strength of the supervisory working alliance predicted supervisee satisfaction. The preceding studies, as well as the findings from the current study, suggest that factors other than actual supervisor-supervisee demographic differences may impact supervision outcomes.

This study found that supervisor multicultural competence influenced the supervisory working alliance, satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. These results support past research findings. In particular, supervisees have reported a strong supervisory relationship and high satisfaction with supervision when supervisors were sensitive to cultural issues and able to provide a safe supervision atmosphere with frequent opportunities to discuss cultural differences (Gatmon et al., 2001; Mori et al.,

2009; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006). Several studies also suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is positively related to supervisee counseling self-efficacy and perceived counseling competence (Constantine, 2001; Ladany et al., 1997; Vereen et al., 2008).

Two studies, to date, propose that the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision is actually mediated by the supervisory working alliance. Burkard et al. (2006) found that supervisor multicultural competence positively impacted the supervisory working alliance, and the supervisory working alliance, in turn, positively influenced supervisees' reported satisfaction with supervision. Inman (2006), who used SEM to statistically test the relationships among supervisor multicultural competence and supervision outcome variables, found: 1) supervisor multicultural competence was directly related to the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee multicultural case conceptualization ability, and 2) the supervisory working alliance partially mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The current study also provided empirical support for the supervisory working alliance as a mediator for the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Unlike Inman's findings, this study indicates the supervisory working alliance fully mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and satisfaction with supervision.

It is also worth noting that the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision was nearly deterministic ($\beta = .98$, $p < .05$) in the current study. The correlation between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction was also high in Inman's study ($\beta = .86$, $p < .05$), but not

deterministic. Additional studies have also found that the supervisory working alliance is highly related to, but does not determine, supervisee satisfaction with supervision (Cheon et al., 2009; Ladany et al., 1999; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002). Unlike the current study, researchers (Cheon et al., 2009; Inman, 2006; Ladany et al., 1999; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002) used the full-length WAI-T (Bahrnick, 1990) to measure the supervisory working alliance and a variety of instruments to measure supervisee satisfaction with supervision including: 1) the Supervision Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ; Ladany et al., 1996; used by Inman, 2006), 2) Relationship Questionnaire (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; used by Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002), 3) Supervision Outcomes Survey (SOS ; Worthen, & Dougherty, 2000; used by Cheon et al., 2009). Additionally, Cheon et al., 2009 and Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002 did not conduct SEM to examine the relationships among their study variables. The use of different instruments to measure the same constructs and diverse statistical procedures may account for the disparity in the strength of the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Only the current study, to date, has examined the relationship between the WAI-S and the TPRS-R using structural equation modeling techniques.

Lastly, the current study found that the supervisory working alliance did not mediate the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee CSE, as the supervisory working alliance was not significantly related supervisee CSE. Three (Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Migron, 2007) previous studies examining supervisee CSE and the supervisory working alliance also found that no statistically significant relationship existed between these variables, while two studies (Humedman, 2002; Ting, 2009) reported that the supervisory working alliance predicted supervisee

CSE. Undoubtedly, the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee CSE is unclear in the extant literature, but this study contributes to the mounting empirical evidence that exerts no relationship exists between the two variables.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of this study. These limitations are related to internal and external validity threats. Internal validity threats are related to internal validity (i.e., the extent to which we can accurately state that the independent variable produced the observed effect) and arise when experimental procedures, treatments, or participant experiences interfere with the researcher's ability to draw accurate inferences from the data regarding the causal relationships between variables (Creswell, 2009). Typically these threats are related to history, maturation, regression to the mean, selection, mortality, diffusion of treatment, and instrumentation. External validity threats are related to external validity (i.e., the extent to which study findings are generalizable across populations, tasks, and settings/environments) and occur when the researcher incorrectly generalizes findings from the sample data to other populations, or settings (Creswell, 2009). Threats to external validity are typically the result of participant characteristics, the uniqueness of the setting, or the timing of data collection, and include interaction of selection and treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, and interaction of history and treatment.

Selection Bias

To reduce the occurrence of a sampling threat, a random sample of potential participants was initially solicited. The use of a survey design methodology, however, relied on the use of volunteer participants and those who elected to complete the survey

packet may have done so based on personal interest in the study topic or counseling research in general. As a result, they may not have been representative of the general population. Additionally, all participants invited to participate in the study were members of the American Counseling Association and, as a result of their membership, they may have similar characteristics that prevent the generalizability of the results to broader populations of counselors.

The majority of participants were White (74.7%), heterosexual (90.5%) females (83.7%) between the ages of 21 and 30 (56%). Most identified as practicing Christians (67%). Participants reported that the majority of their supervisors were also white (79.5%), heterosexual (87.3%) females (71.9%). The majority of supervisors were older than participants, with 92% of supervisors ranging in age from 31 to 65 years of age. Most participants reported that their supervisors identified as Christian (57%). Therefore, it is difficult to generalize these results to individuals who do not resemble the participants and supervisors demographically. It is, however, worth noting that the demographic characteristics of participants and supervisors in this study are similar to the demographic characteristics of ACA members in general. In particular, the majority of ACA members are White (82.1%), females (78.5%), with nearly a quarter of members being between 20 and 29 years old and 26% being between 50 and 59 years old (Neukrug, McBride, & Neuer, 2010).

It is furthermore important to note that participants in this study generally reported: 1) they differed from their supervisor on two or three cultural variables 2) their current supervisors were multiculturally competent; 3) they had a very strong emotional bond with their current supervisor, as well as high agreement on the tasks and goals of

supervision; 4) they were highly satisfied with their supervision experience; and 5) they had moderate to high CSE. As a result, the results of this study may not be generalizable to supervisees who perceive their supervisors to lack multicultural competence, view the supervisory working alliance as weak, are not satisfied with their supervision experience, and/or have low CSE.

Response Rate

To be eligible to participate in the study, participants had to meet three selection criteria: 1) be enrolled in a practicum or internship experience at the time of the study, 2) accrued at least 10 direct client hours, and 3) be receiving one hour of individual supervision per week during the semester in which they participate. The randomly generated list of potential participants generated by ACA, however, included graduate student members who may or may not have met the above selection criteria. This made it impossible to determine how many of the 2,000 potential participants, who received an electronic invitation with the survey link, met the criteria to participate. In total, 1,966 emails invitations with a survey link were sent and 34 emails were undeliverable; 386 participants responded to the survey (271 met the selection criteria and 115 did not), and 117 individuals emailed the researcher during the data collection period to be removed from the participant list as they were not currently receiving supervision. While, approximately 25% ($n = 503$) of potential participants responded to the electronic invitation, it is unknown whether the remaining 75% of potential participants were unqualified or chose not to participate in the survey. As a result, the response rate, the percentage of respondents returning the survey, for this study was unknown. The

researcher's inability to calculate a response rate meant that the study results may not be accurate, or representative of the target population (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009).

Reliance on Self-Report Data and Social Desirability

All data collected for this study relied on participant self-report, and assumed self-assessments were consistent with actual behavior. The instruments used in this study (i.e., SMCI, WAI-S, COSE, TPRS-R) assessed participants' perception of their supervisor's level of multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, satisfaction with supervision, and CSE; and, as a result, were particularly vulnerable to bias. Participants may have provided socially desirable responses, wishing to present themselves and their supervisors in a more favorable light, rather than reporting their true feelings or beliefs. Due to the inherent power differential inherent in supervision, participants may have also inflated their ratings of supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, satisfaction with supervision, and CSE. That is, participants may have rated: 1) their supervisors as being more multicultural competent than they were, 2) the supervisory working alliance as higher than it actually was, 3) their own satisfaction with supervision and CSE as being higher than they actually were.

The study asked participants to provide information related to their supervisors' demographic characteristics (i.e., age, race, gender, ethnicity, religious/spiritual orientation, and sexual orientation). This may have been difficult for participants to provide, given that over half of participants (57.9%) indicated that their supervisor had not disclosed information regarding their age, gender, race, sexual orientation, or spiritual orientation to participants. In fact, 13.8% of participants did not indicate their supervisor's religious/spiritual orientation and 24% did not provide their supervisor's

degree of practice. Relying on participants to report supervisor demographic information may have led inaccurate findings regarding the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the study's outcome variables.

Instrumentation

The instruments (i.e., SMCI, WAI-SF, TPRS-R, COSE) used in this study demonstrated some degree of reliability and validity. There were, however, a few concerns regarding instrumentation that could have affected the accuracy and generalizability of the results. The SMCI was used to assess participant perception of supervisor multicultural competence. While the validity and reliability of this instrument has been established (i.e., Inman, 2005), it is important to note that the relationship between measures that assess perceived multicultural competence and actual multicultural competence is questionable (Constantine & Ladany, 2000). This makes it difficult to determine if participant estimates accurately reflect their supervisor's actual level of multicultural competence, and how this discrepancy impacted the study's findings.

In the current study the COSE subscale, counselor value and biases, was found to have minimal reliability ($\alpha = .19$). The strength of this reported Cronbach's alpha was not adequate in light of the subscale item count ($n = 4$) and the current study's sample size ($n = 221$; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). As a result, the counselor value and biases subscale may not have been a consistent and accurate measure of supervisee CSE. This may have impacted the model's ability to accurately estimate the relationships among the latent variable, CSE, and the other study variables.

