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Feminist Supervision, Supervisor Multicultural Competence, And Supervisee Counseling Outcomes

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FEMINIST SUPERVISION, SUPERVISOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE, AND SUPERVISEE COUNSELING OUTCOMES

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my dad who has always been my number one supporter throughout my entire life and more specifically, my long educational journey. This dissertation and my overall success would not be feasible without your love, guidance and understanding.

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FEMINIST SUPERVISION, SUPERVISOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE, AND SUPERVISEE COUNSELING OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Supervision in the field of psychology is an essential practice that has significant implications for a supervisee's success in their academic program, therapist identity and ability to become an independent professional. This study explored the perceptions of supervisees of how multiculturally competent they believed their supervisor to be and how much they believed their supervisor utilized feminist principles in supervision. Limited research has suggested that the modality of supervision and competence of a supervisor can be important factors in determining supervisee outcomes. Important to the current study were supervisee counseling self-efficacy, client empowerment, active commitment, and satisfaction in supervision. Data was collected using a quantitative online survey. The sample included 155 participants who self-identified as women, aged 18 and older, and were enrolled in either a master's level or doctoral level counseling or clinical psychology program. Canonical correlation analysis revelated a significant correlation between supervisor variables of feminist supervision and multicultural competence with the supervisee variables of satisfaction in supervision, client empowerment, and active commitment. Results supported the importance of clinical supervision in supervisee outcomes. This research has advanced the field of education and training in psychology by exploring the importance of supervisor variables in supervisee development.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Within this study I explored how supervisee perceptions of supervisor feminist supervision practices and multicultural competency, relate to supervisee self-efficacy, feminist identity, satisfaction with supervision and social justice advocacy. According to the American Psychological Association (APA; APA, 2015), supervision is an essential component to trainee growth and must allow the trainee to enhance their counseling skills and competencies. In addition to counseling abilities, the trainee is introduced to multicultural knowledge which is utilized when assisting clients of varying cultures, socioeconomic statuses, and ethnicities. Recently within the field of supervision, there has been a decrease in the amount of literature regarding feminist supervision practices.

According to feminist approaches to supervision, the trainee and supervisor share power equally and the trainee's multiple identities are included within the training process. Limited research to date, however, has explored how this type of supervision and a supervisor's perceived competence with multicultural issues can affect the trainee's outcomes. These issues are particularly important to understand given the civil unrest occurring in today's society regarding racial discrimination and unequal treatment. Thus, the purpose of my study was to explore the supervisee's perspective on their supervision

experiences and understand how their training was being affected. Specifically, I was interested in understanding whether feminist supervision practices and multicultural competency were factors that related to a supervisee's self-efficacy, feminist identity, satisfaction with supervision and social justice advocacy.

I introduce my study in Chapter I, review and critique relevant literature in Chapter II, and present the methodology in Chapter III. In Chapter I, I begin with a historical overview of the field of education and training in Psychology, which is followed by definitions of clinical supervision, feminist supervision, self-efficacy, multicultural competence and social justice advocacy. I then discuss the history of supervision and the different models of supervision within the field. This chapter concludes with the rationale for the current study and a transition into Chapter II for a review of a literature.

Education and Training

History of Education and Training

The field of psychology started in a laboratory setting to understand the science of the mind in the early 20th century (Cautin & Baker, 2014). Since then, the field of psychology has expanded not only in topics but also into other academic disciplines. One area that psychology has formed a bond with is the field of education, which is the focus of the present study. In 1949 the APA organized the Boulder Conference in which clinical training standards were considered for the first time in history. From this point on, the scientist practioner model of training was utilized in the field as the predominant model which educational programs followed. Within this training model, one of the requirements was an experiential component known as practicum, which is where

students work as practitioners in training at a variety of settings under direct guidance by a licensed professional. This guidance is formally known as supervision and is an additional component that a trainee must engage in on a regular basis throughout their program to demonstrate competency. A primary function of supervision is to protect the clients of the trainee while the trainee develops and learns specific competencies of the profession (Falender & Shafranske, 2004; A. Williams, 1995). Furthermore, supervision plays a critical role in assisting the supervisee learn about themselves and identify aspects of their personality or interpersonal behavior that may affect their clinical work (Skovholt, 2012). Supervision is an important construct for a trainee's success and much research has been conducted on the topic. According to theory and research, there are several different approaches to supervision. These approaches include, but are not limited to, psychodynamic, humanistic, systems, postmodern and feminist supervision. Each of these approaches is defined and discussed later in this chapter. First, it is important to understand the standards and practices of clinical training in the field of psychology.

Education and Training in Applied Psychology

Effective January 1st 2017, health psychology training programs were required to implement the new Standards of Accreditation (APA Commission on Accreditation, 2017). The new standards were created to replace the Guidelines and Principles of Accreditation (APA, 2006). The purpose of the new standards was to address how psychology was presented to the public, the requirements for scientific training, the increasing focus on competency-based training, and the accreditation standards for internship and postdoctoral training. These changes also included updated core competencies for graduate students. According to the Standards of Accreditation set forth

by the APA Commission on Accreditation, graduate students studying in professional health service psychology programs must demonstrate a core set of nine competencies during their training (APA, 2015). These competencies are outlined by the Standards of Accreditation for Health Service Psychology and Accreditation Operating Procedures. These competencies include research, ethical and legal standards, individual and cultural diversity, professional values, attitudes, behaviors, communication and interpersonal skills, assessment, intervention, supervision and consultation and interprofessional interdisciplinary skills. When training students in each of these competencies, programs must ensure that they are using current evidence-based practices. Additionally, programs are required to provide a supportive learning environment where faculty are available to students for guidance and supervision.

In addition to coursework, students in health services psychology programs must complete two years of practicum which includes a combination of assessment and intervention under the supervision of licensed psychologist. Supervisors play a key role in bridging the gap between coursework and practice by assisting trainees in application of theory and research within their clinical practice (A. Williams, 1995). Students are required to meet with supervisors for at least one hour a week to ensure proper supervision and training. Within supervision sessions, students and supervisors may review recorded therapy sessions, discuss clients or engage in education regarding clinical or assessment skills. Students are evaluated on their ability to engage in the supervision process, display openness to feedback, identify and track progress in achieving goals, and seek additional supervision when needed. Supervision plays a

critical role in ensuring that the trainee meets the standards of the profession and has the ability to progress to an independent professional (Holloway & Neufeldt, 1995).

When students move into internship year, they are required to complete a nearly identical set of competencies as well as one year of full-time clinical work under the supervision of a licensed psychologist. One significant difference in internship year is that students are required to apply their knowledge of supervision models and practices that they have learned in their doctoral training program (APA Commission on Accreditation, 2017). This can be accomplished through direct or simulated practice with psychology trainees, or other health professionals. This training experience has been found to be critical in becoming effective supervisors (Gonsalvez & Milne, 2010). Interns have the opportunity to review trainee counseling sessions and provide feedback through the use of umbrella supervision. Umbrella supervision indicates that because the intern is not yet independently licensed, the intern's supervision work is reviewed by their own supervisor who is a licensed psychologist to ensure quality and effectiveness. The goal is to train the intern in supervision skills to independently supervise trainees upon licensure.

If students are enrolled in a program accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), the standards they must meet for their program are slightly different than APA-accredited programs. Students must complete academic work in five core areas including counseling, supervision, teaching, research and scholarship and leadership and advocacy (CACREP, 2016). Students are also required to complete a supervised counseling practicum for a minimum of 100 hours as well as individual supervision and group supervision. Upon completion of their practicum requirements, they must then complete 600 direct hours of a supervised

counseling internship. Students within CACREP-accredited programs are not required to complete a supervision component to their training unlike students in APA-accredited program. Students within CACREP-accredited programs were valuable to the current study regardless of this personal supervision experience because they represent professional counselors-in-training who will have firsthand experiences with clinical work and one-on-one supervision.

In sum, the field of psychology strives to ensure the proper education and training of trainees through competency benchmarks and clinical guidance from supervision. Trainees have an ultimate goal of learning to conceptualize and articulate which areas of knowledge and clinical work they are competent within and which areas of knowledge they need to improve (Falender & Shafranske, 2007). In addition, the trainee learns how to assess a clinical situation and execute an appropriate plan of action (Halverson et al., 2004). Supervisors are essential in assisting the trainees in the areas they require growth. Thus, to produce successful future professionals we must focus on the effect of the supervisor on the trainee, the focus of my study. I first explore the definition and history of clinical supervision.

Supervisor Variables

I now discuss variables and topics that are specific to supervisors. I begin with an overview and definition of clinical supervision, which is followed by the history of supervision. Afterwards, I discuss the theories and models of supervision.

Supervision

Definition of Clinical Supervision. Clinical supervision is "an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior colleague or colleagues who typically (but not always) are members of that same profession" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2018, p. 9). A junior colleague or trainee can also be referred to as a supervisee, which is the term that will be used for the remainder of this paper. During the supervision process, the supervisee meets weekly with their assigned supervisor to review the supervisee's current clients, provide learning opportunities for the supervisee, and ensure that the supervisee is meeting their required competencies. In addition to one-on-one supervision, there is also what is known as triadic supervision. Triadic supervision is when there are two supervisees participating in supervision with the same supervisor at the same time. Triadic supervision can be an effective training strategy, but it may be better suited to compliment one-on-one supervision rather than replace it (Borders et al., 2015). For the purposes of this study, I examined individual supervision because it is the predominant supervision modality in counseling psychology.

The goal of the supervision process is to ensure the safety of the supervisee's clients while providing educational opportunities for growth. A benefit of supervision for the supervisee is that they will likely experience skill acquisition, gain treatment knowledge, and build self-awareness and self-efficacy (Callahan et al., 2019). It is important that the supervision provided is effective for the supervisee. To become an effective supervisor, one must learn distinct skills that are separate from being an individual therapist. The ability of the supervisor to practice these skills and continue to grow themselves, will in turn have an effect on the training experience of the supervisee.

History of Supervision

Supervision has historically been influenced by Western European culture and is described as teaching a supervisee the application of principles related to psychological change and human behavior (Porter, 1985, 1995) . The supervision process has been criticized for being "gender blind" and operating with misogynistic views (Broverman et al., 1970; Fabrikant, 1974; Tanney & Birk, 1976). The supervisor's role in fostering a supervisee's examination of their biases, behaviors and values that enhance or inhibit change in a client is essential. The goal of a supervisor should be to create an environment that welcomes the exploration of gender, equality, power and respect (López et al., 1989). The success of supervision is often dependent on the working alliance that is built between supervisee and supervisor. Strong working alliances are characterized as being warm, respectful, collaborative, empathetic, encouraging, affirming, engaging and flexible (Watkins Jr., 2011, 2016, 2018). An additional component that can help facilitate a strong alliance is the consideration of multicultural differences between the supervisor and supervisee. Research indicates that acknowledgement of multicultural differences within the supervisory relationship can allow the supervisee to translate these types of discussions into their work with clients (Tohidian & Quek, 2017). From a feminist supervision framework, the supervision process should transition from an authoritarian relationship to one that incorporates conversations regarding cross-cultural awareness and self-examination (Ault-Riche, 1988; M. B. Ballou et al., 1985; Dutton Douglas & Rave, 1990; Porter, 1985, 1995; Porter & Vasquez, 1997; Schoenholtz-Read, 1996; Wheeler et al., 1989; Worell & Remer, 2003). The goal is to allow the supervisee to explore new material without feeling threatened, judged or blamed. This learning process should

facilitate action on the part of the supervisee to formulate useful interventions for their clients that incorporate an understanding of the client's identity.

Models and Theories of Supervision

Within the field of supervision, several psychology professionals have proposed varying methods to supervision. One of the earliest models of supervision was psychodynamic supervision which was first proposed by Sigmund Freud in 1902 (Watkins Jr., 2011, 2013, 2016). Within the psychodynamic model the supervisor is viewed as the ultimate holder of power, truth and knowledge. The goal of supervision is to resolve any conflicts in the relation between supervisor and supervisee which is then translated into building a relationship with a client. Additionally, the supervisee is encouraged to self-reflect and utilize a psychodynamic framework. Lastly, during supervision it is expected that the supervisor be responsible for asking questions and paying attention to the supervisee's emotional response.

Models such as humanistic-relationship oriented supervision take a different approach and focus on increasing the supervisee's ability to use their self-identity as a change agent (Farber, 2010; Krug & Shneider, 2016; Lambers, 2007; Rogers, 1942; Tudor & Worrall, 2004). This approach entails helping the supervisee become present, genuine, transparent and fully accepting when conducting therapy with clients.

In comparison, cognitive-behavioral supervision models of supervision rely on a structured and systemic approach (Boyd et al., 1978; Liese & Beck, 1997). Cognitive-behavioral supervisors typically check in with the supervisee, set an agenda, review homework and analyze recordings of the supervisee's client sessions. The supervisor's

goal is to guide the supervisee through challenges and areas for improvement, particularly in the area of utilizing cognitive-behavioral therapy.

A fourth model of supervision is systems supervision which has been characterized as essentially the same as family therapy (Beck et al., 2008; Celano et al., 2010; Storm et al., 2007). The focus of supervision is on the interlocking system dynamics between the family, the supervisee and the family and between the supervisee and the supervisor. Within this model of training supervisees are encouraged to create alliances with each family member, utilize reframing techniques and manage negative interactions. Another model of supervision is postmodern or constructivist perspective. This model emphasizes equality between the supervisee and supervisor (D. C. Phillips, 1995). Furthermore, this model focuses on the supervisee's strengths and utilizes self-reflection strategies to allow the supervisee to overcome challenges on their own. Lastly, integrative supervision is an additional model of supervision that focuses on allowing the supervisee to utilize multiple theoretical perspectives and formulating their conceptualization based on the presenting concerns (Boswell et al., 2010). In this supervision, the supervisee is instructed to be flexible and adaptive to using all types of therapy. A limitation of this type of instruction is that supervisees can be at risk of feeling overwhelmed and frustrated with such a vast amount of knowledge to understand.

Theories related to supervision are divided between psychotherapy-based models, developmental approaches and supervision-based models. Psychotherapy-based models are described as those that treat supervision in a similar way that one is trained in psychotherapy. Brown and Lent (2008) argue that the psychotherapy-based model is inferior to supervision-based models because its goals are entirely different than

supervision-based models which are directed at helping a therapist work with and conceptualize clients. Developmental approaches on the other hand are organized around the needs of the supervisee. Developmental approaches include the developmental model (Loganbill et al., 1982), the integrative developmental model (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2010), as well as the systemic cognitive developmental supervision model (Rigazio-DiGilio et al., 1997).

Supervision is a combination of counseling and teaching due to the supervisor potentially using therapeutic techniques for effective communication but also providing an educational component to foster growth within the supervisee. The supervisory working alliance between the supervisor and supervisee has been shown to be the foundation by which effective supervision is grown (Ladany et al., 2005). One area of supervision that has shown to build a strong supervisory working alliance is feminist supervision which stems from the feminist movement.

Feminism and Feminist Supervision

I now discuss feminism and feminist supervision. I start with a definition of feminism, feminist identity development and feminist supervision. Next, I explore the history of feminist supervision and I conclude with research associated with feminist supervision.

Definition of Feminism

Feminism is defined as the advocacy of women's rights with a focus on equality of the sexes. The topic of feminism has been explored and extended for centuries by women who have created feminist publications and speeches such as Mary Wollstonecraft (1792), Sojourner Truth (1851), Simone de Beauvoir (1949), Betty

Friedan (1963), bell hooks (1981), Angela Davis (1981) Audre Lorde (1984), Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie (2014), Jennifer Baumgardner (2000) and Amy Richards (2000).