TPRS-R was used to assess participant satisfaction with supervision and the original instrument includes three subscales (i.e., evaluation of the supervisor, evaluation of self, and level of comfort) that measure the latent satisfaction construct. While all three subscales were significantly related to the latent satisfaction construct in the measurement model and loaded in the appropriate direction in the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model, the relationship between the subscale, evaluation of self, and the latent satisfaction construct was not well accounted for by the model. As a result, the evaluation of self subscale was eliminated from the model, and the latent satisfaction constructed was estimated by two of the TPRS-R's subscales (i.e., evaluation of the supervisor and level of comfort). This may have impacted the model's ability to accurately estimate the relationships among the latent variable, satisfaction with supervision, and the other study variables, impacting the generalizability of the results to broader populations. Additionally, participant data on the TPRS-E subscales was highly negatively skewed; even data transformations (i.e., square root, logarithm, and inverse) were not able to induce normality in the distribution. It is possible that the instrument was not capable of discriminating among participant experiences in supervision, and causing the variable, supervisee satisfaction with supervision to be highly correlated ($\beta = .98$, $p < .05$) with the supervisory working alliance. Therefore, the results of this study may be misleading.

Cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee was measured by calculating demographic differences in gender, age, sexual orientation, race/ethnicity, and religion/spiritual orientation between the supervisor and participant. This measure has several limitations, which should be considered when interpreting the study findings.

First, to determine supervisor-supervisee difference in age, participants were asked to indicate both their own and their supervisor's age range. Participants were provided 10 possible age ranges, starting with 20 and ending at over 65. Ranges were based on 5 year increments (e.g., 21-24, 25-29, 30-34) and those who placed their supervisor in a different age range than their own received a score of "1" on the age item. Consequently, participants' score on the age item may have exaggerated the actual age difference between supervisees and supervisors, whose age fell at the beginning or end of a range. For example, a 24-year-old supervisee and a 25-year-old supervisor may have received a score of one on the age item because their ages fell into two separate categories. A second concern involved the large number of data missing on the supervisor religious/spiritual orientation item and the supervisor degree of practice item. Nearly 14% of participants did not identify their supervisor's religious/spiritual orientation, as a result a modal imputation procedure was used to replace missing values on this item. Additionally, 24.3% of participants did not indicate the supervisor's degree of religious/spiritual practice, accordingly the item was eliminated from the calculation of the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable. The inaccuracy of the age item, the imputation of value on the religious/spiritual orientation item, and the elimination of the degree of practice value may have impacted the researcher's ability to accurately calculate the demographic differences between supervisors and supervisees. This may have partially contributed to the researcher not finding the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and other supervision outcomes to be statistically significant. Lastly, it is important to consider that demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee alone may not be a valid measure of supervisor-

supervisee cultural differences. Cultural differences describe both physical characteristics and socially transmitted behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values (Pope-Davis & Coleman, 1997). This study assumed that differences in physical characteristics would also reflect differences in behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values; this may not have been the case.

Implications for Supervisors

The results of this study indicated that supervisor multicultural competence impacts the strength of the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and supervisee CSE. As a result, implications regarding supervisor multicultural competence are warranted. Past studies (Constantine; 1997; Gloria et al., 2008; Hird et al., 2006) have suggested that supervisors seem to lack multicultural competence. In particular, these studies found: 1) supervisors have less cultural knowledge than their supervisees, 2) supervisors spend little time in supervision addressing multicultural concerns, and 3) supervisors report they believe it is not important to discuss multicultural issues in supervision, or give little thought to multicultural issues. While supervisors appear to lack multicultural competence, this study's findings, as well as the extant literature, suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is central to positive supervision outcomes. Therefore, it is imperative for supervisors to demonstrate multicultural competence during their supervision sessions.

Supervisors can increase their multicultural competence by: 1) having awareness of their own assumptions and biases about human behaviors, 2) understanding and respecting the unique worldviews of culturally diverse supervisees and the clients, and 3) developing and implementing techniques and intervention strategies that are appropriate for culturally diverse supervisees and clients (Sue et al., 1992; Hird et al., 2006). In

particular, supervisors should demonstrate awareness, knowledge, and skills across five specific dimensions that include supervisor and supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Inman, 2006). In order to increase their awareness, knowledge, and skills, supervisors may wish to:

- attend professional development workshops that address issues concerning multicultural counseling and supervision;
- actively seeking consultation from “cultural ambassadors” (D’Angela & Daniels, 1997, p. 306), who are acknowledged role models in the local community;
- clarify the strength and weakness of one’s own counseling and supervision approaches to a supervisee when providing supervision services (D’Andrea & Daniels, 1997).

Gloria et al. (2008) also suggested that multicultural competence appeared to develop as supervisors gained experience in providing multicultural supervision. Therefore, it may be beneficial for supervisors to seek out opportunities to provide multicultural supervision to culturally diverse trainees.

In addition to demonstrating multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills, multiculturally competent supervisors should openly discuss multicultural issues in supervision. Supervisors should consider demonstrating a willingness to recognize and discuss the cultural differences present in the supervisory relationship (Constantine, 1997; Hird et al., 2006). It may also be beneficial for supervisors to initiate the discussion of cultural differences, instead of relying on the supervisees to address cultural issues (Nilsson & Dodds, 2006). In culturally diverse supervisory dyads, supervisors

view the discussion of cultural issues as more salient than supervisors in supervisory dyads, where both the supervisor and supervisee are members of the dominant culture (Hird et al., 2006). This study's findings, however, suggest that supervisor multicultural competence and the discussion of cultural issues is equally as salient in culturally similar dyads. As a result, it may be beneficial for supervisors to address cultural issues in supervision regardless of the supervisee's cultural background. Lastly, it is important for supervisors to address the cultural differences between the supervisee and client. Supervisors can facilitate discussions with the supervisee that explore how cultural issues impact the therapeutic alliance and the supervisee's own level of multicultural competence. Lastly, supervisors can assist supervisees with focusing on multicultural issues in their client case conceptualizations (Ladany et al., 1997).

In addition to demonstrating multicultural competence, the results of this study suggest that supervisors focus on building a strong supervisory working alliance to facilitate positive supervision outcomes. Supervisors may wish to negotiate the goals and tasks of supervision with the supervisee. It may be helpful for the supervisor to initiate a discussion at the beginning of the supervision process regarding: 1) what the supervisees hopes to gain from the supervision process, and 2) what tasks (e.g., transcripts, video recordings, direct observation, case conceptualizations) need to be completed in the supervision process to reach the supervisee's goals (Bordin, 1983). Supervisors should also consider building a working relationship with their supervisees that promotes trust, mutual respect, and open, honest communication. Given that the working alliance is dynamic in nature (Bordin, 1983), the supervisor may wish to periodically discuss the supervisee's progress in supervision and be willing to renegotiate the goals and tasks of

supervision if needed. By demonstrating multicultural competence and building a strong working relationship with supervisees, supervisors can increase the supervisee's level of comfort with expressing ideas in supervision, promote supervisee positive reactions to the supervisor's personal qualities, and build supervisee confidence in their ability to effectively counsel clients.

Implications for Counselor Educators

This study's findings also have several implications for counselor educators. First, this study's results indicated that supervisor multicultural competence is related to positive supervision outcomes. The extant literature suggests, however, that supervisors in general lack multicultural competence and often do not consider how cultural issues impact the supervisory process (Constantine; 1997; Gloria et al., 2008; Hird et al., 2006). As a result, it may be helpful for counselor educators to provide current and future supervisors with multicultural competence training. Counselor educators can integrate information on multicultural competence into existing supervision courses by: 1) discussing the cultural issues present in the supervisory relationship, 2) providing information on culturally diverse populations, 3) creating assignments that promote supervisor awareness of personal biases and assumptions, and 4) teaching students to build a strong supervisory relationship that is comprised of trust, respect, and open communication. Counselor educators may also wish to offer trainings to site supervisors in the community that provide information on multicultural competence and addressing cultural issues within the supervisory context.

Although this study and the extant literature suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is important in facilitating positive supervision outcomes, to date no unifying

definition or set of standards for supervisor multicultural competence has been adopted by ACA or ACES. Counselor educators may consider partnering with practicing supervisors in the community to work towards developing a standardized set of multicultural competencies for supervisors to use in their work with supervisees. These standards may wish to address the knowledge and skills supervisors will need acquire and implement in supervision when working with culturally diverse supervisees and their clients, as well as the specific behaviors multicultural competence supervisors demonstrate in supervision.

Implications for Future Research

To further explore the role of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence in positive supervision outcomes, future supervision researchers should seek to cross validate the modified mediation model proposed by this study. The modified mediation model, while grounded in the extant literature, is an exploratory model and needs to be substantiated using different samples of counselor trainees. Additionally, the researcher asked participants of this study to provide their supervisor's demographic information, as well as their perception of the supervisor's multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance. Future supervision researchers should collect perspectives regarding supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance, as well as demographic information from both supervisee and supervisor. Such research may be valuable to the counseling field because supervisors and supervisees are likely to have different perspectives that need to be heard and incorporated into the models that we use to train future supervisors.