Early scholars such as Mary Wollstonecraft (1792) believed that women only appeared inferior to men because they lacked education. She further argued that women should be treated as rational beings similar to how men are. Sojourner Truth (1851), a formerly enslaved Black woman, expressed her concern about how not only were women being treated less than men, but that Black women in particular were treated the worst. In her speech "Ain't I a Woman," she advocated for women to have more power in society that did not take away from the rights of men. Later in the 1900's, Simone de Beauvoir (1949) advocated for laws, education and customs to reflect that women should be treated as equal to men. In 1963, Betty Friedan, suggested that women should break out of their traditional roles and find personal fulfillment. Theory regarding feminism was advanced by bell hooks (1981) in which she recognized that social classifications such as gender, race, sexual identity and class were interconnected and that it was important to identify this connection or else it would lead to the oppression of women. In the same year, Angela Davis (1981) published her book entitled, *Women, Race and Class*, in which she noted that women's rights have historically been exclusive to White middle-class women. Soon after, Lord (1984) expressed her idea that women's rights, liberation and future required that women must acknowledge equal power among themselves in addition to the differences between them to enhance each other's understandings of the different struggles and viewpoints that each woman brings to the community. More recently, Adichie (2014) argued that everyone should be a feminist because being a feminist

entails trying to make the world a better place for women and championing the rights of women with the goal of equalizing chances and opportunities for men and women. Additionally, Baumgardner & Richards (2000) expressed that third wave feminists should be conscious of how even though feminism has become more normalized, there is still male domination in society that has a daily effect on women. Furthermore, they argued that feminism does not just mean equal rights, it also meant that women had the right to make informed choices. Lastly, Baumgardner and Richards (2000) argued that feminism was not just a definition, but a movement in which there were social and political goals that feminists must work towards through engagement in government, law, social practices and beliefs.

Feminist principles span across the topics of social context, diversity, social construction of gender, social activism, self-reflection and ethics. In the counseling profession, the majority of therapists and psychologists are now female (Fowler et al., 2018). As more women enter the field it is important to examine their experiences within the training process to enhance their efficacy, confidence and professional growth. Inside the field of education, there are several different perspectives on supervision modalities which includes the important practice of feminist supervision. From the feminist movement, the model of feminist supervision was created.

Feminist Identity Development

I now discuss the concept of feminist identity development which is a model that explains how an individual progresses in their feminist identity over time. Although the stages of feminist identity will not be directly studied, it is important to have background knowledge on the topic to understand the results on feminist identity.

The concept of feminist identity development stems from the feminist identity development model developed by Downing and Roush (1985) who posited that in order to achieve an authentic and positive feminist identity, women have to acknowledge and struggle with their feelings and beliefs related the prejudice and discrimination of women. Downing and Roush (1985) suggested that the model includes five stages. These stages are known as the passive acceptance, revelation, embeddedness-emanation, synthesis and active commitment stage. In the passive acceptance stage, the woman is either unaware or in denial of individual, institutional and cultural prejudice and discrimination against women. To reach the revelation stage, the woman must experience a crisis or contradiction that cannot be ignored. Downing and Roush (1985) asserted that these crises and contradictions come in various forms but some typical experiences include divorce, denial of a job, or involvement in the women's movement. These experiences are often associated with anger and guilt. Additionally, the woman rejects traditional ideas of femininity and the dominant culture around her.

After moving into the embeddedness-emanation stage, the woman rejects the oppressive dominant culture and seeks out strong emotional connections with other women who have similar views. After finding their connections, women in this model move into the synthesis stage where they integrate positive aspects of being female into their self-concept and transcend stereotypical female roles. Lastly, in the active commitment stage, women are characterized as developing a future in which they view transcending their traditional roles as the ultimate goal. In this stage they are potentially finding personal satisfaction and making societal changes. The authors argued however that very few women actually get to this stage (Downing & Roush, 1985). The feminist

identity development model is a useful tool that can identify how a woman may come to identify as a feminist throughout her lifetime. These stages help explain how some supervisees came to identify themselves as feminists.

Recent studies have explored whether the feminist identity development model by Downing and Roush (1985) would be relevant today, nearly 40 years later. Erchull and colleagues (2009) found that older feminists were more likely to endorse being in the active commitment stage. In comparison, younger feminists were more likely to endorse being in the revelation stage (M. Erchull et al., 2009). Furthermore, self-identifying as a feminist was not significantly correlated with the synthesis stage and those who were in the synthesis stage did not identify any prior stage experience. Thus, in today's world it appears that identifying as a feminist does not necessarily progress in a linear fashion as the feminist identity development model would suggest. A review of the literature by Moradi et al. (2002) has suggested that feminist identity development still occurs in the expected direction but that the theory needs to be revisited with current populations. For example, it is unclear if the model would fit well with racial/ethnic minority women and those who are not in college. Regardless of its limitations, the model is a pillar in the feminist identity development literature and was useful in understanding the results of my research.

Definition of Feminist Supervision

Feminist supervision is described as striving to maintain equal power between supervisor and supervisee, with a focus on empowering the supervisee (L. Brown, 2016; Falender & Shafranske, 2007; M. L. Nelson et al., 2006; Worell & Remer, 2003). Feminist supervision focuses on the social context, emphasizing diversity, evaluating

gender from a social construction perspective, and encouraging social justice (Bernard & Goodyear, 2018). One of the most important aspects of feminist supervision is its focus on power differentials in the supervision process. Within the supervisory relationship, the supervisor often holds power over the supervisee due to the supervisee needing the supervisor's approval to continue in their program and obtain licensure. Supervisors attempt to empower their supervisees when they challenge them to expand their skills/knowledge.

History of Feminist Therapy and Feminist Supervision

Feminist supervision was derived from the literature on feminist therapy. Feminist therapy was formed in response to the personal dissatisfaction related to asymmetrical gender expectations and injustice that women experienced in both their daily lives and therapy (Worell & Remer, 2003). Traditional forms of therapy were criticized for their inability to understand women specific psychological issues gender-role biases, views of femininity and lack of available women specific interventions (Chesler, 1972). Furthermore, there was a need for a multicultural view of women due to the increasing concern that women of color were excluded from psychological research and therapy.

Feminist supervision was created out of a need to teach therapists how to provide therapy to female clients and a need to build stronger alliances with female supervisees (Rosewater & Walker, 1985). Feminist supervision is defined as a collaborative relationship between supervisee and supervisor. The process is described as mutual and reflective, and most importantly, egalitarian. From a feminist supervision framework, the supervision process should transition from an authoritarian relationship to one that incorporates conversations regarding cross-cultural awareness and self-examination

(Porter, 1995). The goal is to allow the supervisee to explore new material without feeling threatened, judged or blamed. This learning process should facilitate action on the part of the supervisee to formulate interventions for their clients that incorporate an understanding of the client's identity.

Feminist supervision incorporates the issues of women's conflicts, self-esteem and feelings of powerlessness which stem from sociocultural factors that includes the sexist, second-class treatment of women (Gilbert, 1980; Holroyd, 1976). Feminist supervision also acknowledges the issues of self-determination, autonomy and equal status in society which are essential factors for women's mental health (Lerman, 1976; Marecek & Kravetz, 1977). Within the therapeutic relationship between therapist and client, there must be equal power and acknowledgement of equal rights. This relationship allows for the therapist and client to explore self-determination and autonomy. Lastly, during the feminist supervision process the supervisee is trained to be an advocate for change in their clients, both individually and socially (Rawlings & Carter, 1977).

Research suggests that self-determination, autonomy, and equal status in society are essential for women's mental health and the relationship between therapist and client must be egalitarian to model and foster self-determination and autonomy (Gilbert, 1980; Holroyd, 1976). Lastly, it is important to recognize that therapy is a political process, and the therapist must work for social as well as individual change (Lerman, 1976; Marecek & Kravetz, 1977; Rawlings & Carter, 1977). The supervisor should strive for the supervisee to have awareness of their attitudes, behaviors with respect to gender, values, and the effect of the social structure on both the supervisee's and the client's behavior and

personality. The supervision environment should foster conversations related to the supervisee's sex role stereotypes, socialization and biases.

The supervisor is expected to demonstrate respect and effort towards equal power with the supervisee (M. Ballou et al., 2008; Enns, 2004). Often within traditional supervisory relationships there is an unequal balance of power with the supervisee inherently in the position of having less power. Feminist supervision is an approach in which the supervisor or therapist can make active choices to move the relationship between themselves and their supervisee or client toward greater equality.

The goal is to reduce power differentials rather than erase them because feminist supervision acknowledges that in every relationship there will always be an individual with greater knowledge (e.g., the supervisor or therapist). Thus, having an egalitarian relationship is the focus of feminist supervision rather than an equal power relationship. An additional focus of conducting feminist supervision is the education of the supervisee with regards to women specific issues such as pregnancy, childbirth, body image, eating disorders, rape, female bonding and friendships. Power dynamics are key within a feminist supervision model and the supervisor should use the power to provide useful feedback and information to the supervisee while also making the supervisee feel respected and equal. Lastly, the structure of feminist supervision is described as having four stages. First, there is a discussion of specific topics and information that is related to the supervisee's female clients. Second, the supervisor allows the supervisee to explore the effects of stereotyping, socialization, and development on the psychopathology and presentation of women. Third, there is a focus on the supervisee's own biases and stereotypes related to women and how it is affecting their clients. Lastly, there is an

emphasis on social action rather than individual solutions which do not adequately address societal issues faced by women.

Feminist Supervision Research Summary

Feminist supervision has been shown to produce strong alliances between the supervisor and supervisee (Arbel, 2006). The process of feminist supervision allows the supervisee to have discussions of cross-cultural awareness and self-examination as well as learn to be an advocate for their clients (Porter, 1995; Rawlings & Carter, 1977). Thus far in the literature however, there is a lack of research exploring the effect of feminist supervision on supervisee outcomes. This research is highly valued because it may elucidate supervisory tactics that enhance the supervisee's ability to meet the competencies of the profession. In my study, therefore, I explored the relationship between feminist supervision practices and supervisee outcomes.

In addition to feminist supervision practices, I believed that multicultural competence of the supervisor was important to explore. This line of research is supported by the finding that feminist supervision and multicultural theories such as relational cultural theory share similar ideology. A central tenet of relational cultural theory is that meaningful relationships characterized by mutuality and empathy can be achieved through a clear understanding of self and others (J. B. Miller, 1976). Research suggests that it can be difficult for individuals living in individualistic societies to be interpersonally vulnerable (Jordan, 2010). This difficulty is problematic because it creates a barrier to connection with others and more specifically a barrier between the supervisee and supervisor (Duffey et al., 2016). When there is disconnection, a supervisee may experience disempowerment, confusion, low self-worth, low energy and a tendency to

turn away from relationships. Thus, in order for supervisees to be successful and feel competent in their abilities it is important that the supervisory relationship incorporates mutuality which can begin with a supervisor's multicultural competence.

Multiculturalism

I discuss now multicultural competence in supervision and begin with the definition. I then explore the research on multicultural competence in supervision before moving into my next section of supervisee variables.

Definition of Multicultural Competence in Supervision

Multicultural competence refers to the ability to acknowledge and pay attention to the diverse identities of the client, supervisee and supervisor (APA, 2015). Identities can include but are not limited to an individual's race, sexual orientation, gender identification, socioeconomic class, religion, and place of origin. Identity and self-definition are recognized as fluid, and they are also characterized as dynamic in their interaction with one another (APA, 2017). A core component of multiculturalism is recognizing and understanding the historical and contemporary experiences of both clients and psychologists with power, privilege and oppression. When engaging in multiculturalism it is important to not only review the different facets of multiculturism such as gender, ability, sexual orientation but it is also equally as important to ensure that the importance of race is not minimized or overlooked.

Furthermore, multiculturalism exists at three different levels which must be acknowledged for a patient. These levels include the universal, group and individual levels which all coincide to create the individual multicultural identity (Sue, 2001). In addition to paying attention to one's dimensions of multicultural identity, there is also a

need to acknowledge the assumptions and biases a psychologist or supervisee has about those identities to ensure they are not enacted upon the client (Arredondo & Toporek, 2004).

Multicultural Supervision Research Summary

By identifying biases and recognizing the cultural implications associated with the client's identity, psychologists are required to promote culturally adaptive interventions and continue to explore culturally appropriate research and diagnoses (Vasquez, 2010). Multicultural awareness within the supervisory relationship can result in a positive working alliance and satisfaction with supervision (Dressel et al., 2007; Falender & Shafranske, 2012; Inman, 2006; Soheilian et al., 2014; White & Queener, 2003). Without attention paid to multiculturalism, the client, supervisor, or supervisee may feel misunderstood in the relationship and a strong alliance may not be formed. A strong alliance between supervisor and supervisee is essential to the professional success of a supervisee as it allows them to engage in self exploration and express their needs (Falender & Shafranske, 2012). The multicultural competence of a supervisor is vital in the success of supervisees because supervisors can teach supervisees multicultural skills and approaches. These skills and approaches ultimately benefit and protect the supervisee's clients. Thus, for my study I examined the multicultural competence of a supervisor in addition to the supervisor's feminist supervision approach in relation to the outcomes of the supervisee. This research allowed me to explore the importance of supervisor multicultural competence, a topic which is in need of further research. I now outline and explore the supervisee outcomes that are examined in my study, including social justice activism, self-efficacy, satisfaction with supervision and feminist identity.

Supervisee Outcomes

In this section I discuss variables that are specific to supervisees including social justice advocacy, satisfaction in supervision, feminist identity and self-efficacy. Each of the variables are defined and discussed with regard to how they are used within the study. Following this section, I discuss my supporting theories.

Definition of Social Justice Advocacy

A social justice counselor or advocate is defined as "one who works with or on behalf of clients, or within the broader social system, to minimize oppression, discrimination, and disenfranchisement with the goal of obtaining fair, just and equitable treatment and access to services" (Glosoff & Durham, 2010, p. 116). At the core of social justice activism, there is a focus on addressing the issues of privilege and oppression (Brady-Amoon, 2011). Feminism, multiculturalism and social justice advocacy have been shown to share similar emphases on access, equity and empowerment (Crethar et al., 2008). In addition to acknowledging the importance of social justice it is equally as important to learn how to conduct social justice (Hage, Miles, et al., 2020).

Social justice through a counseling psychology lens is viewed as scholarship and professional action designed to change societal values, structure, policies and practices (Motulsky et al., 2014). The goal of such work is to enhance access and power to marginalized groups. Within academic programs, it has been found that when there is a supportive environment for social justice, it is more likely that supervisees will engage in social justice work (Beer et al., 2012; Inman et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2010). This information is important to the current study as it suggests that it may be useful to explore

supportiveness of social justice to fully understand the levels of engagement in social justice that are reported by supervisees.

Supervision is a learning environment in which a supervisee can gather information regarding social justice advocacy (Glosoff & Durham, 2010). To successfully educate supervisees on social advocacy it is suggested that supervisors first assess a supervisee's willingness to absorb and integrate multiple perspectives. Once the supervisee has been evaluated, the supervisor can proceed with focused discussions regarding diversity, power and privilege. These discussions can include not only the supervisee's experience with clients but also their relationship with their supervisor (Asakura & Maurer, 2018). The supervisee would then be able to engage in reflective questioning where they are able to process the new information, apply it to their work and have the opportunity to ask their supervisor questions as they arise. These steps would allow a supervisee to become an active participant in social justice work (Glosoff & Durham, 2010). Furthermore, this process highlights the importance of how supervision can play a critical role in expanding a supervisee's social justice advocacy efforts.

Definition of Satisfaction in Supervision

Satisfaction in supervision is defined 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" (Ladany, 1992, p. 448). Satisfaction in supervision has been widely used as an outcome in research because it has been shown to have a large effect on supervisee motivation and achievement in supervision (Holloway & Wampold, 1984; Ladany et al., 1999). More specifically, supervisees who feel satisfied

with their supervision tend to readily accept feedback, feel comfortable self-disclosing, and often work hard to meet the expectations of the supervisor.

Definition of Self-Efficacy

Self-Efficacy refers to an individual's belief in his or her capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). Self-efficacy derives from four sources, including experiences, accomplishments, persuasion from others, and the way one feels about a task physiologically (Bandura, 1977). The strength of one's conviction that they can exert the necessary behavior required for the task will ultimately affect whether the individual attempts to overcome the challenge. Therefore, self-efficacy is reported to influence one's choice of behaviors and behavioral settings. This means that an individual will avoid situations in which they believe they cannot cope or act effectively. Instead, they will most likely select settings in which they believe they can be successful with the skillset they currently possess. Self-efficacy is also reported to affect one's expectations of eventual success. An individual's self-efficacy beliefs will affect how much effort they put into a specific activity and how long they will persist when met with challenges and obstacles. When an individual has high self-efficacy beliefs, they will be most likely to exert a high degree of effort.

In the counseling profession, self-efficacy is referred to as the level of mastery an individual feels they possess regarding specific counseling skills, which may include but are not limited to writing case reports, conducting individual counseling or administering psychological tests (Ladany et al., 1999). The success of a therapist is in part due to their own personal self-efficacy related to their level of skill and ability to help their clients (DePue & Lambie, 2014). When a therapist has a higher level of self-efficacy it can

reduce their level of anxiety and allow the therapist to focus on the client's needs and the resources available for them. Self-efficacy however is a process that takes time to grow, especially in new clinicians. Supervision is essential to the growth of self-efficacy because it provides a place where the supervisee can receive guidance on their skills, review their work, and ask questions about how to approach different clinical issues. Supervision is also where the supervisor can act as a model of therapeutic skills and techniques so that a supervisee can reflect on what they have seen and how to translate it into their own practice.

The supervisee outcomes of social justice advocacy, feminist identity, satisfaction with supervision and self-efficacy have been identified in the literature as important to the success of the supervisee (Hage, Ayala, et al., 2020; Hoover & Morrow, 2016; Wong et al., 2013). Additionally, the literature suggests that these specific outcomes have been related to feminist supervision practices and multicultural competency of the supervisor (Arczynski & Morrow, 2017; Lorenz, 2009; Mangione et al., 2011). In addition to research, my study was guided by self-efficacy theory.

Supporting Theory

In this section I discuss my guiding theories for my study, which included self-efficacy theory and the social cognitive model of counselor training theory. I then review my research questions before transitioning into Chapter II.

Self-Efficacy Theory. An important theory for my study was Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977). Self-efficacy theory suggests that individual psychological factors can affect the strength and expectations of self-efficacy. These expectations and beliefs about self-efficacy are what determine the amount of effort an individual puts into a task

and whether they will sustain this effort in the face of obstacles and challenges. The tenets of the theory also include that self-efficacy beliefs are acquired from four main sources which include experiences, accomplishments, persuasion from others, and the way one feels about a task physiologically (Bandura, 1977). Anxiety is a physiological state that has been shown to have a reciprocal relationship with one's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1991). It is suggested that if an individual has low self-efficacy beliefs, they may experience high levels of anxiety and arousal in completing the task because they do not believe they can perform effectively. Additionally, if the individual experiences anxiety and a heightened sense of arousal, they may not feel they can appropriately address the task and may have lowered self-efficacy beliefs as a result. Self-efficacy is thus an important factor to consider when exploring counseling abilities. Bandura expanded the concept of self-efficacy with his general social cognitive theory, which will now be discussed.

Social Cognitive Model of Counselor Training Theory. General social cognitive theory was developed by Bandura (1986). The theory emphasizes the interaction that occurs between the individual, their behavior and the environment. These three elements mutually influence each other. Furthermore, Bandura indicates that individuals have some degree of agency in their decisions and that it is important to acknowledge the factors that promote or hinder agency and consequently decisions. General social cognitive theory has been utilized in many different fields of psychology but for the purpose my study it was used to examine training experiences through a social cognitive model of counselor training lens.

The social cognitive model of counselor training (SCMCT) is defined as an extension of social cognitive theory (Barnes, 2004). SCMCT suggests that "the counselor training environment and trainee personal agency factors (e.g., internal cognitive and affective process, including perceptions of anxiety, outcome expectations, and self-efficacy) jointly influence a counselor trainee's learning process and, ultimately, his or her performance in counseling" (Larson, 1998, p. 233). Counseling self-efficacy (CSE) is a construct of SCMCT and defined as "one's beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future" (Larson et al., 1992, p. 231). CSE theory indicates that CSE is the primary mechanism through which effective counseling occurs. Strong CSE beliefs result in enhanced counselor supervisee perseverance in the face of difficult counselor tasks. Counselor supervisees who experience strong CSE have demonstrated success in receiving and incorporating evaluative feedback into their learning experiences.

SCMCT is a theoretical model that shares several ideas and concepts with the teachings of feminist supervision and multicultural training in supervision. For instance, each of the models emphasize the importance of supervisee self-efficacy and acknowledgement of social identities as a means to supervisee success. According to SCMCT, agency within the individual is moderated by personal internal factors of anxiety and outcome expectations. Both of these internal experiences are addressed within feminist supervision and multicultural supervision tactics through the use of equal power and acknowledgement of the supervisee's needs and personal identities.

Based on the social cognitive model of counselor training, general social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory, I hypothesized that supervisees who were

exposed to feminist supervision practices and have a supervisor with competence in multiculturalism would be more likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy. They may also be more satisfied with their supervision experiences due to feeling understood and confident in their abilities. With that confidence, supervisees may feel they can be effective counselors and take action in difficult counseling situations. If the supervisee is strong in their feminist ideology beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs, they may also display a higher likelihood to engage in social activism. According to general social cognitive theory, this would represent the reciprocal relationship between the supervisee's behavior, personal beliefs and environment.

Development of Research Questions

Based on these concepts, findings and theories within the literature I hoped to expand the field of psychology by combining each of these concepts in one study. My study addressed the question of whether there were significant relationships between perceived feminist supervision practices and supervisor multicultural competency, and supervisee outcomes, including self-efficacy, social justice activism, satisfaction with supervision, and feminist identity.

Overview

Throughout Chapter I, I presented the background to the present study. In Chapter II, I review the literature on supervision, practicum, feminist supervision, multiculturalism, and social justice advocacy. I present the methodology in Chapter III and results of the study in Chapter IV. Lastly, I discuss the findings, implications for research, education, and practice, and limitations of the study in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Chapter II, I discuss the literature that has been conducted on the variables of interest for my study. I first examine the meta-analyses and literature reviews on supervision. Next, I explore practicum research, which is followed by an exploration of the research on supervision. This section is followed by a review of the literature on feminist supervision and multicultural competence. Lastly, I review the research on social justice activism. Each core section is divided between mixed method studies, qualitative studies and quantitative studies.

Meta-Analyses and Literature Reviews

In this section, I review the literature that has examined the topic of supervision through either a meta-analysis or literature review. These studies provide an overview of findings in the literature and lead into my discussion of practicum research.

A follow up content analysis based off of Borders' (2005) review of the counseling supervision literature was conducted by Bernard & Luke (2015). The authors aimed to find the patterns and trends among the topics within the 22 counseling journals and 184 articles that were analyzed. The results indicated 11 types of articles. Topic areas with the largest quantity of articles included supervision within counseling specialties,

supervision modalities, and supervision interventions. Other categories included multicultural supervision, supervision process, supervisee, supervisor, supervision relationship, client presenting issues/diagnosis, use of technology/web based, and ethical/legal/professional issues. Of note, it was found that qualitative studies have become as common as quantitative within the study of counseling supervision, which was different than Borders' (2005) findings. The traditional topic of the supervision relationships remained a prominent topic in the research, and newer topics such as triadic supervision, narrative supervision and social justice supervision appeared to be gaining interest. Important to the current study was the finding that research examining the supervisee's perspective had increased since Borders' (2005) study indicating that the supervisee's perspective may be important to explore further. The findings also suggested that there was a lack of research investigating the topics of evaluation in supervision and the process of observation in supervision. A limitation of this study was that it excluded articles which did not have a counselor educator or counseling professional as the first author. Additionally, the article was limited due to being a review of the literature and its conclusions and findings are based on the work of other authors, thus the conclusions drawn may be susceptible to influences or errors made by the research that was reviewed. It was important for my study to expand upon this research by gathering a more recent perspective on the supervision process.

An overview of supervision for the beginning and advanced graduate student within counseling psychology was provided by Ronnestad and Skovholt (1993). During the beginning stages of graduate work, research indicates that supervision is instructional as well as directive. An essential component to supervision is feedback according to a

multitude of studies. Research suggests that compared to advanced students, newer students are more anxious, dependent on their supervisor, and focused on technique. Additionally, newer students are hesitant with regards to confrontation (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). At all levels of experience, research indicates that security and support were imperative for student success. Additionally, the research indicated that evaluative support, the method of supervision, whether or not there was rapport, and the time and structure dedicated to supervision were important factors for supervision effectiveness (Cross & Brown, 1983). Additionally, Fischer (1989) noted that beginning students preferred supervisors who were more authoritarian rather than egalitarian. This result was found to be consistent across level of experience by Nelson (1978). The findings by Ronnestad & Skovholt (1993) are important to the current study because they indicate that components of supervision such as the method and rapport could have implications for supervision effectiveness. The current study built off this overview by examining the supervision perspectives of supervisees and measuring their professional outcomes. A limitation of this research is that it was conducted over 20 years ago. Although many of the findings still likely apply to today's supervision process, it is important to continue to investigate the supervision experiences of supervisees as cultural and professional roles and expectations shift over time.

An overview of the different ways in which supervisees have been evaluated for competence within clinical supervision was authored by Gonzalvez and Crowe (2014). Based on this review they argued that there is a need for new instruments to improve evaluation. They also argued that there needs to be a better match between what is being evaluated and how the evaluation is conducted. Additionally, it was proposed that when

available, supervisors should use instruments with established psychometric properties. Lastly, the authors argued that it is important to incorporate triangulated assessment strategies (Gonsalvez & Crowe, 2014). These findings were important because they highlighted areas of growth for research and curriculum in supervision. The goal of the current study was to expand research in the topic of supervision and identify whether a particular supervision modality produced specific supervisee outcomes. Those supervisee outcomes could ultimately influence evaluation scores. Thus, the current research expands upon the evaluation literature to assess how supervision modality influences these supervisee outcomes.

Results from meta-analyses and reviews of the literature on supervision and training suggest that first and foremost, supervision is a highly important construct to research because it can have implications for not only current supervisee skills but also for supervisees who will become supervisors themselves in the near future (Bernard & Luke, 2015). Findings have suggested that more literature is needed on observation and evaluation in supervision. Additionally, findings suggest that exploring the supervisee's perspective and the way in which supervisees are evaluated may be important (Gonsalvez & Crowe, 2014). Rapport, security, support, and the method of supervision used were also found to be important factors related to practicum student/supervisee success (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Based on these findings, I believed it was important to further understand the research focused on practicum student outcomes, which will now be discussed.

Practicum Research

In this section, I discuss the research that has been conducted on practicum. I begin with mixed method studies, followed by qualitative studies and finish with quantitative studies.

Mixed Methods Studies

The practicum experiences of 321 doctoral clinical psychology students were examined by Gross (2005) in a mixed methods study. The author created their own measure which assessed both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the student's practicum experience. The author did not provide any reliability or validity evidence for the survey. The questions within the survey asked students about their expectations of practicum and what they actually received from their practicum. The author was interested to know about the student's experiences with training, supervision, direct hours with clients and any assessment opportunities. The results indicated that the majority of students did not have a practicum experience that met their expectations. A finding important to the current study was that students frequently reported a mismatch in supervision between what they expected and what they received. Students commonly reported concerns with the fit between themselves and their supervisors in therapeutic orientation. Additionally, students reported that their supervisors could be more supportive and less critical (Gross, 2005). A limitation of this study was that it did not utilize validated measures of practicum experiences. Additionally, it did not assess student outcomes, which may have provided insight into whether the practicum was helpful from a skills perspective regardless of the mismatch reported.

Qualitative Studies

Recently, Jendrusina and Martinez (2019) reviewed vignettes depicting multicultural supervision experiences for students of color who were enrolled in mental health graduate programs. The authors utilized three vignettes to illuminate the effect of a supervisor's recognition of power, identity and privilege within the supervisory relationship when working with students of color. Supervisors and supervisees were encouraged to complete self-reflection of their identities, both privileged and marginalized, and examine how these identities affect their clinical experiences. Furthermore, it was noted that supervisors should be mindful that although it is important to address multicultural identities, minority students may be hesitant to discuss visible identities such as race and may also choose to hide unseen identities such as SES, gender identity and sexual orientation (Jendrusina & Martinez, 2019). The authors also suggested training opportunities and curriculum that focuses on multicultural awareness. Lastly, the authors articulated that within supervision, the goals and expectations of a supervisee should include multicultural development as it will assist the supervisee in meeting their professional obligations to their code of ethics. This research was important because it began our discussion about how multiculturalism can be incorporated into the practicum student's clinical and educational experiences. If supervisees in the current study reported poor experiences in supervision, it was useful to examine the multicultural competence scores of the supervisor as it shed light on areas outlined by Jendrusina and Martinez (2019). The current study provided quantitative data to support the arguments of Jendrusina and Martinez (2019) and may guide future multicultural supervision practices for practicum students.

In an additional discovery-oriented qualitative study by Soheilian et al., (2014), practicum students were interviewed regarding their experiences with multicultural inventions and discussions in supervision. Results from the 102 students indicated that supervisors were viewed as multiculturally competent when they educated and facilitated the discussion of cultural issues and assisted the trainee in adjusting their interventions to be culturally appropriate. Participants indicated that the most frequently used multicultural supervision tactics involved helping them recognize their personal limitations, improving self-awareness and enhancing empathy. Findings from this study were valuable to the current research because they provided insight into the qualitative reports from students regarding supervisor multicultural competence that were not gathered in the current quantitative study. The goal of the current study was to expand these findings with quantitative results to further understand the supervision experiences of practicum students.

The practicum experiences of 13 doctoral students from APA-accredited counseling psychology programs was examined by Hage et al. (2019). The method was semi-structured interviews that examined their perceptions regarding practicum, the supervision being received, and their interactions with clients/staff/peers. The authors also examined perceptions of multicultural training, any ethical challenges that the students may have faced and what types of resources were offered to them. Supervision was provided to the majority of students by core faculty. The practicum sites being observed were in house practicum sites. Based on the interviews, eight domains were found: (a) supervision, (b) facilitating factors, (c) hindrances, (d) trainings/professional development, (e) ethical challenges, (f) multicultural training, (g) assessment, and (h)

clinic organization and procedures. Results indicated that most students found supervision helpful and expressed satisfaction. In addition, participants reported that supervision was a facilitating factor in their development as professionals. However, they reported difficulties with supervision which included having a supervisor who was forceful, rigid in their theoretical orientation and tended to scrutinize them. Lastly, participants reported that they valued having a supervisor who was open to diverse theoretical orientations. Important to the current study was the finding that although supervisees were interested in cultural issues, participants felt they received little or no multicultural training. These findings were important because they suggested it was important to further understand the supervision process by looking at multiculturalism and the flexibility of a supervisor to match the supervisee's theoretical orientation. A limitation of this study was that it only used seven questions and 13 participants, which may have limited the amount of information obtained and the diversity of participants. Additionally, the participants who were chosen were not randomly selected and were majority White. The current study expanded this research by examining other supervisee perceptions of supervision such as whether they believe their supervisor is competent in multiculturalism and whether they utilize a theoretical orientation such as feminist supervision that is conducive to equal power and respect in the supervisory relationship. The current study also utilized a larger sample and a quantitative methodology which produced similar results.