Future studies should consider using larger sample sizes of counselor trainees. Perhaps these larger sample sizes would allow for increased participant diversity. In the current study, minority participants only comprised: 1) 26% of the race/ethnicity cultural variable, 2) 16.8% of the gender variable, 3) 8.6% of the sexual orientation variable, and 30.7% of the religious/spiritual orientation variable. Likewise, minority supervisors, as reported by participants only comprised: 1) 19.9% of the race/ethnicity cultural variable, 2) 27.6% of the gender variable, 3) 8.6% of the sexual orientation variable, and 4) 28.8% of the religious/spiritual orientation variable. In addition to quantitative research with large sample sizes, there is a simultaneous need for qualitative research that gives voice to the individual perspectives of supervisors and supervisees, and captures the subtleties multicultural supervision. Future researchers may also consider developing an instrument that quantitatively measures more than the demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee to assesses degree of cultural difference. Perhaps the instrument could include culturally transmitted behaviors, beliefs, and values in addition to demographic characteristics. Qualitative studies regarding cultural differences and multicultural competence in supervision may also yield valuable information for developing a valid measure.

The current study examined how supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence impact the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. It will be important that future research considers how supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence influences supervisees' skill development, ability to conceptualize client cases, and overall development as a counselor. Additionally, it is

important that researchers examine the impact of supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance on the therapeutic alliance and client treatment outcomes.

Conclusions

This study sought to test the plausibility of a theoretical, moderated mediation model concerning the influence of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence on supervision outcomes. The relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE were explored. Cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee were not found to impact the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, or supervisee CSE. Supervisor multicultural competence, however, was significantly related to the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, or supervisee CSE, with the supervisory working alliance mediating the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. As a result the modified mediation model was found to be the best fit to the data.

This model demonstrates that supervisor multicultural competence, not demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee, affect supervision outcomes. In particular, supervisors who demonstrate multicultural competence by respecting supervisee/client cultural differences and facilitate discussions of cultural issues in supervision, build supervisee confidence in their ability to effectively counsel clients and contribute to the development of a strong supervisory working alliance. And,

as supervisees perceive a supervisory working alliance that characterized by mutual agreement on the goals and tasks, trust, support, and open communication, they become more comfortable with expressing ideas in supervision and perceive their supervisors' personal qualities and performance more positively. Although the findings and the modified mediation model developed in this study are preliminary, with continued cross-validation studies, this model has the potential to serve as a framework for training multiculturally competent supervisors.

CHAPTER SIX**MANUSCRIPT**

The Influence of Cultural Difference, Supervisor Multicultural Competence, and the
Supervisory Working Alliance on Supervision Outcomes

To be submitted to

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Abstract

This study investigated the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, supervisory working alliance, on supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee counseling self-efficacy (CSE). Structural equation modeling revealed that supervisor multicultural competence was positively related to the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and CSE. Results further suggested that the supervisory working alliance fully mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Supervisor- supervisee cultural differences were not significantly related to the supervision outcome variables, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE.

The Influence of Cultural Difference, Supervisor Multicultural Competence, and the Supervisory Working Alliance on Supervision Outcomes

The 21st century has ushered in an era of extraordinary cultural diversity across the United States, with the U.S. Census Bureau reporting that a third of the total U.S. population is comprised of racial minorities. Changes in the U.S. demographic have also been documented in terms of age and religious orientation (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). With the population growing more diverse, a handful of studies have noted that the presence of racial, gender, and age differences in supervision are related to minority supervisee discrimination, feelings of disempowerment, low self-efficacy, and decreased satisfaction with supervision (Granello, 2003; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen, 2002; Vander Kolk, 1974). Despite these findings, research in clinical supervision has largely ignored the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence on supervision outcomes. Accordingly, this study examines the influence of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence on supervision outcomes.

Supervision Outcomes

Clinical supervision is the principle method used in counselor education programs to prepare students to provide effective counseling services. One of supervision's primary purposes is to enhance supervisee professional functioning and counseling self efficacy (CSE; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Larson & Daniels, 1998). CSE is defined as "one's [subjective] beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future" (Larson & Daniels, 1998, p. 180), and is the primary mechanism through which effective counseling occurs. CES, while not equivalent to competence, is

often a desired outcome of supervision as it is related to increased motivation and persistence to complete a task (Bandura, 1977), resulting in higher performance attainment, decreased counselor anxiety, and increased receptivity to constructive feedback (Larson & Daniels, 1998).

Counselor's perceived satisfaction with supervision is also an important outcome of clinical supervision. Supervision satisfaction refers to the supervisee's perception of the quality of supervision based on supervisor personal qualities, supervisor competence, and trainee comfort with expressing ideas in supervision (Holloway & Wampold, 1984). Supervisees who are satisfied with supervision are motivated and willing to work hard to achieve supervision goals. (Ladany, Ellis, & Friedlander, 1999), have increased self-confidence (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Ting, 2009), and engage in self-disclosure (Ladany, Hill, Corbett, & Nutt, 1996). Although supervisee counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision are important and desirable outcomes of effective supervision, little is known about how the presence of cultural differences in supervision impacts these outcomes.

Supervisor-Supervisee Cultural Differences

The term cultural difference is used to describe the physical characteristics and socially transmitted behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values that distinguish one group of people from another (Pope-Davis & Coleman, 1997). Cultural differences manifest through the expression of several characteristics (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, age, religion) that define individual identity (Robinson & Howard-Hamilton, 2000). Existing research regarding cultural differences in supervision suggest the presence of racial, gender, and age differences in supervision may have a direct, negative

impact on supervisee functioning. Vander Kolk (1974) found Black supervisees were more likely than White supervisees to anticipate their White supervisors would lack empathy, respect, and congruence. Subsequent studies also concluded that supervisees belonging to a racial minority group experienced discrimination, felt disempowered, were uncomfortable, less satisfied, and expected more problems than benefits in cross-racial supervision (Burkard, Knox, Hess, & Schultz, 2006; Cook & Helms, 1988; Hird, Cavalieri, Dulko, Felice, & Ho, 2001). Researchers have also reported that female trainees are often disempowered in supervision as supervisors may not support female supervisee attempts to assume an expert role and rate female supervisees lower with regard to their clinical skills (Chung, Marshall, & Gordon, 2001; Granello, 2003; Nelson & Holloway, 1990). Lastly, Suzen (2002) found that differences in supervisor and supervisee age negatively impact the supervisor's perception of supervisee competence and the supervisory working alliance, decreasing supervisee feelings of trust, liking, and caring for their supervisor.

Other researchers suggest, however, that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences alone do not account for supervisees' experiences in supervision. In fact, supervisor level of support and positive attitudes (e.g., expressing interest in and respect for supervisee cultural background), not supervisor race, has been found to predict a stronger working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision in matched and cross-racial dyads (Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Hilton, Russell, & Salmi, 1995). Studies further demonstrate that supervisors who are biased against LGB individuals, pathologize LGB concerns, or unresponsive to LGB concerns negatively impacted the supervisory relationship and decreased supervisee satisfaction with supervision in both matched and

cross-matched dyads on sexual orientation (Burkard et al., 2009; Harbin, Leach, & Eells, 2008). These studies suggest the supervisor attitudes and degree of support, not differences in race, age, gender, and sexual orientation, impact the SWA, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE.

Supervisor Multicultural Competence

Multicultural competence involves awareness of personal assumptions and biases about human behavior, knowledge of cultural groups, and having the skills needed to work with persons from culturally diverse backgrounds (Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). Multiculturally competent supervisors, therefore, are able to work with culturally diverse supervisees and their clients, possessing awareness, knowledge, and skills across five specific dimensions: supervisor and supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Inman, 2006). Supervisors demonstrating multicultural competence also demonstrate cultural self-awareness, recognize how cultural differences impact supervision, openly engage in discussions regarding cultural issues, and implement strategies that facilitate supervisee cultural competence (Constantine, 1997; Ober, Granello, & Henfield, 2009).

Empirical literature regarding supervisor multicultural competence is minimal, but does suggest supervisor level of multicultural competence is directly related to supervision outcomes. Supervisees, who reported their supervisors demonstrated sensitivity to cultural issues and engaged in cultural discussions during supervision, also indicated they had a strong working alliance and were satisfied with supervision (Mori, Inman, & Caskie, 2009; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Walker, Ladany, & Patie-Carolan,

2007). Supervisees also reported increased multicultural competence and CSE when the supervisors openly discussed cultural issues and incorporated cultural factors into client case conceptualizations (Ladany et al., 1997; Vereen, Hill, & McNeal, 2008). Yet, supervisees, who indicated their supervisor lacked cultural knowledge, was non-supportive, and avoided discussions of cultural differences in supervision, reported a weaker working alliance, less self-disclosure, and less satisfaction with supervision (Constantine, 1997)

The Supervisory Working Alliance

Knowledge concerning the working alliance, within the context of supervision, has been provided from the extension of Bordin's (1979) working alliance theory and research on the client-therapist relationship. The supervisory working alliance is thought to be characterized by three factors, agreement on supervision goals, agreement on the supervision tasks need to accomplish the goals, and the emotional bond (Bordin, 1983). A strong supervisory alliance develops when the supervisor and supervisee agree on the goals and tasks of supervision, and are able to establish an emotional bond characterized by trust and mutual respect.

The working alliance has emerged as a central construct in the supervision literature (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009) and several scholars suggest it may serve as a mediator between supervision antecedents (e.g., supervisory style, role conflict and ambiguity) and outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with supervision, CSE, skill development; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Cheon Blumer, Shih, Murphy, and Sato, 2009; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002). Three studies have examined the mediating role of the supervisory working alliance in the relationships among cultural differences in supervision,

supervisor multicultural competence, and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. Cheon et al. (2009) found that cultural similarity between the supervisor and supervisee impacted supervisee satisfaction, but this relationship lost its significance when accounting for the strength of the supervisory working alliance. Cheon et al. concluded that the working alliance appeared to mediate the indirect relationship between cultural similarity and satisfaction. Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002) also found that cultural misunderstandings in supervision led to a weakening of the supervisor alliance. The weakening of the alliance, in turn, decreased trainee satisfaction with supervision. Lastly, Inman (2006) found that supervisor multicultural competence was directly related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and that the working alliance partially mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. To date, no study has examined the supervisory working alliance as a mediator in the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and CSE.

Purpose of the Study

The extant literature provides key insights into the relationships among cultural differences in supervision, supervisor multicultural competence, and supervision outcomes, but fails to: 1) provide a clear understanding of the role of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences in supervision outcomes, 2) adequately address how multiculturally competent supervisors influence supervision outcomes, and 3) explore the supervisory working alliance as a mediator in the relationship between cultural differences and supervision outcomes. The overall purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor

multicultural competence on the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. A structural equation model, the mediated model, was designed to test the following hypotheses: 1) supervisee-supervisor cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence are directly related to the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE; and 2) that the supervisory working alliance mediates the direct relationships among supervisee-supervisor cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE (See Figure 1).

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from a national sample of counseling students enrolled in master's and doctoral level counseling programs. Participants were solicited from a randomly generated list of 2,000 American Counseling Association's (ACA) graduate student members. To participate, students needed to: 1) be enrolled in a counseling practicum or internship experience, 2) accrued at least 10 direct client hours, and 3) be receiving of at least one hour of individual supervision per week during the semester in which they completed the survey packet.

Following institutional review board approval (IRB), all 2,000 potential participants were sent an electronic invitation to participate and a link to the Internet-based survey. The survey's introductory section contained a study description, informed consent, and IRB approval information. Participants were informed of the anonymous nature of the study and that they could withdraw from participation at any time without consequence. The main section included, in random order, the demographic questionnaire, the Supervisor

Multicultural Competence Inventory, Working Alliance Inventory-Sort Form, Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory, and Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised. A follow up email was sent to all non-respondents two weeks after the initial invitation. A total of 221 participants completed the survey, yielding more than the minimum number of participants ($n = 200$) needed to sufficiently estimate SEM model parameters and assess model fit (Kelloway, 1998; Schumauker & Lomax, 2004).

Study participants included 185 females, 36 males, and 1 transgender individual; 201 reported being heterosexual, 11 were gay/lesbian, 8 were bisexual, and one was questioning. Two participants did not report their gender. For race/ethnicity, 165 identified as White, 25 as African American, 12 as Hispanic, 4 as Native American, 2 as Asian American, 6 as biracial/multiracial, and 7 identified as other; two participants did not specify their race/ethnicity. Most participants (57%) ranged from 21 to 30 years of age, 20% from 31 to 40 years of age, 19% from 41 to 55 years of age, and 4% were over age 55. One hundred and fifty participants were Christian, 28 agnostic, 7 Buddhist, 3 Jewish, 1 Muslim, and 30 identified as other (e.g., spiritual, Atheist, Unitarian, Wiccan, Sikh, and Shinto). Half of all participants were enrolled in a master's level internship ($n=112$); 76 in a master's level practicum, 12 in a doctoral level practicum, 4 in a doctoral internship, and 17 reported being in other practical experiences (e.g., Ed.S. level internship). They worked in the following clinical settings: community mental health agency (36.7%), school (12.7%), university or college (12.2%), private practice (9.5%), residential (6.3%), hospital (5%), vocational rehabilitation (1.8%), and other (12.7%; e.g., a crisis center, non-profit company, veteran's health administration). Seven participants did not provide information regarding

their clinical setting. Participants saw an average of 11 clients per week ($SD = 9.70$; range = 1-60) and had accrued between 15 and 460 direct client hours at the time of the study ($M = 105.16$; $SD = 97.70$). The average number of reported supervision sessions to date was 13.76 ($SD = 10.48$; range = 8-90), with session length ranging from 6 to 180 minutes ($M = 65.73$; $SD = 25.28$).

Supervisors, as reported by study participants, included 159 females and 61 males; 192 were heterosexual, 6 were gay/lesbian, 1 was bisexual, and 13 were other. Nine participants did not report supervisor sexual orientation. One hundred and seventy eight supervisors were White, 24 were African American, 6 were Hispanic, 6 were Biracial, 3 were Asian American, 3 were Native American, and 2 were other. Most participants (47%) ranged from 41 to 55 years of age, 6% from 21 to 30 years of age, 26% from 31 to 40 years of age, and 21% were over age 55. One hundred and twenty seven supervisors were Christian, 5 were agnostic, 3 were Buddhist, 3 were Jewish, 54 were other, and 30 did not provide a response.

Instrumentation

Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI; Inman, 2005). The SMCI is a 34-item self-report measure designed to assess perceived supervisor multicultural competence in supervision. Inventory items focus on five dimensions: supervisor-supervisee personal development, case conceptualization, interventions, process, and outcome/evaluations. For each item, participants are instructed to rate their perceptions of supervisor multicultural competence on a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from *never* (1) to *always* (6). A total score, ranging from 34 to 204, is calculated by summing all item ratings; higher scores indicate higher levels of perceived supervisor

multicultural competence. A preliminary exploratory factor analysis suggested that underlying structure of the inventory yielded a one-factor solution (Inman, 2006).

Reported coefficient alphas for SMCI range from .97 to .98 (Beaumont, 2010; Inman, 2006; Mori et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha for the current study was .98 ($n = 221$).

Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S; Ladany, Mori, & Mehr, 2007). WAI-S is a 12-item self-report measure designed to assess a supervisee's perceptions of the supervisory working alliance. It was adapted from the Working Alliance Inventory (WAI; Horvath & Greenberg, 1986), which is based on Bordin's (1979) model of the therapeutic alliance, and measures three aspects of the working alliance: 1) agreement of the goals of supervision, agreement on the tasks of supervision, and the strength of the emotional bond between supervisor and supervisee. To develop the WAI-S, Horvath (1991) took the four items with the highest factor loadings from each WAI subscale. Ladany et al. (2007) revised the WAI-S for use in a supervision context by altering the wording of the inventory. Specifically, the term "therapist" was changed to "supervisor," "client" was changed to "counselor," "counsel" was replaced with "supervise," and "therapy" was replaced with "supervision" to reflect the supervisory alliance. Participants rate their perception of the supervisory relationship on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from *never* (1) to *always* (7). Item ratings for each subscale are summed with possible scores ranging from 4 to 28; higher subscale scores indicate higher perceived agreement with the supervisor on goals and tasks of supervision as well as a stronger emotional bond between supervisor and trainee. Cronbach's alpha for the task, bond, and goal subscales when used in a therapeutic setting were reported to be .90, .86, and .90, respectively. Cronbach's alpha for the WAI-S total score when used

in a supervision setting was .78 (Beamont, 2010). In the present sample, Cronbach's alpha for the bond, task, and goal subscales was .90, .88, and .78, respectively.

Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992). The COSE measures counseling supervisees' perceived self-efficacy regarding their ability to effectively counsel clients (Larson & Daniels, 1998). The inventory is a 37-item self-report inventory that measures five factors of counseling self-efficacy: microskills (12 items), process (10 items), difficult client behaviors (7 items), cultural competence (4 items), and awareness of values (4 items). Participants are asked to respond to all 37 items using a 6-point Likert scale (i.e., *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6); items on each subscale are summed to yield five subscale scores. The microskills subscale score ranges from 12 to 72; the counseling process from 10-60, the difficult client behavior from 7 to 42; the cultural competence from 4 to 24; and counselor values and biases from 4-24.

Larson et al. (1999) reported internal consistencies for the five factors are as follows: Microskills= .88; Process = .87; Difficult Client Behaviors= .80; Culturally Competent= .78; and Awareness of Values= .62 (Larson et al., 1999). Additional studies have shown Cronbach's alpha for the COSE total score to range from .90 to .91 (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Duan, 2007). The current study used subscale scores and Cronbach's alpha for microskills, counseling process, difficult clients, cultural competence, and values were .85, .84, .75, .76, and .19, respectively.

Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R; Ladany, Ellis, Friedlander, & Stern, 1992). TPRS-R is a 12-item self-report instrument that assesses trainee's perceived satisfaction with supervision. The instrument measures three factors:

evaluation of the supervisor, evaluation of self, and level of comfort (Holloway & Wampold, 1984). Each subscale consists of 4 items, and respondents are asked to rate the extent to which each item characterizes their feeling on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from *not characteristic of my feelings* (1) to *highly characteristic of my feelings* (5). Items from each subscale are summed, yielding three subscale scores ranging from 4 to 20. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of trainee satisfaction with supervision. The original instrument, TPRS, was designed to measure trainee reactions to a particular supervision interview, whereas the TPRS-R was slightly modified to reflect trainee reactions across a period of supervision. Specifically, Ladany et al. (1992) changed the instrument instructions from rate “Please put a circle around the answer most representative of your present feelings about the supervision session you last participated in.” to “Please put a circle around the answer most representative of your feelings about supervision with your supervisor over the course of this semester to date.” Reported internal consistencies for the TPRS-R total score have ranged from .83 to above .86 (Holloway & Wampold, 1984; Ladany, et al., 1999; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). The current study used the three subscale scores; Cronbach’s alphas for the subscales were: evaluation of supervisor=.88, evaluation of self=.79, and level of comfort=.76.