In 2016, Hoover and Morrow examined how students who were in a feminist, multicultural, social-justice oriented practicum experienced social-justice oriented development. The study included 20 female participants within social work or

psychology graduate programs who were recruited using purposeful sampling to ensure that the phenomenon of interest was strongly present in the study. The authors used a grounded theory design as well as feminist constructivist assumptions (Hoover & Morrow, 2016). The authors utilized feminist constructivist assumptions in that they set out to recruit supervisees who considered lower in power compared to their licensed training staff. They also utilized focus groups and engaged in reflexivity during the interviews to ensure there was no power differential with the researcher present. The study included focus groups and semi-structured interviews. The results indicated three different types of growth including (a) doing your own work (b) honoring your voice and others' voices, and (c) challenging power to create systematic change. Important to the current study is the finding that supervisees felt their growth was facilitated by being able to hold equal power with their supervisor. The supervisees reported they felt empowered because their opinions and perspectives mattered. Notably, supervisees also reported that although they felt empowered at the site, they still struggled to fully experience a power balance with their supervisors due to the evaluation aspect of practicum. These findings were important because they suggested that for the current study even if supervisees experience a practicum focused on feminism, multiculturalism and social justice, they still might experience challenges within the supervisory relationship. The study by Hoover and Morrow (2016) was limited in that the sample size was small, majority White, and participants were not randomly selected.

Quantitative Studies

A quantitative study examining student experiences during doctoral practicums and internships was conducted by Rodriguez-Menendez and colleagues (2017). The

authors also examined the experiences of faculty. Participants were 1,219 students (78% White) and 30 faculty (80% White). The authors used a survey to collect data from participants. The survey was developed by Rodriguez-Menendez and Albizu in 2003 and was refined by other doctoral faculty and field tested on a group of Psy.D and PhD students. The authors did not report any validity or reliability for the measure. The survey assessed demographics, general overview of training, practicum experience and internship experience using Likert-scale items. Several analyses of variances (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the differences between PhD students, PsyD students and faculty. Practicum results indicated that PhD students had significantly higher amounts of supervised experiential training compared to PsyD students. PsyD students however, were found to report receiving significantly more training in multicultural assessment and intervention compared to PhD students. Additionally, it was found that 31% of the practicum students reported never being observed. This begs the question of what is being scored when the supervisor completes an evaluation of the supervisee and whether the supervisee's needs are being met. A limitation of this study was that it had a large student sample size but a small faculty sample. Furthermore, the study did not utilize a validated measure to assess supervisee perceptions. These findings were important however because they suggested that in the current study there may have been differences in training and supervision between PhD students and PsyD students.

The effect of live observation on empathy and counseling competency in practicum students was examined by DePue & Lambie (2014). The study included 87 masters level trainees (71.3% White) and their assigned supervisors (n = 21, 71.4% White). The authors utilized purposive sampling and a one-group pretest-post-test

methodology. The study took place over the course of one academic year and included two groups of participants (fall and spring) who were combined for a total sample. Each group of participants were measured during the middle of the semester and at the end of the semester. The authors utilized the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983) which is a self-report inventory of empathy and the Counseling Competencies Scale (CCS; J. M. Swank et al., 2012) which is a measurement of counseling competencies. Participants completed the IRI and their supervisors completed the CCS. The tests conducted included a Within Groups Hotelling's Trace (MANOVA), MANCOVA and a Pearson's product-moment correlations. The results indicated that the student's scores on the IRI and the CCS significantly increased from the middle of the semester to the end of the semester indicating that live observation may have had a positive effect on supervisee performance. These findings demonstrate that student outcomes may be influenced by the level of engagement they have with their supervisor. This study was limited however in that it did not explore competency from the perspective of the supervisee and the sample was limited to master's level students. This research was important for the current study because it demonstrated a need to understand if being more involved in the supervisory relationship can have a positive effect on supervisee outcomes such as empathy and competency.

In 2010, Lorenz examined how supervisory styles, supervisory working alliance, and supervisor behaviors affect the development of counseling self-efficacy during practicum. The author hypothesized that over the course of the practicum, counseling self-efficacy scores would increase among the students. Participants within the study were enrolled in a master's degree counseling program that had either Council on

Rehabilitation Education or Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) accreditation (Lorenz, 2009). The participants were enrolled in their first practicum class and were participating in weekly individual and/or group supervision. The sample included 44 participants, of which 35 were female and eight were male, one did not disclose demographic information. Approximately 81% of the sample reported being White, 7% were Latino-American, 5% were African American, 2% were Asian-American, 2% were Native-American and 2% identified as other. Participants completed questionnaires online that included instruments related to demographic characteristics, supervisory style (Supervisory Style Inventory-Trainee; Friedlander & Ward, 1984), supervisor working alliance (Supervisor Working Alliance Inventory-Trainee; Efstation et al., 1990), supervisor behaviors (Modified-Clinical Supervision Questionnaire; Stebnicki, 1995), and counseling self-efficacy (Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory; Larson et al., 1992). The author utilized a path analysis with multiple regression which indicated that supervisory style, supervisory working alliance and supervisor behaviors were statistically significant in predicting counseling-self efficacy scores. These findings suggest that positive student outcomes are dependent on having a supervisor who is eclectic in style, provides appropriate supervisory interventions and creates a positive working alliance with the student. One of the major findings from the study was that supervisee anxiety had a negative relationship with counseling self-efficacy. Thus, it was important in the current study to explore whether the supervisee's perceptions of their supervisor was related to their self-efficacy. Critiques of this study include having a small sample and they did not include doctoral

level students which may have produced results that would be generalizable to a larger population.

The literature on practicum suggests that practicum students may have vastly different experiences depending on their supervisor and program emphasis (Rodriguez-Menendez et al., 2017). Furthermore, practicum students have often been found to report difficulties in supervision if their supervisor is not open to diverse theoretical orientations and not flexible in their supervisory style to meet the needs of the student (Gross, 2005; Hage, Ayala, et al., 2020). The relationship with the supervisor and the ability of the supervisor to demonstrate openness and equal power can have large implications for practicum student self-efficacy, anxiety, empowerment, and exploration of multicultural issues (Hoover & Morrow, 2016; Soheilian et al., 2014). Therefore, I believed that it was imperative for the current study to further examine the needs and perceptions of practicum students to understand the effect of different supervisory orientations and competencies. In the next section, I review the literature on supervision.

Supervision Research

I now discuss the research that has been conducted on supervision. I begin with mixed method studies, followed by qualitative studies and finish with quantitative studies.

Mixed Methods Studies

In 2007, Walker et al. examined the perspectives of female supervisees on their supervision experiences through a mixed method design study. The study included 111 female supervisees, 91 of which were White. Approximately 70% of the sample were studying Counseling Psychology with the remaining participants studying Clinical

Psychology. The supervisees were practicing at a variety of practicum sites including college counseling centers, VA hospitals, community mental health centers and schools. For the qualitative measure, the authors constructed the Gender-Related Events Survey using a series of pilot tests and revisions. The survey asked participants to describe their experiences with positive or negative gender-related events in supervision. For the quantitative portion of the study, the authors used the Working Alliance Inventory-Trainee Version (Bahrick, 1989), the Trainee Disclosure Scale and a demographic questionnaire (Walker et al., 2007). The Trainee Disclosure Scale was another measure that was developed by the authors. The results indicated that approximately half of the supervisees indicated that their supervision experience was supportive of utilizing gender within supervision. For instance, using gender in their conceptualizations, allowing the supervisee to process their feelings toward gender, and discussing gender-related professional development. The other half of the participants noted that their supervision experience was not supportive of gender concerns and indicated that they had experienced a dismissal of gender in conversations and hearing stereotypical comments about gender from supervisors. Lastly, it was found that supervisee self-disclosure and supervisory alliance was significantly related to the content and frequency of gender-related events in supervision. Although this study is important because of its focus on understanding the female supervisee perspective, it still has some limitations. One of the major limitations of this study is that the authors used measures they had developed rather than validated measures. Additionally, the findings from the study cannot be generalized due to the homogenous sample used. The findings from this research are important however because they indicate that the opportunity to speak about gender-

related events may or may not be available for all supervisees. The discussion of gender and culture are important aspects to explore in supervision, thus it was imperative that the current research gather more information from the supervisee perspective. Specifically, it was important to know whether these elements of gender and culture are utilized and discussed in current supervision practices across a more diverse sample.

Qualitative Studies

In 2017, Tohidian and Quek conducted a meta-analysis of qualitative studies on supervisory practices. Specifically, the authors were interested in the studies that conducted research on supervisory practices that had an emphasis on diversity. The meta-analysis included articles published between 2000 and 2014 that had at least one diversity and cross-cultural variable in clinical supervision. The entire meta-analysis included 24 studies with the majority of studies coming from the *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development* and *Training and Education in Professional Psychology*. Results indicated six qualitative categories including: (a) supervisors' multicultural stances, (b) supervisees multicultural encounters, (c) competency-based content in supervision, (d) process surrounding multicultural supervision, (e) culturally attuned interventions and (e) finally multicultural supervisory alliance.

Recently, De Stefano et al. (2017) conducted a qualitative study examining the experiences of nine master's level counselors. The authors were interested in the participants' experiences in supervision. In particular, they were interested in supervision experiences related to power. The nine participants included one from social work, three from counselor education, and five from counseling psychology. All of the nine participants were women and White. Interviews were 60 minutes and consisted of 16

questions. The results from the interviews indicated five categories that included (a) power resides in the supervisor's expertise, (b) supervisor error erodes his or her power, (c) misuse of power elicits self-preservation, (d) supervisor demonstrating trust in the supervisee's abilities empowers the supervisee, and (e) supervisor transparency reduces power. The results indicated that power within the supervisory relationship can create both positive and negative experiences for supervisees. Equality of power between the supervisor and supervisee is an essential component to the feminist supervision model. The results by De Stefano et al. (2017) indicate that in the current study the power between supervisor and supervisee was an important component that relates to supervisee outcomes such as empowerment. The study was limited by a very small sample size. Additionally, although the qualitative nature of the study provides in depth information, it can be prone to research bias, thus the current study expanded this research by utilizing quantitative methods.

Approximately 10 years ago, Mangione et al. (2011) examined the supervisory relationship among women psychologists supervising women psychology supervisees. The purpose of the study was to examine power, reflexivity, collaboration and authenticity within the supervisory relationship through a qualitative methodology. Participants were asked to answer interview questions as well as have their supervision sessions recorded and analyzed. The sample included eight dyads of female supervisor and doctoral level supervisees. Supervisors within the study were located at a variety of mental health settings such as VA hospitals, college counseling centers and community clinics. Participants were asked five open-ended questions which were read and analyzed using a phenomenological framework by two co-researchers. Results indicated that

power was recognized and discussed by all of the supervisees but only discussed by half of the supervisors. When asked about aspects of feminism in supervision, six supervisees and six supervisors noted that they were influenced by feminism. Interestingly, the topic of feminism however brought forth a variety of responses including: (a) being completely influenced by feminism (b) acknowledging the presence of feminism but noting it wasn't a strong influence and (c) that feminism had no influence on them at all. Less than half of the supervisees and supervisors viewed the supervision process as collaborative. Lastly, all eight of the supervisors felt they had been authentic and self-disclosed during supervision while only five of the supervisees felt this was true about their supervisors (Mangione et al., 2011). A limitation of this study is the small sample size and the limited number of researchers who analyzed the data. Results of the study suggested that in the current research perspectives of the supervisee on the supervision process could be different from their respective supervisor. To expand this research, it was useful to utilize a larger number of questions in the current study. Additionally, it was helpful to utilize more specific supervision questions. These questions focused on specific facets of supervision (e.g., power, multiculturalism, feminism, self-efficacy, social justice) that provided insight into how to improve the experiences of supervisees and guide changes on the supervision process.

In 2019, Enlow et al. conducted an analogue design study in which they provided three vignettes from trainees to highlight specific supervisor behaviors. The behaviors of interest were those that influenced the supervisory experience and were related to the supervisory work alliance (SWA). The SWA is described as a construct that evaluates the amount of agreement between the supervisor and supervisee regarding the objectives of

supervision, how those objectives will be accomplished and the level of confidence that what is completed in supervision will ultimately help the supervisee reach those objectives. The authors proposed that the interactions between a supervisor and supervisee are vital to the strength of the SWA and can ultimately predict the SWA. The authors' goal was to provide a look into the supervisory relationship from the perspective of the supervisee. In the first vignette the supervisee experienced a developmental mismatch with her supervisor in that he told her how to conduct her therapy without asking her plans which elicited the assumption that she was not at the level of creating her own plan for the client. In the second vignette, the supervisee is judged based on her inability to not meet deadlines during a stressful life event. Even though the supervisee was able to return to satisfactory levels, her performance was still judged as if her inability to make deadlines was a typical occurrence rather than due to a specific life event. In the third vignette the supervisor took the perspective of limiting negative feedback even though the supervisee was having difficulty with time management. In addition, the supervisor paired the feedback with collaborative problem solving which ultimately increased the student's abilities. The first and second vignette demonstrated experiences within supervision that can weaken the SWA. In contrast, the third vignette demonstrated an experience that could strengthen the SWA. The authors recommended that based on these vignettes supervisors should keep in mind the supervisee's developmental level, focus on self-care and effective coping with the supervisee, provide positive and responsive feedback and address contextual factors that may affect supervisee performance (Enlow et al., 2019). Additionally, they recommended that supervisees should collaborate with their supervisors on their goals, talk about their

performance, be honest about previous experiences, express when they are feeling overwhelmed and when given feedback ask for steps to improve. This information was important to current study because it highlighted supervision experiences that were important to explore further. Specifically, it was useful to measure the SWA.

The purpose of the study by Starr and colleagues (2013) was to analyze the process of supervision and explore the meanings of supervision. The method of analysis was qualitative. The authors examined 19 female therapists who were working at a women's therapy center. In addition to exploring the supervisee's experiences, they also measured the orientation of the supervisee's supervisor and whether the supervisee's orientation matched their supervisor. The supervisors' orientations included gestalt, psychodynamic, attachment, psychoanalytic, and integrative. The results indicated that supervision was important for support, empowerment, and joining. Additionally, themes revealed fear of exposure during the supervision process compared to the opportunity to gain new information. Moreover, the comfort of supervision was compared to the challenge of it. Lastly, the students reported that there was a link between supportive supervision and feeling empowered (Starr et al., 2013). The results of the study are important because they examine the experiences of women supervisees being supervised by women supervisors. Although none of the supervisees identified their supervisors using feminist principles as their primary supervision style, it is likely that they are incorporating feminist principles to enhance empowerment and support within the supervisory relationship. The current study built off this previous research by specifically asking supervisees whether their supervisors engage in feminist supervision practices. This research procedure assisted in understanding whether the relationship between

empowerment and support was due to the orientation of the supervisor or rather, the feminist principles that are inherently utilized.

Quantitative Studies

In 2008, Gloria et al. investigated the self-reported multicultural supervision competence of 211 pre-doctoral interns who identified as White. The authors utilized a survey methodology that included the Cross-Cultural Counseling Competence Inventory (LaFromboise et al., 1991), which was revised by Gloria et al. (2008) to allow the supervisor to self-assess their competence. After completing an ANOVA, the results indicated that White female interns were more likely to report higher rates of multicultural supervision competence and higher amounts of time spent processing multicultural issues with their supervisee compared to the male interns. In addition, the results indicated that multicultural competence was significantly predicted by the number of supervisees an individual supervised over their career. The results from Gloria et al. (2008) are important for the current research because they suggest that supervisees with female supervisors may have a different multicultural experience than those who have male supervisors. The current study added to this prior research by identifying whether female supervisors who according to this prior research feel more competent in multicultural issues, actually displayed multicultural competence and whether this was recognized by the supervisee.