Demographic questionnaire. A demographic questionnaire was used to gather information concerning participant and supervisor personal characteristics. A variable called “supervisor-supervisee cultural difference” was created from five demographic components (i.e., age, gender, religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation) to indicate the degree of cultural difference between supervisee and supervisor (Cheon et al., 2009). Participants who expressed differences in gender,

religious/spiritual orientation, race/ethnicity, and sexual orientation as their supervisor received a score of “1” on each item. Participants were asked to indicate the supervisor’s age range (e.g., 20-24, 25-29). Those who placed their supervisor in a different age range than their own received a score of “1” on the age item. Total scores could range from 0 to 5, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of cultural difference.

Data Analysis

SEM was the primary statistical analysis used to examine the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, SMCI, WAI-S, TPRS-R and COSE. SEM determined the extent to which the *a priori* mediation model was supported by sample data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) by estimating relationships among the study’s observed and latent variables. Data were first screened for missing data, outliers, linearity, nonnormality, and multivariate assumptions using SPSS 18.0 (2009) and then downloaded into LISREL 8.8 (2009) to conduct the SEM analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the measurement model, which specified the relationships among the observed variables underlying the latent variables (i.e., SWA, SMC, and satisfaction), was conducted to ensure that the observed indicators loaded appropriately and in the expected direction on the latent variables. SEM analysis was then conducted on the mediation model to determine relationships among the latent variables in the model. Model fit was assessed using several global fit measures: Chi-square (χ^2) test, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI).

Results

Results from the measurement model CFA indicated that the observed indicators loaded in the direction expected (Table 1); however, the measurement model yielded a poor fit to the data [$\chi^2(41) = 209.44, p = .00$; RMSEA = .137; CFI = .91; PGFI = .53]. Examination of the standardized residual matrix revealed that the TPRS-R evaluation of self subscale was not well accounted for by the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); as a result it was eliminated from the measurement model. The resulting modified measurement model yielded a better fit to the data [$\chi^2(32) = 89.63, p < .05$; RMSEA = .09; CFI = .96; PGFI = .54].

The mediation model examined the direct paths from: 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to WAI-S, TPRS-R, and COSE; 2) SMCI to WAI-S, TPRS-R, and COSE; and indirect paths from: 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural difference to TPRS-R and COSE, via WAI-S; 2) SMCI to TPRS-R and COSE, via WAI-S. The chi-square test for the mediation model was significant [$\chi^2(57) = 113.62, p < .05$], indicating a poor fit to the data; however, χ^2 goodness of fit test uses N to calculate model fit, which makes it nearly impossible to obtain nonsignificant test statistic in sample sizes over 200 (Kelloway, 1998). Other fit indices [RMSEA = .067; CFI = .98, PNFI = .67] indicated the mediation model was a good fit to the data.

As seen in Figure 2, the direct path between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and COSE was negative as predicted, but not significant ($\beta = -.08, ns$). The direct path between supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and TPRS-R was also not significant ($\beta = .01, ns$). Therefore, the hypothesis that supervisor-supervisee cultural differences directly impacted the supervision outcomes variables was not supported. The

direct path between SMCI and TPRS-R was statistically significant ($\beta = .73, p < .05$), as well as the direct path from SMCI to COSE ($\beta = .30, p < .05$). Therefore, the hypothesis that supervisor multicultural competence is directly related to supervisee satisfaction and CSE was supported.

The direct path from supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to WAI-S was not significant ($\beta = -.01, ns$); therefore, the hypothesis, which exerted the working alliance mediated the relationships between supervisor-supervisee cultural difference and the outcome variables, was not supported. In order to establish mediation: 1) the exogenous variable must be related to the mediating variable, and 2) the exogenous variable must be related to the endogenous variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The paths from SMCI to WAI-S ($\beta = .78, p < .05$) and from WAI-S to TPRS-R ($\beta = .98, p < .05$) were statistically significant, but the path from SMCI to WAI-S was not significant ($\beta = -.03, ns$). These findings suggest that supervisory working alliance fully mediates the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The paths from SMCI to COSE ($\beta = .16, ns$) and WAI-S to COSE ($\beta = .17, ns$) were not statistically significant. The hypothesis, which exerted that the effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE would be mediated by supervisory working alliance, was partially supported.

While the mediated model was a good fit to the sample data, several paths in the model were not statistically significant. The final stage of SEM analysis, model modification, allowed the researcher to eliminate non-significant paths (i.e., theory trimming; Kelloway, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) from: 1) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to WAI-S 3) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to TPRS-R,

3) supervisor-supervisee cultural differences to COSE, and 4) WAI-S and COSE. The elimination of these parameters was theoretically justifiable (see Bhat & Davis, 2007; Cook & Helms, Duan & Roehlke, 2001; Harbin et al., 2008; Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Mirgon, 2007) and the above paths were fixed to 0.00 in the modified mediation model (Figure 3). The chi-square test for the modified mediation model was significant [$\chi^2(61) = 117.11, p < .05$], but other fit indices (RMSEA = .065; CFI = .98) indicated the modified mediation model was a good fit to the data and ore parsimonious (PNFI = .75) than the original mediation model (PNFI = .71). Results further indicated that the direct paths from SMCI to COSE was significant ($\beta = .30, p < .05$), when the path from WAI-S to COSE was eliminated from the model.

Discussion

This study examined the impact of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and supervisor multicultural competence on the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, and supervisee CSE. Results indicated that the modified mediated model, which depicted a direct relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and CSE, as well as an indirect relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision that was fully mediated by the supervisory working alliance, yielded the most parsimonious fit to the data. Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences were not found to be related to the working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision, or CSE.

The results of this study seem to suggest that supervisor multicultural competence, not demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee, affect supervision outcomes. While previous studies (Granello, 2003; Nelson & Holloway, 1990; Suzen,

2002; Vander Kolk, 1974) established a direct, negative relationship between cultural differences in supervision and supervision outcomes, empirical evidence has increasingly supported the positive relationships among supervisor multicultural competence, the supervisory working alliance, supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE. In particular, supervisees who indicate their supervisors demonstrate cultural self-awareness, recognize how cultural differences impact supervision, engage supervisees in discussions regarding cultural issues, and provide a supportive supervision environment also report a strong supervisory working alliance, high CSE, and increased satisfaction with supervision regardless of their supervisor's demographic characteristics (Mori et al., 2009; Hilton et al. 1995; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Walker et al., 2007).

This study provided additional empirical support for the theoretical assumption of the supervisory working alliance as a mediator in the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. In particular, results indicated that the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction is fully mediated by the supervisory working alliance. While Inman (2006) found the working alliance partially mediated this relationship, both studies highlight the importance of the supervisory relationship in the outcome of supervision, and suggest that supervisors who demonstrate multicultural competence by respecting supervisee cultural differences and facilitate discussions of cultural issues in supervision, contribute to the development of a strong supervisory working alliance. And, as supervisees perceive a supervisory working alliance that is characterized by mutual agreement on the goals and tasks, trust, support, and open communication, they become more comfortable with expressing ideas in supervision and perceive their supervisors'

personal qualities and performance more positively. It is important to note that the relationship between supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction with supervision was nearly deterministic ($\beta = .98, p < .05$) in the current study, meaning that the strength of the supervisory working alliance virtually predicted supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The correlation between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee satisfaction was also high in Inman's study ($\beta = .86, p < .05$), but not deterministic. Additional studies have also found the supervisory working alliance is highly related to, but did not determine, supervisee satisfaction with supervision (Cheon et al., 2009; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002).

build supervisee confidence in their ability to effectively counsel clients and

Lastly, the current study found multiculturally competent supervisors may help build supervisee confidence in their ability to effectively counsel clients. However, the supervisory working alliance was not related to CSE. These results suggest the degree of agreement on supervision tasks and goals, as well as the strength of the emotional bond between the supervisor and supervisee does not significantly impact the supervisee's belief in his/her ability to effectively counsel a client. Previous (Ladany et al., 1999; Lorenz, 2009; Migron, 2007) studies examining supervisee CSE and the supervisory working alliance also found that no statistically significant relationship between these variables existed, while two studies (Humedian, 2002; Ting, 2009) reported that the supervisory working alliance predicted supervisee CSE. Undoubtedly, the relationship between the supervisory working alliance and supervisee CSE is unclear in the extant literature, but this study contributes to the mounting empirical evidence that exerts there is no relationship between these two variables.

Implications for Supervisors and Counselor Educators

Past research (Constantine; 1997; Hird et al., 2006) suggests that supervisors have less cultural knowledge than their supervisees, and spend little time in supervision addressing multicultural concerns. While supervisors may lack multicultural competence, this study's findings, as well as the extant literature, suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is central to positive supervision outcomes. Therefore, it seems that imperative that supervisors work to increase their level of multicultural competence. Specifically, supervisors can: 1) attend professional development workshops that address issues concerning multicultural counseling and supervision; and 2) actively seek consultation from persons in the local community who are acknowledged cultural role models, and 3) seek out opportunities to provide supervision to culturally diverse trainees.

It may also be important for the supervisor to establish a strong working alliance with supervisees by negotiating the goals and tasks of supervision with the supervisee as well as building a working relationship with their supervisees that promotes trust, mutual respect, and open, honest communication (Bordin, 1983). Within the context of this alliance, supervisors may consider initiating discussion regarding the presence of cultural differences in the supervisory relationship, instead of relying on the supervisees to address cultural issues (Nilsson & Dodds, 2006). It may also be beneficial for supervisors to address cultural issues in supervision regardless of the supervisee's cultural background, as this study, and the extant literature (e.g., Hird et al., 2006) demonstrate attention to cultural issues is important to supervisees who are culturally diverse as well as similar to the supervisor.

Counselor educators can play a role in promoting supervisor multicultural competence by providing supervisor multicultural competence training. Counselor educators can integrate information on multicultural competence into existing supervision courses offered in the counseling curriculum or by offering trainings to site supervisors in the community. Although this study and the extant literature suggest that supervisor multicultural competence is important in facilitating positive supervision outcomes, to date no unifying definition or set of standards for supervisor multicultural competence has been adopted by ACA or ACES. Counselor educators may also consider partnering with practicing supervisors to develop a standardized set of multicultural competencies.

Study Limitations and Future Research Considerations

Several limitations should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of this study. Participants had to be enrolled in a practical experience to participate in the survey; however, the survey invitation was sent to 2,000 randomly selected ACA graduate student members who may or may not have met these selection criteria. In total, 386 (25%) students responded (221 met the selection criteria); it is unknown whether the remaining 75% of potential participants were qualified and, as a result an accurate response rate cannot be calculated. Data collected for this study relied on participant self-report. Participants were asked to provide their supervisor's demographic information, which may have been difficult to estimate and led to inaccurate findings regarding the relationships among supervisor-supervisee cultural differences and the outcome variables. Future researchers should collect perspectives regarding supervisor multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance, as well as demographic

information from both supervisee and supervisor, as the two are likely to have different perspectives that need to be incorporated into the models that we use to train supervisors.

The COSE subscale, counselor value and biases, had an inadequate reliability ($\alpha = .19$), which may have impacted the model's ability to accurately estimate the relationships among the study's variables. In the calculation of the supervisor-supervisee cultural differences variable, each demographic variable (i.e., gender, age, sexual orientation, ethnicity, theoretical orientation, religion) was considered to equally impact the supervisory relationship; therefore, the impact of one demographic variable may be magnified or minimized by the composite score. Also, as participants were asked to indicate an age range for themselves and their supervisors, the score on the age item may have exaggerated the actual age difference between supervisees and supervisors. Minority participants and supervisors comprised less than 30% of the sample on any given cultural demographic and the average number of cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee was two. As this sample may have lacked the variation needed in the cultural differences variable to detect a statistically significant differences, future studies should consider using large sample sizes that allow for increased participant diversity. Additionally, researchers may wish to consider whether demographic differences between the supervisor and supervisee alone is a valid measure of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, as the term cultural differences describe both physical characteristics and socially transmitted behavioral patterns, beliefs, and values (Pope-Davis & Coleman, 1997).

The modified mediation model was a good fit to the data and was more parsimonious than the original mediation model. Model modification is, however, considered an

exploratory technique and, until the modified mediation model is cross validated, the modifications made to the model should be interpreted cautiously (Kelloway, 1998).

Although the findings and the modified mediation model developed in this study are preliminary, with continued cross-validation studies, this model has the potential to serve as a framework for training multiculturally competent supervisors.

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Table 1

Model Summary for the CFA of the Measurement Model

	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Supervisory Working Alliance			
WAI-SF Bond Subscale	.86*	.19	15.56
WAI-SF Task Subscale	.91*	.21	17.23
WAI-SF Goal Subscale	.85*	.23	15.32
Counselor Self-Efficacy			
COSE Microskill Subscale	.83*	.33	14.07
COSE Counseling Process Subscale	.80*	.41	13.39
COSE Difficult Client Behaviors Subscale	.75*	.29	12.38
COSE Cultural Competence Subscale	.71*	.17	11.42
COSE Counselor Values/Biases Subscale	.34*	.15	4.82
Trainee Satisfaction with Supervision			
TPRS-R Evaluation of Supervisor Subscale	.82*	.20	13.64
TPRS-R Evaluation of Self Subscale	.56*	.20	8.46
TPRS-R Level of Comfort Subscale	.60*	.18	10.37

* $p < .05$

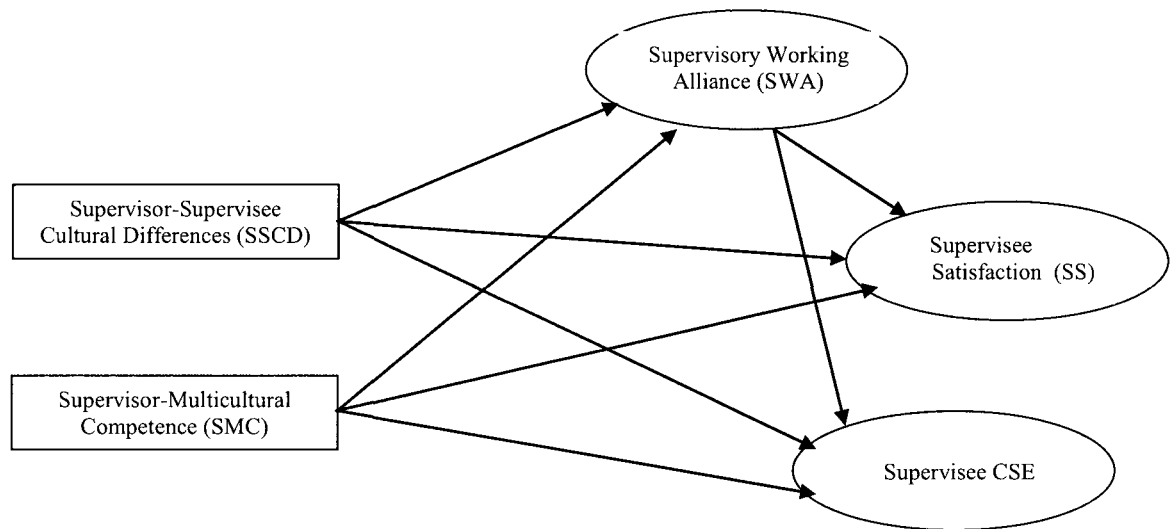


Figure 1. Mediated Model of the direct and indirect effects Supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and the supervisory working alliance on the outcomes of supervision (i.e., supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE).

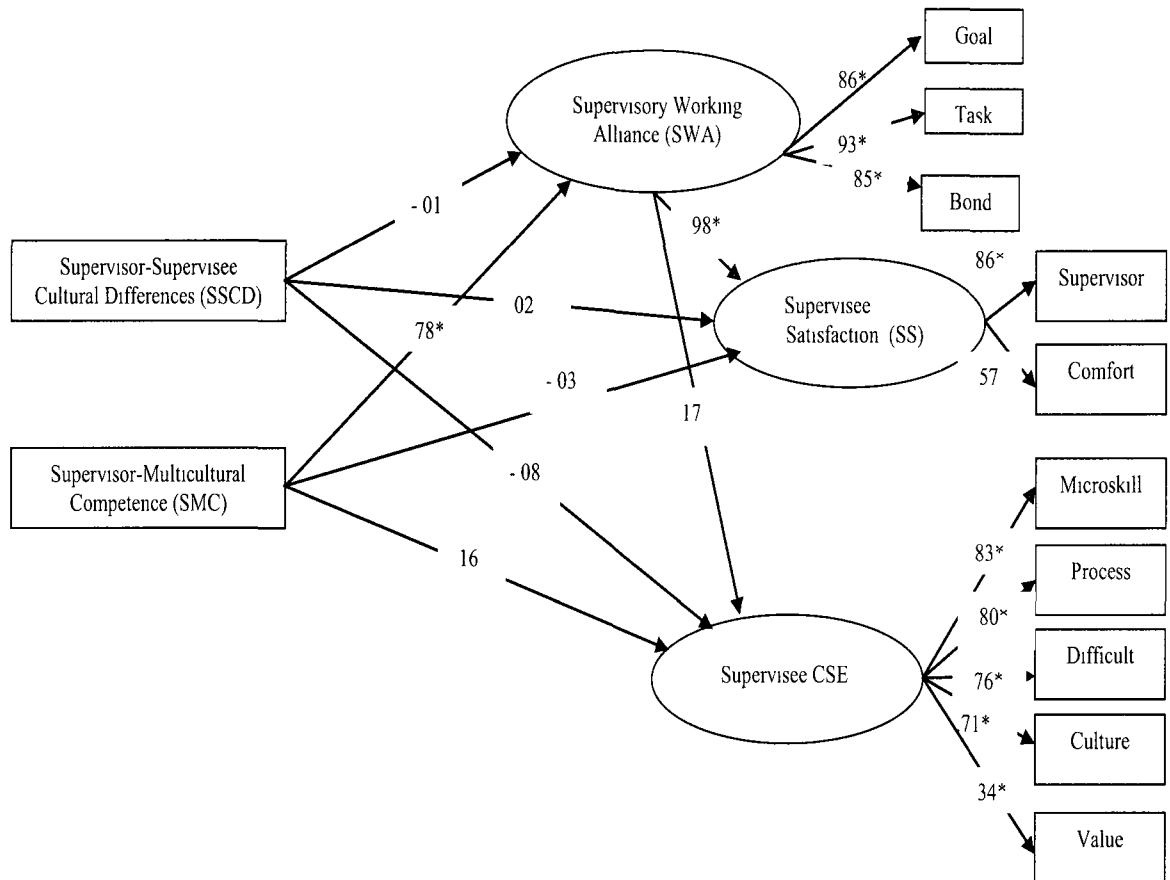


Figure 2. Mediated Model: Direct and Indirect effects of supervisor-supervisee cultural differences, supervisor multicultural competence, and the supervisory working alliance on supervisee satisfaction with supervision and CSE * $p < .05$.