A sample of Marriage and Family Therapy supervisees was used to explore the relationship between the fit with a supervisor and satisfaction with a supervisor (Cheon et al., 2009). The authors utilized an 84-question online survey and administered it to 132 supervisees who were enrolled in a marriage and family therapy program. Within the

participant sample, 80% were female and 80% identified as White. One of the variables of interest was theoretical orientation for both the supervisee and supervisor. These options included solution-focused, structural-strategic, narrative, emotion-focused, cognitive behavioral, experiential and Bowenian with the ability to select three preferred theoretical orientations. Measures included the Working Alliance Inventory-Supervisee (WAI-S; Baker, 1991), the 13 question Role Conflict (RC) subscale of the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI; Olk & Friedlander, 1992). The authors came up with their own variable which comprised of six components (age, religion, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation and theoretical orientation), which was used to identify the level of match between supervisee and supervisor. They also asked supervisees to indicate the setting in which supervision occurred, length of supervision, and the total amount of supervision experienced. To measure satisfaction with supervision, the authors utilized 15 of the 20 items on the Supervision Outcomes Survey (SOS; Worthen & Dougher, 2000). Results indicated that the WAI-S significantly predicted the SOS. Supervisor-supervisee match however was not significantly associated with the SOS and WAI-S. These findings were important for the current study because they suggested that regardless of whether the supervisee self identifies as feminist and also perceives their supervisor as utilizing feminist principles, they may still not report satisfaction with supervision. This suggests that other components to the supervisory relationship beyond the matching of theoretical orientation were important to explore such as working alliance. Additionally, it suggested that although satisfaction with supervision is important, it was useful to explore other outcomes such as self-efficacy. Limitations

included having a homogeneous sample and the perception of both the supervisor and supervisee was not assessed.

In 2016, Duffey et al., conducted a study on relational-cultural theory and developmental relational counseling. Relational-cultural theory suggests that individual growth occurs through relationships. Developmental relational counseling suggests that relationships with others can be affected by how an individual perceives their worth and the worth of others. It is argued that within a developmental relational counseling framework, if an individual does not perceive their own worth or another individual's worth correctly, they may not be able to build strong, compassionate and realistic relationships with others. Duffey et al., (2016) were interested in evaluating the effectiveness of using a developmental relational counseling model in supervision and measured outcomes using a relational cultural theory grounded instrument. Participants within the study were 146 master's level students who were enrolled in a CACREP-accredited program. Approximately 85% of the sample were women. The racial demographics of the sample was a strength in that their sample consisted of 38% Hispanic, 31% White, 13% African American / Black, 2% Asian Indian, 2% Middle Eastern, Arab American or Egyptian, and 4.1% did not indicate their race. The study used a demographics questionnaire and an adapted relational health index, which aimed at gathering information on the growth fostering characteristics of a relationship. Results indicated that supervisees preferred supervisor relationships that focused on accurate relational awareness, compassion, clarity, feedback receptivity and responsible use of power. These findings were important to the current study because they suggested that supervisees may prefer supervisory relationships in which they are able to feel heard and

respected. It was important based on this research to understand the types of supervisors who provide this satisfactory relationship. Thus, the current study explored whether a particular orientation or knowledge base of a supervisor contributes to an effective supervisory relationship.

A year earlier in 2015, Eisenhard and Muse-Burke examined supervisee perceptions of supervisor style, focus, emphasis, and competency. Supervisees were also asked to indicate how well their needs were being met in supervision. The sample consisted of 114 doctoral students who had completed coursework for various doctoral programs including clinical, counseling or school psychology. Approximately 81% of the sample was female, 80% were White and 84% were heterosexual. The authors utilized the Supervisor Emphasis Rating Form-Revised (Lanning & Freeman, 1994), the SSI (Friedlander & Ward, 1984), Supervisee Needs Index (Muse-Burke & Tyson, 2010) and the Competencies of Supervisors (Borders & Leddick, 1987). Statistics used included a one way between-groups MANOVA with the dependent variables being professional behavior skills, process skills, personalization skills and conceptualizations skills from the Supervisor Emphasis Rating Form-Revised. The independent variable was the three different internship sites: forensic/correctional, inpatient psychiatric hospital, and college counseling center. Post hoc one-way ANOVA was used to assess the differences between professional behavior skills and personalization skills based on internship site. Stepwise multiple regression assessed the amount that supervision emphasis accounted for the variance in supervisee needs. Results indicated that supervisors in forensic/correctional settings were more likely than supervisors in college counseling centers to promote professional behavior skills (Eisenhard & Muse-Burke, 2015). Furthermore, those from

college counseling centers emphasized a higher focus on personalization skills compared to the forensic/correctional institution supervisors. Lastly, supervisee needs were significantly predicted by whether or not the supervisor focused on process skills. The study was unique in that it was able to identify whether the setting in which a practicum student conducts their training can have an effect on supervision. A limitation of this study is that the authors only examined students from forensic/correctional, inpatient psychiatric hospital and college counseling centers. This study is important however because it focuses on the perception of supervisees which was a focus for the current study. The current study built off of this research by incorporating other perspectives regarding training that were important in current times such as multiculturalism and social justice. These findings indicate that in the current study it was important to consider the context in which training is taking place to understand whether it can have an effect on supervisee experiences. A larger more diverse sample in the current study benefited this area of research.

A quantitative study to identify which type of supervisory style was related to supervisee satisfaction with supervision and perceived self-efficacy was conducted by Fernando and Hulse-Killacky (2005). The study included 82 students who were enrolled in a CACREP-accredited counselor education program. The participants were 92% female and 67% White with an additional 25% reported as African American. The measures utilized included the SSI (Friedlander & Ward, 1984), Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ; Ladany et al., 1996), and the Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992). The SSI is a measure that evaluates the supervisor in the areas of attractiveness (e.g., friendly, trusting), task-orientation and interpersonal

sensitivity based on the supervisee's perspective. Analyses included two multiple regressions to evaluate if personality style would significantly predict satisfaction with supervision and supervisee self-efficacy. The results indicated that 53% of supervisee satisfaction was explained by supervisor style (Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005). All three supervisor styles were significantly related to satisfaction and self-efficacy. The results of the study were important to the current research because they suggested that perceptions of a supervisor can be significantly linked to supervisee outcomes. The study was limited in that it did not address issues of multiculturalism and it evaluated supervisor style rather than orientation. The current research expanded upon this study by further evaluating the supervisee perspective and incorporating these elements along with expanding the sample to other levels of training such as doctoral students.

In 2001, Ladany et al. studied the supervisor perspective on supervisory style, SWA, and supervisor self-disclosure through a quantitative study. The study included 137 counselors who were conducting supervision. Within the sample, 80 were female and 119 identified as White. Of the 137 participants it was reported that 80% held doctoral degrees. The participants completed the SSI (Friedlander & Ward, 1984), WAI-S (Baker, 1991), and the Supervisor Self Disclosure Inventory (Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999). The results indicated that the way in which supervisors viewed their supervisory style significantly correlated with how they perceived their alliance and self-disclosure (Ladany et al., 2001). More specifically, when the supervisor believed they were friendly and supportive, they were more likely to report that they believed the supervisory relationship to have agreement and trust. Additionally, supervisors who perceived their style to be more sensitive and attractive were more likely to believe they utilized self-

disclosure. A limitation of the study was that these results were purely from the perspective of the supervisor and may be biased. A supervisee's perspective would strengthen this previous research and was therefore the focus of the current study. An additional limitation of the study was that it could not draw causal conclusions about the relationship between supervisory style and supervision outcomes. Lastly, the sample was primarily White, which was improved upon with a more diverse sample in the current research.

In 1993, Swanson and O'Saben conducted a quantitative study to examine the relationship between a trainee's cognitive style, program membership, amount of practicum experience and needs and expectations for supervision. The study included 57 students from counseling psychology, clinical psychology and counselor education programs,75% of whom were female. Measures included the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers & McCaulley, 1985), Counselor Development Questionnaire-Supervisory (Reising & Daniels, 1983), and the Supervisor Perception Form-Trainee (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984). Results were analyzed using regression analyses. Amount of practicum experience, cognitive style and program membership significantly predicted the expectations and needs regarding supervisory experience (Swanson & O'Saben, 1993). Amount of practicum experience accounted for the most variance compared to cognitive style and program membership. A limitation of this study was the low response rate and homogenous sample. Additionally, this study was conducted over 25 years ago and the results may not be generalizable to today's supervisees. These findings were important however because they suggested that it was important to examine the number

of years of experience a trainee has and whether that was affecting their perspectives on their supervisors and their individual outcomes.

In 2012, Leiber conducted a quantitative study examining the needs of supervisees. Leiber (2012) wanted to examine the relationship among supervisee needs, supervisor self-disclosures, supervisory style, and the SWA. The author furthermore wanted to validate the Supervisee Needs Index (Muse-Burke & Tyson, 2010), thus this measure was used to assess the needs of supervisees within their study. The study included 141 doctoral level students who were completing their internship. The authors hypothesized that trainees whose supervisors utilize self-disclosure, have an attractive and interpersonally sensitive style, and have a strong working alliance would report higher likelihoods of their needs being met in supervision. Results indicated that supervisee needs were significantly related to a supervisor displaying an attractive subtype (e.g., friendly, trusting). Supervisee needs were found to be most significantly affected when the supervisor displayed interpersonal sensitivity. A limitation of this study is that it did not specify which needs were met for the supervisee and the measures that were used to assess supervisee needs had little reliability or validity evidence. The results did however demonstrate that a supervisor's approach to supervision can have a significant effect on supervisee outcomes. The current research expanded upon this past research by exploring theoretical orientation instead of style, using both doctoral and masters level students and capturing specific supervisee outcomes such as self-efficacy and supervisee satisfaction.

Findings from the vast amount of literature on supervision indicates several themes which include the idea that supervisory relationships that incorporate equal power

and gender discussions will lead to trainee empowerment, self-disclosure, feeling supported, and having a stronger working alliance (e.g., De Stefano et al., 2017; Starr et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2007). Furthermore, satisfaction in supervision is related to the type of supervision style a supervisor uses (Fernando et al., 2005). Research also suggests that supervisees prefer supervisory relationships with compassion, clarity and responsible use of power (Duffey et al., 2016). As indicated by Green and Dekkers (2010), feminist supervision practices may be a way to incorporate these elements into their training experience to ensure supervisee satisfaction and success. For these reasons, I argued that feminist supervision was an important construct to explore further in the literature and will now be discussed.

Feminist Identity Development

In this next section, I discuss the research that has been conducted on feminist identity development. I begin with the qualitative studies and finish with the quantitative studies.

Qualitative Studies

Women from China, Nicaragua, India, Poland and the United States were interviewed during a study conducted by Frederick and Stewart (2018). The authors were interested in identifying feminist identity development themes from women who were currently involved in women's activism across the globe. Using semi-structured interviews, the 45 female participants revealed six core themes related to feminist identity development (Frederick & Stewart, 2018). These themes included emotion, violence, activism, education, social relationships and gender-based injustice. Furthermore, the results indicated four different pathways in which feminist identity developed, including

(a) activism and emotion, (b) violence, (c) social relationships, (d) gender-based injustice, and (e) education. The results of this study were important for the current research because they exemplified that education was a component by which an individual develops their feminist identity. Supervision is a form of education and therefore was important to understand more specifically how supervision plays a role in a trainee's feminist identity.

An additional qualitative analysis was conducted by Diekmann (2015). Within her dissertation, she explored how women who identified as feminist make sense of their feminist identity and career path. Through semi-structured interviews, Diekmann (2015) found four themes including: (a) personal journey to feminism, (b) empowerment and authenticity, (c) community of support and (d) adversity experienced. Of interest to the current study was the finding that half the participants reported difficulties with fit at their place of employment (Diekmann, 2015). More specifically, participants reported that their needs were not being met. This finding was important to the current research because practicum could be viewed as similar to employment and it begged the question of whether feminist identified trainees would be satisfied with their supervision. Based on Diekmann's (2015) findings, supervisee satisfaction in supervision was explored further.

To expand upon the Downing and Roush (1985) study, Fraley (2003) used a qualitative methodology and examined how feminist women experience and assign meaning to their lives during the transition period between the embeddedness-emanation and synthesis stages. The authors recruited eight women who identified as feminists who were currently living in the Southern United States. The findings from the study indicated eight themes including (a) interpersonal issues; (b) femininity; (c) feminist activism; (d)

working toward a sense of balance in various life roles; (e) parenting issues; (f) feminist symbolism; (g) identifying as a feminist in the South; and (h) religious and/or spiritual life. Although the current study did not directly examining the stages of feminist identity, these findings were important because they illustrated that identifying as a feminist encompasses many other issues apart from what is identified in the core definition.

Quantitative Studies

Feminist identity and feminist attitudes have also been linked to self-efficacy in the literature. Eisele and Stake (2008) examined over 400 college students. Participants were asked to complete a survey that measured feminist identity, feminist attitude and general personal self-efficacy. Results of the quantitative analysis indicated that feminist attitude and feminist identity were significantly related to self-efficacy (Eisele & Stake, 2008). Additionally, the results indicated that the relationship between feminist attitudes and self-efficacy was significantly mediated by feminist identity. This study is highly important to the current research because it explored feminist identity and self-efficacy which are a focus of the current research. Furthermore, the findings from this study indicated that within the current research, the supervisee's self-efficacy reports may be significantly related to their feminist identity. The current research expanded upon this previous study by exploring the concept of feminist supervision in addition to feminist identity to understand if having a mentor who is using feminist principles would relate to the trainee's reported counseling self-efficacy. Furthermore, the previous study was limited to a sample of college students who were currently enrolled in a women's and gender studies class, thus it was important to know if these results were generalizable to counseling and clinical psychology students.

In 2011, Leaper and Arias explored the feminist identity and coping responses to sexism in a sample of diverse ethnic female undergraduates. The authors utilized a survey to collect their data and analyzed the results using hierarchical regression. The findings from the study revealed that feminist identification was significantly correlated with exposure to feminism and gender-egalitarian attitudes. Furthermore, it was found that those who self-identified as a feminist were more likely to seek social support when exposed to sexual harassment. The findings from Leaper & Arias (2011) suggested that if a trainee in the current study reported that their supervisor utilizes feminist supervision principles, it was possible that they also may have reported identifying as a feminist based on their exposure to feminism. It was also possible that self-identified feminist supervisees might seek social support from their supervisors based on these findings. A limitation of this study is that it did not explicitly explore the female counseling trainee population, which may have a different feminist experience than the larger college population. In addition, this study was limited in that it only explored social support as a coping mechanism. It would have been beneficial to know if participants engaged in activism or sought consultation from their supervisor. Thus, the current study expanded this literature by focusing on the feminist experiences of counseling supervisees.

Feminist identity development was studied in a sample of 233 undergraduate women by Liss and colleagues (2001). Participants were provided with surveys and the results were examined by using a MANOVA and logistic regression analyses. The goal of the study was to understand what factors were linked to feminist identity development in a sample of college age women (Liss et al., 2001). Results indicated that feminist identity was significantly linked to not having conservative beliefs, having a positive

outlook on feminists and endorsing the revelation and embeddedness stages of identity development. The current study collected a sample of women who were slightly older than the sample used by Liss and colleagues (2001) due to the graduate education requirement. Results likely varied based on this change. Furthermore, the results from Liss and colleagues (2001) indicated that those who endorse a feminist identity may also be less conservative and have a positive view of feminists. It was hypothesized that if trainees with feminist identities view their supervisor using feminist principles they may have a more positive outlook on their supervisor and inherently be more satisfied in supervision.