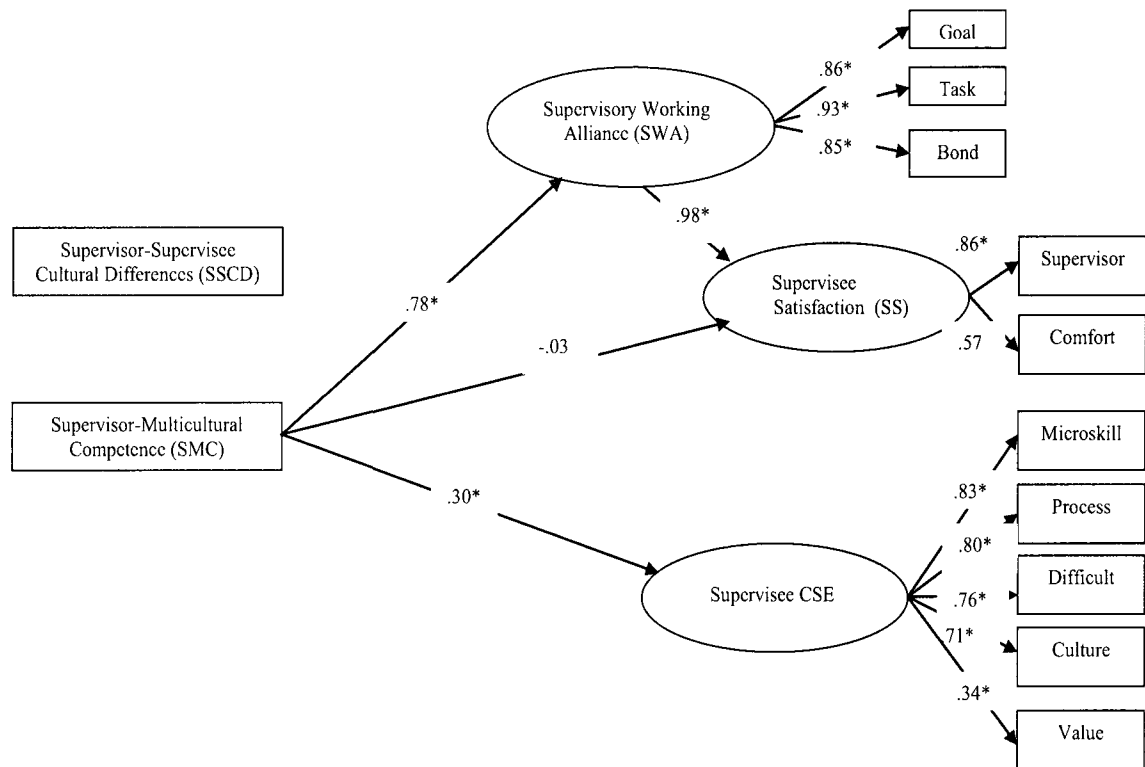


Figure 3. Modified Mediated Model: Direct and Indirect effects of supervisor

multicultural competence and the supervisory working alliance on supervisee satisfaction

with supervision and CSE * $p < .05$

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Cover Letter and Informed Consent

Appendix B: Demographic Information

Appendix C: Supervisor Multicultural Competency Inventory (SMCI)

Appendix D: Working Alliance Inventory/Supervision-Short Form (WAI-S)

Appendix E: Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE)

Appendix F: Trainee Personal Reaction Scale (TPRS-R)

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT

Dear [Participant Name],

I am Stephanie Crockett, a doctoral candidate in Counselor Education at Old Dominion University. I am conducting my doctoral dissertation research under the guidance of Dr. Danica G. Hays, Ph.D. I am interested in learning how supervisor multicultural competence influences the supervision process when cultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee exist. While supervision is generally considered to be a critical component in the training of competent and effective supervisors, very little is known about how supervisor-supervisee cultural differences with regard to race/ethnicity, age, gender, sexual orientation, and spiritual orientation influence supervisee professional functioning and development. A few existing studies do suggest that a supervisor, who is multiculturally competent, may facilitate supervisee professional functioning with cultural differences are present in supervision, but further investigation is warranted. It is my hope that the results of this research will provide counselor educators and supervisors with information that will be useful in meeting the training and supervision needs of all counselor trainees. The study has been reviewed and approved by the Old Dominion University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

If you are participating in individual supervision this semester (i.e., Fall 2010), I would like to take this opportunity to invite you to participate in this study. Participation is voluntary and anonymous; it will not impact your relationship with your school or your training center. If you agree to participate in this study, you will complete a series of questions that include demographic information (e.g.,), the Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE), the Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R), Working Alliance Inventory-Short Form (WAI-S), and the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI). Completing the survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Please note that you may refuse to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. You can also discontinue participation at any time by closing your web browser. Your responses are requested within 3 weeks of receipt of this email. A follow-up reminder will be sent to you via email 21 days from the date of this email if a response has not been received.

The information you provide by completing the on-line survey is completely anonymous. To ensure anonymity: 1) no identifying information will be collected through the on-line survey and, 2) participant email address will be maintained in a separate, secure file. The survey data will be stored on a password-protected computer. Only the primary researchers (Crockett and Hays) will have access to the data. Please note that aggregated research findings may be presented at professional conferences or published in scholarly journals.

This study poses minimal risk to the participants in that you may experience some mild discomfort when reflecting on your experience with your supervisor as you complete the

survey. If you feel that you need to seek consultation regarding your participation in this study, please seek a mentor or a trusted advisor. The benefits of participating, however, outweigh the risk. In particular, the benefits include gaining awareness of the impact of culture on your supervisory experience and how your supervisory may be influencing your development as a competent clinician. Also, you may benefit from a sense of helping the counseling profession and the community at large by contributing to knowledge in the area of counselor education and supervision.

To thank you for your participation, you will be offered the opportunity to participate in a random drawing to win one of 15 \$25 gift certificates to amazon.com by entering your email address at the completion of the survey. To ensure confidentiality, your email addresses will be removed from the original data set and maintained in a separate, secure file. Following data collection, 15 winners will be randomly selected and the gift certificates will be sent electronically. The file containing participant email addresses will then be deleted.

If you have any questions regarding this study or what is expected of your voluntary participation, please feel free to contact me at scrockett@odu.edu or (757) 277-6473 or my dissertation chair, Danica G. Hays, Ph.D. at dhays@odu.edu or (757) 683-6692. If you have any questions about your rights to participate in this research, or if you feel that you have been placed at risk, you may contact the Office of Research, Institutional Review Board, Old Dominion University, 4111 Monarch Way, Suite 203, Norfolk, Virginia, 23529. Thank you in advance for participating in this study.

By clicking the "NEXT" button below, you agree that you have read and understood the explanation provided and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Stephanie A. Crockett, M.S. Ed, NCC
 Doctoral Candidate
 Department of Counseling and Human Services
 Old Dominion University
 110 Education Building
 Norfolk, VA 23529
scrockett@odu.edu

Danica G. Hays, PhD
 Associate Professor
 Department of Counseling and Human Services
 Old Dominion University
 110 Education Building
 Norfolk, VA 23529
dhays@odu.edu

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age: 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54
 55-59 60-64 65 and above

Gender: Female Male Transgender

Race/Ethnicity:

African American Asian American Hispanic Native American
 White/European American Biracial/Multiracial Other not specified:

Sexual Orientation: Bisexual Gay/Lesbian Heterosexual Questioning
 Other not specified: _____

Religious/Spiritual Orientation:

Buddhist Christian Hindu Jewish Muslim Agnostic
 Other not specified: _____

Are you currently practicing your above state religious/spiritual orientation?

Practicing Somewhat practicing Not practicing

Current Educational Status:

Bachelors Masters Educational Specialist Doctorate N/A

Indicate the kind of graduate program you are currently in

_____ School counseling _____ Community/Mental health counseling _____
 College counseling _____ Other: _____

Are you currently completing a:

Doctoral level internship Doctoral level practicum Master's level internship
 Master's level practicum

Current Internship/Practicum Setting:

Private Practice Community Mental Health School Hospital
 University/College
 Vocational Rehab Residential Setting Other not specified: _____

Approximate total number of clients seen per week (currently): _____

Please estimate the number of direct client hours you have accrued at this point in the semester. _____

Indicate the number of supervision sessions you have had with your current supervisor this semester. _____

Indicate the average length of supervision sessions with your current supervisor.