An additional study that explored the factors linked to feminist self-identity was conducted by Nelson and colleagues (2008). More specifically, the authors were interested in understanding how life experiences influenced the beliefs of participants and in turn, how those beliefs influenced their feminist self-identity. Similar to Liss and colleagues (2001), a sample of 282 college women completed an online survey. Structural equation modeling was used to explore the relationships between variables (Nelson et al., 2008). Results of the study indicated that life experiences significantly affected beliefs and these beliefs significantly related to feminist self-identity. These life experiences included being exposed to feminism and experiencing sexism. The specific beliefs that were significantly correlated with feminist identity included having less conservative views and a more positive view of feminists. Therefore, the findings were similar to Liss and colleague's (2001) research. However, both studies are over 10 years old at this time. Thus, it was important to investigate the current population of feminists,

specifically those within the counseling profession to understand their experiences and views on feminism.

Research has also indicated that women who have more exposure to feminist principles will be more likely to have less negative evaluations of feminists (Reid & Purcell, 2004). Over 100 undergraduate women who were majoring in psychology were asked to complete surveys that asked questions relating to feminist views and experiences. Based on previous research that had suggested that exposure to feminism can lead to greater likelihood of becoming a feminist, the authors conducted a quantitative study to explore the mediators of the relationship. The findings from the study were comparable to other studies (Nelson et al., 2008; Liss et al., 2001) such that if you are exposed to feminism, you are more likely to have a more positive view of feminists. What was missing from this previous research however is the question of whether being exposed to feminism is linked to self-identifying as a feminist and feeling satisfied in the relationship with that individual who is expressing feminist principles, such as a supervisor. Thus, the current research explored this question through an additional quantitative study.

Self-identifying as a feminist has not only been linked to positive views of feminists but also feminist activism (Yoder et al., 2011). In an internet survey study, 220 college women were asked about their feminist identity, beliefs, and activism. Participants who identified as feminist were more likely to engage in feminist activism. Furthermore, the authors found that self-identification as a feminist was more strongly linked to activism than feminist beliefs. This study is important for the current research as it links feminism and activism which are both concepts of interest for my study. To

expand on this past research, I examined how being matched with a supervisor who advocates feminist principles in their supervisory work is linked to personal self-identification as a feminist for supervisees. Based on these previous findings, it was hypothesized that supervisees who identify as feminists also have higher levels of activism.

Feminist Supervision

In this next section, I discuss the research that has been conducted on feminist supervision. I begin with the qualitative studies and finish with the quantitative studies.

Qualitative Studies

Recently, Arczynski & Morrow (2017) investigated in a qualitative study how supervisors who identify their supervision style as feminist multicultural, both understand and implement their theoretical stance in supervision practices. The authors utilized purposeful snowball sampling, which led to 14 participants (11 women, 3 men). Out of the 14 participants, 12 identified as counseling psychologists. Participants were asked to answer the question "How do self-identified feminist multicultural psychotherapy supervisors conceptualize and practice feminist supervision that is explicitly multicultural?". Researchers used semi-structured interviews and a follow up interview along with a feedback interview. The method was guided by a feminist constructivist grounded theory design and analysis. The results indicated a seven category framework with the primary category being power in the supervisory relationship. The other six categories included "bringing history into the supervision room, creating trust through openness and honesty, using a collaborative process, meeting shifting developmental asymmetries, cultivating critical reflexivity, and looking at and counterbalancing the

impact of context" (Arczynski & Morrow, 2017, p. 195). The findings from this study highlighted the importance of exploring power in the supervisory relationship from the supervisee's perspective. This research also suggested that although supervisors are able to articulate important aspects to feminist supervision, the question still remains whether these principles are actually enacted and create positive change in supervisee outcomes. To expand this research, my study utilized a quantitative methodology, a larger more diverse sample, and included supervisee perspectives.

In 2008, Prouty Lyness & Helmeke conducted a qualitative study to determine whether mentoring relationships are part of the feminist clinical training relationships within family therapy. The study selected participants through criterion-selective sampling and utilized feminist supervisors in marriage and family therapy who were supervising at least two therapists. Additionally, the sample included at least one of the therapists who was being supervised. The total sample included 16 participants. The authors conducted interviews with participants using a grounded theory framework. Three themes emerged during the interviews including guidance, managing power within the relationship, and empowering therapists to professionally self-define. The results indicated that when supervisors utilized feminist strategies within their supervision, they were able to guide trainees to new resources and interventions in a collegial way that ultimately enhanced their therapeutic skills, confidence, and ability to develop their professional identity. Additionally, trainees reported a balance in power with their supervisor that allowed for open communication and the ability for trainees to feel safe to learn and explore. The findings from this study suggested that in the current study, differences may have emerged in trainee outcomes between trainees who have

supervisors utilizing feminist principles compared to those who do not. These differences may have presented themselves as related to power dynamics, feeling empowered and feeling guided by their supervisor. Expansion was needed on this previous study to account for a larger more diverse sample that includes perceptions of not only feminist supervisors but other types of supervisors as well. Furthermore, random sampling from a variety of programs beyond just marriage and family therapy reduced bias and error within the current study.

A qualitative methodology was used by Baird et al., (2007) to explore feminist identity development in male therapists. Participants included 12 male therapists ranging in education level. Eight had a PhD and four had MA level degrees. Participants were asked nine open ended questions to explore their feminist identity development with a goal of understanding how feminist identity affects the counseling process and to understand the experiences of a male with a feminist perspective. Results indicated that the development of a feminist identity in these men was influenced most by having exposure to feminist women both in professional and personal contexts. In particular, the men identified that due to their feminist identity they were able to have an awareness of male privilege and feelings of isolation. These findings were important because they highlighted that feminism is not exclusive to women and it can have beneficial results for male therapists as well.

Quantitative Studies

Szymanski (2005) conducted a quantitative study to examine whether feminist supervision practices were related to self-reported feminist identity and other beliefs related to feminism. The authors utilized the Feminism Supervision Scale (FSS;

Szymanski, 2003) on a sample of 135 individuals (94 female, 41 male) who were currently conducting clinical supervision. Within the participant sample, 84% were White and the participants conducted supervision across a variety of training sites including college counseling centers, hospitals, veteran's administration and community mental health centers. Feminist identity development was measured using the Feminist Identity Development Scale (Bargad & Hyde, 1991) and feminist theories were measured by the Feminist Perspectives Scale (Henley et al., 1998). Participants completed the study using a web-based survey. Results indicated that sex, sexual orientation, and active commitment to feminist social change were predictive of feminist supervision practices. More specifically, it was found that participants who identified as female, lesbian, gay or bisexual were more likely to utilize feminist supervision practices compared to males and those who identified as heterosexual. Furthermore, the results indicated a strong correlation between women of color, feminist supervision and radical feminism which indicates that multiculturalism and activism were important concepts to explore in the current study (Szymanski, 2005). A limitation of this study is that it was not able to explore the supervisee's perspective or outcomes based on the supervisor's supervision. Thus, in my study I explored the effect of feminist supervision practices on supervisees to understand if it affected their own identity and activism.

Approximately 10 years ago, Green and Dekkers (2010) conducted a quantitative study to explore the use and influence of feminist supervisory practices on satisfaction and learning outcomes from the perspective of supervisees and supervisors in Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education-accredited programs. The researchers were interested in knowing whether or not during supervision

there is attention paid to diversity and power from supervisors. The second question researchers were interested in knowing was whether this attention to power and diversity would lead to satisfaction in supervision for both the supervisor and supervisee. Lastly, the authors investigated if attending to power and diversity would relate to supervisee learning outcomes as reported by the supervisor and supervisee (Green & Dekkers, 2010). The authors utilized 42 supervisees and 22 supervisors. The supervisees were 81% female, 95% heterosexual and 76% White. The supervisors were 68% female, 96% heterosexual and 96% White. Each participant completed a 70 item online questionnaire. The measures used included the FSS (Szymanski, 2003) and the Supervision Feedback Form (L. Williams, 1994). Results of the study indicated that although supervisors believed they were attending to all aspects of feminist supervision practices (power analysis, diversity, social context, collaborative relationship, feminist advocacy), supervisees felt that they had only attended to the categories of diversity and social context. Additionally, it was found that when the supervisor utilized more feminist practices in supervision, the supervisee reported higher levels of satisfaction. Finally, it was more likely for supervisees to feel they had met their learning outcomes when their supervisor utilized feminist practices. A limitation of this study was the homogenous sample that was relatively small. If the authors were interested in aspects of diversity and power it may have been helpful to include participants with more racial diversity and different levels of education such as both master's level and doctoral level students. These findings were important for the current study because they indicated that feminist practices in supervision can have a significant effect on student outcomes. This research is similar to the current study and provided a foundation by which to expand and improve

upon. The current study also provided a more recent investigation into this area which produced different results compared to a decade ago due to cultural, societal and educational changes.

In 2019, McKibben et al. investigated the predictive relationship between a feminist supervisory approach and supervisee nondisclosure, along with the potential mediating effect of the supervisory relationship through a quantitative study. The sample included 111 master's-level counseling interns. The sample was 86% female and 76% White with an average age of 29 years old. The measures utilized included the FSS (Szymanski, 2003), Short Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (Cliffe et al., 2016), and the Supervisee Nondisclosure Scale (SNDS; Ellis & Colvin, 2016). Results indicated that if a supervisee perceived their supervisor utilizing more feminist behaviors then the supervisee was more likely to report that they had a strong relationship with their supervisor and that they were able to share information from their supervisor (McKibben et al., 2019). Additionally, it was found that the relationship between supervisee nondisclosure and feminist supervision was partially mediated by the supervisory relationship. This previous research is important for the current study because it suggests that supervisee's trust and willingness to be open with their supervisor could depend on whether they perceive their supervisor to be utilizing feminist principles. The success of supervision depends on the student being able to express their concerns or ask questions, thus it is important that the current study expand this research to emphasize the importance of feminist supervision principles and the effect on supervisee outcomes.

In (2006), Arbel conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between perceptions of supervisor feminist practices and supervisee outcomes of

satisfaction with supervision and self-leadership. The study included 678 supervisees who were recruited through their membership in the American Counseling Association (ACA). The sample consisted of 77% females and 23% males. The author used the Supervisees' Perception of Feminist Supervision Scale (Szymanski, 2003), SSQ and the brief Self-Leadership Scale (Steinhardt et al., 2003). The results of the study indicated that supervisees who rated their supervisors as using feminist supervision principles also rated them as attentive to activism, power and diversity (Arbel, 2006). Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation between supervision satisfaction, supervisee leadership and perceived supervisor feminist supervision use. A limitation of this research is that it was not able to measure perceptions of a supervisor beyond the feminist identity scale. It also was limited in its use of outcome measures for supervisees and the sample could have included more participants than just those who were members of the ACA. The study was important however to the current research because it utilized similar measures and provided a foundation to build upon. Arbel's (2006) research was expanded upon by adding supervisor multiculturalism, supervisee self-efficacy, feminist identity and social justice advocacy.

The research within the field of feminist supervision has indicated that when trainees view their supervisors as utilizing feminist supervision tactics, they are more likely to experience confidence, open communication, willingness to disclose and a strong relationship with their supervisor (McKibben et al., 2019; Prouty et al., 2008). Furthermore, the literature suggests that there are strong connections between feminist supervision, social justice advocacy and multiculturalism (Arbel, 2006; Szymanski,

2005). Additional research in the field of multicultural competence supports these conclusions and will now be discussed.

Multicultural Competence

I now discuss the research that has been conducted on multicultural competence. I begin with the mixed method studies, followed by the qualitative studies and finish with the quantitative studies.

Qualitative Studies

A grounded theory study was conducted by Ancis and Marshall in 2010 to explore supervisee perceptions of culturally competent supervision. The study included four graduate students who were enrolled in two different doctoral psychology programs in the southeast United States. Within the sample there were two men and two women. In-depth semi-structured interviews were utilized to collect information from participants regarding their perceptions of culturally competent supervision. The results of the study indicated that supervisees valued when their supervisor openly discussed their multicultural competence in addition to their limitations (Ancis & Marshall, 2010). The supervisees also reported that they viewed multicultural discussions as helpful in supervision as it allowed them to understand themselves and their clients. Furthermore, when supervisors self-disclosed aspects about their cultural biases and backgrounds, the supervisees reported that they felt higher levels of comfort in sharing their own cultural perspectives. Lastly, it was found that in addition to multicultural discussions, the supervisees experienced discussions of advocacy with their supervisors. By having these conversations, supervisees reported feeling encouraged to engage in advocacy themselves. This research was extremely important to my study as it highlighted the

importance of multicultural discussions and competence within the supervisory relationship. More specifically, it pointed to the idea that multicultural competence can have a large effect on supervisee perceptions of themselves and their ability to feel comfortable in supervision as well as advocate for their clients. A limitation of this study was that it had a very small sample size and it also may have benefited from some objective quantitative measures. My study improved on this research by incorporating the supervisee's perspective of a supervisor's feminist supervision practices in addition to their multicultural competence. I was also able to assess for a direct relationship between supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes via quantitative measures.

A critical incident study was conducted in 2013 by Wong et al. to investigate the cross-cultural supervision experiences of minority graduate students who were enrolled in a counseling program. The 25 students within the study were individually interviewed and asked questions regarding their experiences with helpful and unhelpful supervision. They were also asked to identify examples of when they felt supervision was effective and when it was not effective during their training. The results indicated that two of the five main themes that emerged through the interviews was multicultural supervision competency and the relationship between supervisor and supervisee. Notably, students reported negative experiences when they felt their supervisor lacked multicultural competency and when there was a lack of a safe and trusting supervisory relationship (Wong et al., 2013). These findings were critical to the current study as they highlighted the importance of multicultural competency and strong supervisory relationships to create an effective supervision experience. The current study expanded on these findings by exploring not only multicultural aspects of the supervisor but also the feminist principles

they utilize in their supervisory practice which is important for a trusting supervisory relationship.

Gender-related events within supervision was examined by Bertsch et al. in 2014. The purpose of the study was to examine whether the Critical Events Model could be applied to the supervisory process. Within the supervisory process, the authors wanted to focus on gender-related events. The authors utilized a consensual qualitative research-modified methodology. The results of the interviews suggested four different gender-related incidents which included gender discrimination, attraction, power dynamics and gender identity interactions (Bertsch et al., 2014). Important to the current study, was the finding that gender discrimination was significantly negatively related to the supervisory working alliance and the supervisee's perception of their supervisor's gender-related multicultural competence (Bertsch et al., 2014). These findings were critical to the current research because they suggested that gender-related events within the supervision experience may have a significant effect on how competent the supervisee feels their supervisor is in multicultural issues and how highly they rate the supervisory relationship. It was useful to explore these gendered experiences through a quantitative methodology in the current research and to explore whether feminist supervision principles were related to higher multicultural competence and satisfaction within the supervisory relationship.

More recently, Koch and colleagues (2018) explored student perceptions of multicultural competency in their faculty. The sample included 10 counseling psychology doctoral students who were enrolled in APA-accredited counseling psychology programs. The authors utilized semi-structured interviews that covered seven different open-ended

questions. Results of the study indicated themes related to faculty expertise, faculty-student relationships and faculty as agents of social justice (Koch et al., 2018). More specifically, students reported that multicultural competence was an important factor that faculty needed to incorporate within their program and the students acknowledged how these multicultural skills could be potentially translated into a clinical setting. Furthermore, participants reported that multicultural conversations with faculty members allowed the students to feel more comfortable and safe with the faculty member. Additionally, students recognized that a major indicator of social justice advocacy for faculty was if they demonstrated commitment to lifelong learning in multicultural competence. These findings were relevant to the current study because I used a similar sample but instead of exploring the student's perspectives of their faculty, I explored their perspectives of their clinical supervisor. I believed this previous research could be strengthened through a quantitative methodology that explores not only multicultural competence but also feminist supervision practices of the supervisor. Furthermore, I believed that it would be useful to explore the social justice advocacy of the student and understand if there is a link between the multicultural competence of the supervisor and their own advocacy.

As of last year, Wiley and colleagues (2021) conducted a qualitative study examining the degree to which clinical supervisors utilize strength-based and multicultural approaches. The sample included 14 licensed psychologists who were interviewed by the authors using a grounded theory paradigm. Through a semi-structured interview, the authors asked participants the extent and means by which they integrated multicultural and strength-based supervision approaches. After analysis, four major

domains emerged including: (a) supervisory approaches currently used, (b) multicultural content/integration of multicultural approaches, (c) strength-based content/integration of strength-based approaches, and (d) supervisor power and supervisee empowerment. One of the notable findings was that supervisors regularly integrated multicultural perspectives within supervision and were knowledgeable about multiculturalism and multicultural competence. The interviews revealed that supervisors who endorsed multiculturalism within supervision would often also integrate exploration of self-identity, experiences, and worldviews. Interestingly, supervisors reported that the multicultural lens by utilized often depended on the both the individual and the culture they were in. Lastly, supervisors indicated that they were less aware of the ways they used strength-based approaches. A common response among participants when discussing strength-based approaches was the strategy of identifying and building strength and self-efficacy in supervision. Additionally, the supervisors reported that strengths were dependent on the culture or context.

Wiley et al.'s (2021) results were important to the current research as they indicated that multicultural supervision techniques may be regularly implemented into the supervision experiences of supervisees. Furthermore, in the current research I was interested in examining how multicultural competence affected supervisee outcomes. Although Wiley's (2021) study was not published at the time I conducted my own research, it was useful in the current research because it provided a qualitative investigation into the supervisor perspective, which is a piece of the supervisory relationship that I could not collect. Furthermore, Wiley (2021) examined supervisor

factors, which may have accounted for my current results involving supervisee self-efficacy, client empowerment and satisfaction in supervision.

Quantitative Studies

Supervisor multicultural competence from the perspective of the supervisee was also examined by Hutman and Ellis (2020). The researchers were interested in understanding if there was a relationship between perceived supervisor multicultural competence, supervisory working alliance and supervisee nondisclosures in supervision. The sample included 221 participants who were majority female (80%). Participants were asked to complete a survey that included the SNDS (Ellis & Colvin, 2016; Siembor, 2012), the Supervision Working Alliance Inventory – Trainee Version (Bahrick, 1989), and the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (SMCI; A. G. Inman, 2006). Multiple regression analyses revealed that SWA was a significant predictor of supervisee non-disclosure (Hutman & Ellis, 2020). SWA was also strongly related to higher perceived supervisor multicultural competence, which was then associated with lower levels of supervisor non-disclosure. These findings suggest that both the supervisory working alliance and the supervisor multicultural competence are important for supervisee outcomes. Limitations of this study include that it was a cross-sectional design and the sample included primarily women who were psychology students. Interestingly this study found that the SWA was a better predictor of supervisee outcomes. Within my own study I explored whether the supervisor multicultural competence inventory SMCI had a strong association with other supervisee outcomes besides the SNDS such as self-efficacy and social justice advocacy.

Supervisor multicultural competence in relation to perceived supervision satisfaction was measured by Inman in 2006. The author utilized 147 participants who were currently enrolled in a marriage and family therapy program. Using a survey methodology, Inman (2006) asked participants to complete the SCMI (A. G. Inman, 2006), The Working Alliance – Trainee Version (Bahrick, 1990) and the SSQ (Ladany et al., 1996). Results indicated a strong significant positive correlation between the SMCI and SWA (Inman, 2006). In addition, there was a significant positive relationship between the SCMI and the SSQ. Therefore, the higher the supervisee rated their supervisor's multicultural competence, the more likely they were to report being satisfied with their supervision. A limitation of this study was that they utilized only marriage and family therapy students which may not be representative of other psychology graduate students from different disciplines such as clinical psychology or counseling psychology. Furthermore, only 22% of the original sample that the mail survey was sent to completed the entire survey, which may be linked to the length of the survey as indicated by Inman (2006). This finding suggests that those who completed the survey may have unique characteristics such as being interested in the particular research topic. In addition, there may have been some social desirability bias occurring due to the nature of self-report measures. In my current study I expected to find a similar association between supervisor multicultural competence and supervision satisfaction based on this research. I expanded this line of research by utilizing a different sample and exploring other supervisee outcomes such as self-efficacy in addition to satisfaction with supervision.

In 2015, Crocket and Hays conducted a study to develop and test a mediation model that examined relationships among supervisor multicultural competence, SWA,

supervisee counseling self-efficacy and supervisee satisfaction with supervision. The study proposed that supervisor multicultural competence and SWA were directly related to supervisee counseling self-efficacy, which was made up of micro skills, process, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence and awareness of values. Participants included 221 ACA graduate students who were enrolled in a practicum or internship (Crockett & Hays, 2015). The sample included both masters level and doctoral students, of which 75% reported as being White. Measures included were the SMCI (Inman, 2006), Work Alliance Inventory Short Form (Ladany et al., 2013), COSE (Larson et al., 1992) and the Trainee Personal Reaction Scale Revised (TPRS-R; Holloway & Wampold, 1984). Structural Equation Modeling indicated that the mediation model provided a better fit to the data. Supervisor multicultural competence moderately contributed to the development of supervisee counseling self-efficacy but SWA did not influence self-efficacy. SWA mediated the relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and satisfaction with supervision. The findings from this study are important for the current research because they indicate that supervisor multicultural competence may have a relationship with counselor self-efficacy. This research provided an excellent building block on which to expand upon in the current research by incorporating other aspects of supervision such as feminism. Additionally, although self-efficacy is an important outcome to understand in supervisees, the current study expanded Crockett and Hays (2015) work by evaluating other outcomes for supervisees such as feminist identity and social justice activism which provided further insight into training experiences.

An important addition to the literature was the study conducted by Phillips and colleagues in 2017 which examined the relationship between supervisee perception of

multicultural identity discussions in supervision and the effect on supervisee outcomes. The authors recruited 132 practicum students, 84% of whom identified as a woman and the average age was 29. The authors utilized the supervisory working alliance inventory-trainee form (Efstation et al., 1990), the RCRAI (Olk & Friedlander, 1992), the counselor activity self-efficacy scale-helping skills subscale (Lent et al., 2003), the multicultural self-efficacy – racial diversity – multicultural intervention subscale (Sheu & Lent, 2007) and three items that were designed by the researchers to measure supervisee perception of the depth of discussion of multicultural issues. Results indicated that the perceived depth of discussion of three multicultural identities (race/ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender) were significantly correlated with supervisee outcomes of SWA, counseling self-efficacy and multicultural intervention self-efficacy (Phillips et al., 2017). A significant negative correlation was found between depth of conversations and the RCRAI. These findings suggest that in addition to perceived multicultural competence of a supervisor, the depth at which the supervisee perceives the supervisor to discuss multicultural issues during supervision can have a large effect on supervisee outcomes. To expand this research, my study incorporated measures of feminist supervision practices in addition to measures of multicultural competency to gain a fuller understanding of supervisee perceptions.

Overall, the literature on perceived multicultural competence of a supervisor suggests that it can be an important factor in determining how understand and safe a supervisee feels, how much a supervisee discloses in supervision, how satisfied a supervisee is with supervision and the level of self-efficacy they experience (Ancis & Marshall, 2010; Crockett & Hays, 2015; Hutman & Ellis, 2020; Inman, 2006; J. C.

Phillips et al., 2017). Furthermore, findings indicate that multicultural competence is related to social justice advocacy (Koch et al., 2018). Thus, for my own study I explored multicultural competence from the supervisee's perspective to advance the research on how multicultural competence of a supervisor can affect supervisee outcomes. These included similar but also different outcomes that have been explored in the literature thus far including self-efficacy, feminist identity, satisfaction with supervision and social justice activism, which will be discussed in the next section.

Social Justice Activism

In this next section, I discuss the research that has been conducted on social justice activism. I begin with the mixed method studies, followed by the qualitative studies and finish with the quantitative studies. After this discussion, I discuss the purpose of my study.

Mixed Methods Studies

A mixed methods study to examine the social justice commitments of counseling psychology graduate students was conducted by Beer et al., (2012). The 260 students completed a survey that measured activism, training support, and personal variables such as morality and inner strength. The results of the quantitative portion suggested that students desired more social justice training within their programs. Furthermore, gender was found to be significantly related to social justice commitment. Women were more likely to confront discrimination compared to men (Beer et al., 2012). Lastly, social justice commitment was significantly predicted by the perceptions of their training environment. In the qualitative portion of the study, a subsample of seven participants who identified strong social justice activism were selected to be interviewed. The authors

used semi-structured interviews to ask the participants about their personal and professional training experiences, meanings of social justice and their social justice activities. According to the qualitative analyses, social identity was found to be strongly associated with social justice commitments. Individuals with marginalized identities indicated a stronger ability to feel empathy with minority groups, which contributed to their interest in social justice activism. A limitation of this study is that it did not examine the student's experience within their clinical placements and only examined their experiences in their educational programs. Clinical placements are often the environments that have a large effect on the student's exposure to minority groups and having an opportunity to be demonstrate social justice activism. These findings are important however because they suggest that in the current research it was potentially important to examine personal identity variables to fully understand the student's activism efforts and training experiences.

Qualitative Studies

A grounded theory qualitative study by Hagen et al. (2018) examined the definition and meaning of social justice activism in a sample of sexual minority women and transgender individuals. The authors collected data from 20 participants using a variety of sources including individual interviews, observation and memo writing. Results of the study indicated that participants felt that relationships and human connection were essential to understanding what is meant by social justice activism. The participants indicated that social justice activism includes collaborating with others, having role models and being part of communities or activist groups. An additional important finding was that when individuals reported engaged in social justice advocacy,

they also reported feeling more powerful and connected to others (Hagen et al., 2018). They also reported that the engagement helped heal their trauma and provided them with joy and pride. These findings are important because they align with the feminist multicultural theory that by engaging in social justice work, one may experience increased strength, empowerment and resilience (Morrow et al., 2005; Worell & Remer, 2003). A major limitation of the study by Hagen et al. (2018), is that it was conducted on a very specific sample has limited generalizability. Furthermore, the study may have benefited from a mixed method design that incorporated quantitative measures of social justice advocacy.

In 2016, Hoover and Morrow examined the meaning of social justice identity for supervisees who had previously attended a social justice oriented, feminist multicultural practicum site (Hoover & Morrow, 2016). The study included 13 participants who completed interviews, focus groups and follow up interviews through a phenomenological lens. Participants were all female, majority White and had attended the practicum site for one academic year. During the focus groups, participants were asked how they would define social justice, what their role in social justice is, and they were also asked to explain how their engagement with social justice relates to their other identities. The participants' interviews resulted in themes of being authentic, resisting oppression, taking responsibility, leveraging privilege, accepting self and one's efforts, and covert action. Hoover and Morrow's (2016) research was valuable to the current study because it shed light on the aspects of social justice advocacy that supervisees may identify with, particularly if they have a experiences in feminist multicultural supervision and clinical work. The current study examined feminism, multiculturalism and social

justice advocacy, thus it was imperative to reflect on Hoover and Morrow's (2016) qualitative work for a better understanding of the quantitative results that were collected.

Quantitative Studies

The predictors of feminist activism were examined in a quantitative study by Swank and Fahs (2014). The sample included 159 students who were currently enrolled in a Bachelor of Social Work program. Approximately 90% of the sample was female and 85% of the sample was White. To measure feminist activism, the authors created their own measure and asked participants to indicate whether they had engaged in various behaviors that were indicative of activism such as signing a petition, writing a letter and going to a lawful demonstration. Approximately 25% of the sample indicated they engaged in a form of electoral feminist activism and 14% indicated they had protested for women's rights. The results indicated educational attainment was a significant predictor of feminist activism. Individuals who completed more coursework were more likely to have participated in feminist activism (E. Swank & Fahs, 2014). Additionally, the results indicated individuals were more likely to engage in feminist activism if they recognized heterosexist discrimination and internalized a commitment to social justice. Lastly, the results demonstrated that peer relationships and being part of activist networks were strong predictors of feminist activism. The findings from the study were important for the current research because they explored factors that related to feminist activism, which has limited research to date. Furthermore, the study was conducted in a sample of students who were within the psycho-social field, which is directly relevant to the sample that was studied in this research. A major limitation of this study was that it did not utilize a validated measure of feminist activism, which may have limited or influenced the results.

Furthermore, it would have been useful to have the sample indicate whether they identify as feminist, which may elucidate why there was low activism in the sample. The current study built upon these limitations by including these types of discussed measures and expanded the work to include other factors that may predict activism such as supervision and self-efficacy.

An additional quantitative study on a sample of counseling graduate students by Nilsson and Schmidt was conducted in 2005. The authors investigated the factors that contributed to social justice advocacy in a sample of 134 counseling graduate students. The authors measured social justice advocacy, supervisee's values and characteristics, concern for the welfare of others, beliefs, values and assumptions as well as demographics. The results of the study indicated counseling graduate students were most likely to engage in social justice advocacy if they had a strong desire for involvement in social justice advocacy and if they had strong political interests (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). A limitation of this study was that it relied on a sample who were from a midwestern university, which may have implications for the levels of social justice advocacy found. A goal of the current study was to collect a sample that included counseling students from across the nation that would provide more generalizable results. Additionally, the measure used in this study to assess social justice advocacy was published in 1969 and may not accurately capture the activism of today's students. Thus, a validated and more recently published advocacy measure was used in the current study. Regardless of these limitations, this study was important because it indicated that it was useful to consider social justice advocacy in the current study.

A recent publication by Keum & Miller (2020) investigated the advocacy intentions of counseling psychology students in relation to peer relationships, perceptions of social justice norms and social justice attitude. The authors utilized 178 doctoral students and asked them to complete an online survey which incorporated subscales from the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and the peer relationship scale (Chui et al., 2014). Keum and Miller (2020) utilized group actor-partner interdependence modeling to analyze their data. The results suggested that social justice attitudes were marginally predictive of social justice intentions. Peer relationships however were found to be a significant moderator between social justice intentions and social justice norms, such that if students had closer peer relationships and higher social justice norms, they were more likely to have greater social justice intentions. These findings were interesting because they pointed to the peer relationship as a significant factor in determining social justice advocacy. The current study expanded this research by evaluating whether the supervisory relationship can also have a significant relationship with social justice advocacy.

In 2018, Luu and Inman published a study that examined feminism, multiculturalism and their relation to social justice advocacy in supervisees. The sample included 235 female counseling supervisees. Participants were asked to complete the Feminist Identity Composite (FIC; Fischer et al., 2000), The Multicultural Environmental Inventory-Revised (Pope-Davis et al., (2000), the Social Justice Training Environment Supports and Barriers scale (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011) and the Social Justice Advocacy scale (SJAS; Dean, 2009). Findings indicated that all three factors (feminism, multiculturalism and social justice training) were important in predicting the supervisee's

social justice advocacy (Luu & Inman, 2018). Higher levels of feminist identity were associated with higher levels of social justice advocacy. Having a social justice training environment was found to be a better predictor of social justice advocacy compared to having a multicultural training environment. These findings were important to the current research because they highlighted the interconnectedness of feminism, multiculturalism and social justice advocacy. A limitation of this research was that the sample was predominantly White (81%). Additionally, it would have been useful to study not only the supervisee's feminist identity but also whether the supervisees felt supported in feminist principles from their training. My research aligned closely with this study but diverged in the measures I used to enhance the supervision and social justice advocacy research.