How often do you meet with your current supervisor? _____

Supervisor Characteristics (please fill out your individual supervisor's demographic characteristics as you perceive them)

Age: 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49
 50-54 55-59 60-64 65 and above

Gender: Female Male Transgender

Race/Ethnicity:

African American Asian American Hispanic Native American
 White/European American Biracial/Multiracial Other not specified:

Sexual Orientation: Bisexual Gay/Lesbian Heterosexual Questioning
 Other not specified: _____

Religious/Spiritual Orientation:

Buddhist Christian Hindu Jewish Muslim
 Other not specified: _____

Has your supervisor disclosed his/her demographic characteristics to you during supervision?

Yes _____ No _____

APPENDIX C

SUPERVISOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY

The purpose of this inventory is to measure your perceptions of your **CURRENT SUPERVISOR'S** multicultural supervision competencies. For the purpose of this scale, multicultural supervision competencies refer to supervisor's awareness, knowledge, and skills related to multicultural/cross-cultural issues in supervision. For this purposes of this study, please rate your most recent primary supervisor. Please try to answer all questions to the best of your ability, even if your supervisor has not dealt directly with the issues covered in this inventory.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always

Please indicate the extent to which you believe your supervisor:

1. Actively explores and challenges his/her own biases, values, and worldview and how these issues relate to conducting supervision. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Is knowledgeable about his/her own cultural background and its influence on his/her own attitudes 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Possesses knowledge about the backgrounds, experiences, worldviews, and histories of culturally diverse groups. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Is knowledgeable about alternative helping approaches other than those based in North American and North European contexts. 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Possesses knowledge and keeps informed of the theoretical and empirical literature on multicultural counseling and multicultural supervision. 1 2 3 4 5 6
6. Is knowledgeable about the limitations of traditional therapies with diverse clientele, such as women, racial/ethnic minorities and gay and lesbian clients. 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. Facilitates the exploration of supervisees' identity development(e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation). 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. Facilitates supervisees' exploration of values, attitudes, biases, and behaviors and their impact on working with diverse clients 1 2 3 4 5 6

-
9. Helps supervisees understand the impact of social structures on supervisee and client behavior, including how class, gender, sexual orientation and racial privilege may benefit the supervisee 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
10. Encourages supervisees to participate in activities (e.g., support groups, reading groups, attendance at conferences and professional organizations) that foster multicultural competence. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
11. Facilitates supervisees' understanding of the impact of racism, oppression, and discrimination on client's lives in order to minimize client victimization and the pathologizing of client issues. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
12. Facilitates supervisees' understanding of both individual and contextual factors in clients' lives. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
13. Facilitates supervisees' understand of culture-specific norms, as well as heterogeneity within groups. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
14. Encourages supervisees to discuss clients' individual, group, and universal identities. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
15. Promotes supervisees' understanding of how stereotyping influences case conceptualizations, treatment objectives, and choice of interventions. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
16. Discusses with supervisees the implications of an over-reliance or under-reliance on cultural explanations for psychological difficulties. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
17. Helps supervisees explore alternative explanations to traditional theoretical perspectives. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
18. Explores with supervisees the limitations and cultural biases of traditional psychological assessment 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
19. Trains supervisees in multiple methods of assessment.. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
20. Models and trains supervisees in a variety of verbal and nonverbal helping responses. 1 2 3 4 5 6
-
21. Encourages supervisees' flexibility with regard to traditional interventions and the use of alternative

therapeutic interventions (e.g., group participation, indigenous helping networks).....	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
22. Encourages supervisees to gain knowledge of community resources that may benefit clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
23. Assists in helping supervisees develop client advocacy skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
24. Encourages supervisees to collaborate with clients in the identification of therapeutic goals and objectives. ..	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
25. Assists supervisees in indentifying when an appropriate referral to an outside resource or to another counselor may be necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
26. Is honest about his/her own biases and struggles to achieve cultural competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
27. Is able to competently and effectively work with culturally diverse supervisees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
28. Fosters a climate that facilitates discussion of diversity issues related to counseling	1	2	3	4	5	6
.....						
29. Models respect for diversity with supervisees and clients... ..	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Uses power constructively in supervision (e.g. jointly establishes objectives and criteria for supervisee performance; develops mechanisms for feedback regarding performance of supervisees and self; handles supervisees' self disclosure with respect and sensitivity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Attends to and processes issues related to power dynamics between self and supervisee and supervisee and client.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Provides ongoing evaluation of supervisees' strengths and weaknesses in the area of multicultural counseling.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Is familiar with instruments that assess multicultural counseling competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Recommends appropriate remedial training to supervisees who do not demonstrate multicultural counseling competence	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D

WORKING ALLIANCE INVENTORY/SUPERVISION SHORT FORM

The following sentences describe some of the different ways a person might think or feel about his or her supervisor. As you read the sentences, mentally insert the name of your CURRENT supervisor in place of _____ in the text. Please reflect on your MOST RECENT supervision session as you respond to the questions.

With each statement there is a seven-point scale:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1. _____ and I agree about the things I will need to do in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. What I am doing in supervision gives me a new way of looking at myself as a counselor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I believe _____ likes me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. _____ does not understand what I want to accomplish in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am confident in _____'s ability to supervise me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. _____ and I are working towards mutually agreed-upon goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel that _____ appreciates me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. We agree on what is important for me to work on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. _____ and I trust one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. _____ and I have different ideas on what I need to work on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. We have established a good understanding of the kinds of things I need to work on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I believe the way we are working with my issues is correct.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E

COUNSELING SELF-ESTIMATE INVENTORY

Instructions: This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Rather, it is an inventory that attempts to measure how you feel you will behave as a counselor in a counseling situation. Please respond to the items as honestly as you can so as to most accurately portray how you think you will behavior as a counselor.

Do not answer in a way that reflects your actual estimate of how you will perform each item, rather answer in a way that reflects your actual estimate of how you will perform as a counselor at the present time.

On a scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6), circle the number that best reflects your actual estimate of how you would perform in a counseling situation at the present time.

- | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|----------|----------|----------|--------------|-------|--------------|
| | strong | Disagree | mildly | mildly agree | Agree | strong agree |
| | disagree | | disagree | | | |
| 1. When using responses like reflection of feeling, active listening, clarification, probing, I am confident I will be concise and to the point. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I feel I will respond to the client in an appropriate length of time (neither interrupting the client or waiting too long to respond). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I am worried that the type of responses I use at a particular time, i.e., reflection of feeling, interpretation, etc. may not be the appropriate response. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I feel that I have enough fundamental knowledge to do effective counseling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. I may not be able to maintain the intensity and energy level needed to produce client confidence and active participation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I am confident that the wording of my interpretation and confrontation responses will be clear and easy to understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. I am uncertain as to whether I will be able to appropriately confront and challenge my client in counseling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Note: The instrument's author requested that the full instrument not be reprinted. Therefore, only sample items are shown.

APPENDIX F

TRAINEE PERSONAL REACTION SCALE

(Holloway & Wampold, 1984, modified by Ladany et al., 1992)

There are five possible answers to each item in the questionnaire. They are:

- 1 Not characteristic of my feelings
- 2 Slightly characteristics of my feelings
- 3 Moderately characteristics of my feelings
- 4 Quite characteristic of my feelings
- 5 Highly characteristic of my feelings

Please put a circle around the answer most representative of your feelings about supervision with your supervisor over the course of this semester to date.

1. I was eager to hear what my supervisor had to say.
2. My supervisor's attitude gave me hope that I can really get something out of supervision.
3. Many of the things my supervisor said really hit the nail-on-the-head.
4. I gained more respect for supervision as a result of my experience with this supervisor
5. Sometimes the supervisor seemed to twist the things I said to mean something different than what I intended.
6. Sometimes after the supervisor said something I just couldn't think of any response.
7. I felt my supervisor wanted me to come up me to come to some conclusions about the client, but I didn't know exactly what.
8. I sometimes felt like I was being put-on-the spot.
9. At times, I hesitated to tell my supervisor what I was really thinking.
10. I got irritated at some of my supervisor's remarks.
11. I don't know exactly why, but I felt nervous during my interview.
12. I sometimes resented my supervisor's attitude towards me.

CURRICULUM VITA

Stephanie A. Crockett earned a Bachelor's of Art degree in Psychology in 2002 from King College. Ms. Crockett was awarded a Master's of Science degree in Education with a concentration in counseling from Old Dominion University in May 2008. She is a Nationally Certified Counselor (NCC) with several years experience providing career counseling to college students and adults in private practice and university settings. Ms. Crockett has also provided crisis counseling for the Norfolk Public School system.

Ms. Crockett teaches in the Human Services program at Old Dominion University in the Department of Counseling and Human Services, 110 Education Building, Norfolk, VA, 23529.. She has taught a variety of graduate and undergraduate courses in career counseling, family therapy, research methods, practicum and internship. She also provides clinical supervision to master's students enrolled in internship and practicum. Ms. Crockett's research interests include research and assessment, multicultural career counseling, clinical multicultural supervision, college student counseling and student affairs. She has six published articles in peer-reviewed journals and is the co-author of a counseling textbook, *Mastering the National Counselor Examination and Counselor Preparation Comprehensive Examination*.

Ms. Crockett has presented at national, regional, and state conferences. She is an active member of several national professional organizations including the American Counseling Association (ACA), the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES), the Association for Assessment in Counseling and Education (AACE), and Chi Sigma Iota (CSI). Currently, Ms. Crockett serves as the treasurer for AACE and is president of the Omega Delta chapter of CSI.