Based on the research, there is a predominant finding that social justice advocacy in supervisees can be predicted by a multitude of factors including but not limited to perceptions of one's training environment, experiencing more social justice coursework and training, in addition to having a stronger feminist identity (Beer et al., 2012; Luu & Inman, 2018; E. Swank & Fahs, 2014). Social justice advocacy is an important construct to explore within a supervisee because it has also been shown to be associated with higher levels of empowerment (Hagen et al., 2018). Thus far however in the literature, there has been limited research exploring the effect of perceptions of supervisor multicultural competence and feminist supervision practices. Research indicates that each of these three topics are interrelated (Inman, 2006; Luu & Inman, 2018). Therefore, I believe that my study has advanced the field of social justice advocacy by incorporating these principles of feminism, multiculturalism and social justice advocacy into one

cohesive study that has shed light on current experiences of supervisees. This leads me into the purpose of my study.

Purpose of the Study

Within today's society there is a growing emphasis on the feminist movement and multicultural awareness, which advocates for the equality of women, racial and ethnic minority groups, and other marginalized populations. In the counseling profession, the majority of therapists and psychologists are now women (Fowler et al., 2018), and a growing number of therapists identify with marginalized groups. As more women and culturally diverse therapists enter the field it is important to examine their experiences within the training process to enhance their efficacy, confidence and professional growth. Inside the field of education, there are several different perspectives on supervision modalities which includes the important practice of feminist supervision and multicultural competence. In recent years, few studies have explored feminist supervision, multicultural competence and their application to current supervisees who are experiencing and expressing contemporary ideas and values related to feminism and multiculturalism. It is important to understand the supervisee's perspective to ensure that their needs are being met by current supervision standards. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore from the supervisee's perspective a supervisor's use of feminist supervisory practices and competency in multicultural issues. The goal was to understand if these supervisory experiences are related to supervisee outcomes such as self-efficacy, social justice activism, satisfaction with supervision and personal feminist identity. To complete this research, a canonical correlation analysis was conducted in which on one side was the perceived supervisor variables of feminist supervision and multicultural

competence, and on the other side was the supervisee outcome variables of self-efficacy, satisfaction in supervision, social justice advocacy and feminist identity. At this time, I now introduce my methodology.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In Chapter III, I discuss my methodology for my study. I begin with my research design, which is followed by the discussion of my participants, procedures, and measures. I discuss each instrument in detail and then finalize my methodology section with my data analyses.

Research Design

My study utilized quantitative methods, which collect and analyze nomothetic data from a large sample of participants (Heppner et al., 2015). Quantitative data typically relies on numbers rather than language, which is used in qualitative research. My study utilized a survey to collect this numerical data with a goal of exploring the associations between supervisor variables and supervisee variables. A correlational research design was used to explore these relationships.

A correlational research design is used when a researcher wants to examine the strength of a relationship among different variables of interest. Statistical analysis in a correlational design typically includes a Pearson product moment correlation which produces a correlation coefficient known as *r* (Heppner et al., 2015). The correlation coefficient ranges from -1.00 to 1.00 and indicates the strength of the relationship between the variables. The square of the correlation represents the amount of variance

shared between two variables. A limitation of a correlational design is that it cannot provide information regarding cause and effect between variables. When using a correlational design, the researcher does not manipulate the variables of interest.

A correlational research design is appropriate for my study as I was not manipulating the data. The correlational research design allowed me to explore the strength of the relationship between supervisee's perceptions of supervisor usage of feminist supervision and supervisor multicultural competence, and supervisee self-efficacy, feminist identity, satisfaction with supervision, and social justice advocacy. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Cleveland State University Institutional Review Board.

Participants

Participants within this study were selected from a convenience sample that was comprised of master's level and doctoral level students who were enrolled in a Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Program (CACREP), American Psychology Association (APA) accredited counseling psychology, or APA-accredited clinical psychology program. To be eligible for the study, students had to be currently participating in either practicum or internship. All participants were 18 years or older and were required to self-identify as a woman for their gender. This study had a goal of recruiting a minimum 150 participants, which would provide adequate power for the analyses. This sample size goal was larger than the minimum ratio of participants to independent variables of 10:1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Students were recruited via emails sent to training directors of master's level and doctoral level programs.

A total of 158 participants who identified as women completed the study. The self-reported race/ethnicity included White (62%), Black or African American (10%), Mixed (9%), Asian or Asian American (8%), Latino/a/x or Hispanic (6%), and other (4%). Eight of the participants identified as international students and participants' ages ranged from 21 through 55 years old ($M = 27$; $SD = 4.03$). The sample was also moderately diverse in sexual orientation: heterosexual (71%), lesbian or gay (7%), bisexual (17%), pansexual (2%), queer (2%) and one participant preferred not to say. The sample included a variety of education levels including 124 (78%) PhD, 22 (14%) PsyD, 7 (4%) MEd, 5 (3%) MA. Among the programs that participants were enrolled 82 (52%) were from Clinical Psychology, 65 (41%) Counseling Psychology, 7 (4%) Clinical Mental Health Counseling and 4 (3%) other.

Table 1

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

	n	%
Race / Ethnicity		
White	98	62
Black or African American	16	10
Mixed	15	9
Asian or Asian American	13	8
Latino/a/x or Hispanic	9	6
Other	6	4
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	112	71
Lesbian or Gay	11	7
Bisexual	27	17
Pansexual	3	2
Queer	2	2
Program Type		
PhD	124	78
PsyD	22	14
MEd	7	4
MA	5	3

	n	%
Program Specialization		
Clinical Psychology	82	52
Counseling Psychology	65	41
Clinical Mental Health Counseling	7	4
Other	4	3
Program Year		
1st	5	3.2
2nd	33	21
3rd	42	27
4th	34	22
5th	35	22
Theoretical Orientation of Supervisor		
Family Systems	4	2
Dialectical Behavioral Therapy	8	5
Feminist	8	5
Integrative	10	6
Acceptance and Commitment Therapy	12	7
Interpersonal	13	8
Psychodynamic	15	10
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy	88	57

Note. $N = 158$. Participants were on average 27 years old ($SD = 4.03$).

The students reported being enrolled in their graduate programs for various lengths of time, among them 42 (27%) were in their 3rd year, 35 (22%) 5th year, 34 (22%) 4th year, 33 (21%) 2nd year and 5 (3.2%) were in their 1st year. On average, the students had 35 months of counseling experience with individual clients and they had spent an average of nine months with their supervisor about whom they completed the survey measures. When asked what primary theoretical orientation their supervisor utilizes in supervision, the participants provided a variety of responses including family systems (2%), dialectical behavioral therapy (5%), feminist (5%), integrative (6%), acceptance and commitment therapy (7%), interpersonal (8%), psychodynamic (10%) and cognitive behavioral (57%). Lastly, gender identity of supervisors included women (69%) and men (31%).

Procedures

The initial stage of recruitment involved collecting the emails of doctoral and master's level training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology, APA-accredited clinical psychology and CACREP-accredited mental health counseling programs. Contact information for these training directors was gathered from the APA website (https://www.accreditation.apa.org/accredited-programs) and the CACREP directory (https://www.cacrep.org/directory/). I selected a random sample of 50 individual programs from each of the different types of programs (counseling, clinical, mental health counseling) to be sent the recruitment e-mail. I restricted the sample to include programs were active and had current practicum or internship students. Additionally, I asked training directors to forward my recruitment email to their students,

which included a brief synopsis of my study and a link that directed them to my survey on Qualtrics.com.

My survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete. I asked for basic demographic data as well as responses to various measures assessing for perceived supervisor use of feminist supervision principles, self-efficacy, multicultural competence, working alliance and satisfaction of supervision. Upon completion of the survey, I sent every participant a $10 Amazon gift card via their provided e-mail as an incentive if they completed the survey in its entirety. Eight participants declined gift cards but completed the study. I informed participants that their information was kept confidential and secure. In addition, their e-mail for the Amazon gift card was not associated with their survey responses.

Instruments

My study included the Feminist Supervision Scale (FSS; Szyzmanski, 2003) that was modified as outlined by Green and Dekkers (2010) to assess for supervisee perceptions of their supervisor's use of feminist supervision. Additionally, my study included the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Index (SMCI; Inman, 2005), Counselor Self Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992), Trainee Personal Reaction Scale Revised (TPRS-R; Holloway & Wampold, 1984), Feminist Identity Composite (FIC; Fischer et al., 2000) and the Social Justice Advocacy Scale (SJAS; Dean, 2009).

Demographics

Participants responded to a variety of demographic questions that assessed for race, ethnicity, age, gender, sexual orientation, year in their respective program, program

specialization, practicum placement setting, length of time they had spent with their most recent supervisor, gender of their supervisor and years of experience counseling.

Feminist Supervision Scale

The FSS (Szymanski, 2003) is a 32-item scale that incorporates a 1 *(almost never true)* to 7 *(almost always true)* Likert scale to assess the level of feminist practices a supervisor employs in their practice of supervision. Higher scores indicate higher levels of feminist practices. The FSS was created by Szymanski in 2003. The FSS is made up of four subscales (Collaborative Relationships (CR), Power Analysis (PA), Diversity and Social Context (DSC), and Feminist Advocacy and Activism (FAA) that assesses the feminist supervision practices among clinical supervisors. The development of the scale was completed by conducting two separate studies. The first study developed the FSS items and assessed reliability and convergent validity. Study one used 108 participants with a mean age of 38.30 years who were currently or in the past year conducting supervision. Approximately 76% of the sample identified as female and 82% of the sample identified as White. To establish convergent validity, the FSS was correlated with two instruments. The instruments included a two-item measure developed by Szymanski (2003) that assessed the degree to which participants self-identified as a feminist supervisor through a Likert scale. The two-item measure was reported to have a Cronbach alpha of .92. The second instrument included 10 items from the Gender Role subscale of the Liberal Feminist and Ideology Scale (Morgan, 1996) (α = .77). Exploratory factor analyses using principle component analysis with oblim rotation resulted in elimination of items that had factor loadings less than .40. The factor analysis procedure reduced the number of items to the final 32-item scale, which accounted for

54% of the variance in the data. Internal consistency (alpha) for the FSS Full = .95. Moderate to high alpha scores ranging from .74 to .93 were found for the FSS subscales. Convergent validity was indicated by significant correlations between the FSS and self-identification as a feminist supervisor ($r(106) = .738, p < .001$), liberal gender role attitudes ($r(106) = .39, p < .001$), and feminist therapeutic behaviors ($r(106) = .78, p < .001$).

The second study by Szymanski (2003) was a confirmatory factor analysis (Szymanski, 2003). The sample included 164 participants who had a mean age of 43.12 years. Approximately 63% of the sample identified as female and 82% of the sample identified as White. The results of the CFA indicated a good to excellent fit of the data $x^2 / df = 1.67$, GFI = .95, CFI = .99, NFI = .97 and AGFI = .90. The factor loadings resulted in a range of .80 to .95 and the latent variables' (CR, FAA, DSC and PA) intercorrelations ranged from .20 to .76. To determine discriminant validity, Szymanski (2003) utilized the Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS; Ponterotto et al., 1996) and the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI; Efstation et al., 1990). The results of the second study indicated high internal consistency as indicated by an alpha of .95 for the FSS Full Scale. The individual subscales also had high internal consistencies with alphas of .95 FAA, .72 CR, .94 DSC, and .85 PA. Discriminant validity analyses revealed that there was a significant correlation between the FSS and the MCKAS ($r (162) = .62, p < .001$). Additional discriminant validity analyses indicated a significant correlation between the FSS and the

SWAI ($r(162) = .43, p < .001$). These significant correlations suggest that the FSS may have strong theoretical similarities to both the MCKAS and the SWAI.

Overall, Szymanski's (2003) research indicated that the items on the full scale FSS had strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .95$). Furthermore, subscales of the FSS demonstrated moderate to high internal consistency with alpha scores ranging from .74 to .93. Convergent validity of the FSS was demonstrated by significant correlations with self-identification as a feminist supervisor ($r(106) = .73, p = .001$), feminist therapeutic behaviors ($r(106) = .78, p = .001$) and liberal gender role attitudes ($r(106) = .39, p = .001$). However, the FSS appeared to have significant similarities to the MCKAS and SWAI. Further, the discriminate validity correlations with the MCKAS and SWAI are larger than the convergent validity correlation with liberal gender role attitudes subscale of the Liberal Feminist and Ideology Scale (Morgan 1996). These findings suggest that the FSS may actually be measuring multicultural knowledge and supervisory alliance aspects more than gender role attitudes. These results were accounted for in the analyses and discussion due this study measuring all three components of multicultural knowledge, supervisory alliance and feminist supervision practices. Based on the overall findings, I believed the FSS had strong reliability and validity evidence and was used in my study to examine feminist supervision behavior.

The FSS has been modified in previous research to measure supervisee perspectives of their supervisor's feminist practices. Green and Dekkers (2010) modified the word "I" with "my supervisor" within the measure to obtain this perspective. For the purpose of my study, the wording was modified as it was in Green and Dekkers (2010) study to allow measurement of the supervisee's perspective. The word "I" was replaced

with "My supervisor" in each of the 32 items. I provided the measure to participants after the conclusion of the Spring Semester, thus instructions were adapted to reflect that participants should rate their responses based on their most recent practicum or internship experience in the Spring. No other changes were made to ensure the validity of the measure. The modified scale was reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .96 for supervisees in the study by Green and Dekkers (2010) indicating high internal consistency. This finding was consistent with the results in the current study which revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .97. Construct validity was not investigated by Green and Dekkers (2010). The sample consisted of 42 supervisees who were currently enrolled in a Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy (COAMFTE) accredited program. The sample was predominantly female (81%). Additionally, the sample was largely made up of supervisee's who identified as White (76%). Results indicated a significant correlation between perceived feminist supervisory practices and satisfaction with supervision for the supervisee ($r = .73, p < .001$). Green and Dekkers (2010) concluded that future research may want to examine the effectiveness of feminist supervision, particularly on supervisee's counseling competencies and engagement in social activism. This is a recommendation that had yet to be explored in the field and was completed by this study. In the current study, I informed participants that all supervisor genders are acceptable to rate for feminist supervision practices.

Supervisor Multicultural Competence

To measure perceived supervisor multicultural competence in supervision, this study utilized the SMCI (Inman, 2005). The SMCI consists of 34 items and utilizes a 6-point Like Scale with response options ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always). The

measure was created by incorporating five dimensions of supervision that have consistently been identified as essential to understanding the personal development of the relationship between supervisor and supervisee (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Arnold, 1993; Falicov, 1995; Hird et al., 2001; López, 1997; Porter, 1995; Robinson et al., 2000; D. W. Sue et al., 1992). Supervisees are asked to rate the multicultural competence of their supervisor based on their own perceptions. Higher scores indicate that the supervisee feels the supervisor demonstrates higher multicultural competence in supervision. The 34 items are summed for a total score, which can range from 34 to 204. When creating the measure, Inman (2005) conducted a preliminary exploratory factor analysis which suggested a one factor solution. Convergent validity of the SMCI was supported by significant correlations with the Cross-Cultural Counseling Inventory-R (LaFromboise et al., 1991). In 2006, Inman demonstrated reliability of the SMCI in a sample of 147 marriage and family therapists with an average age of 33.44 years, $SD = 10.35$. The alpha coefficient for the study was .97, which is similar to the Cronbach's alpha of .98 that was reported by Beaumont in 2010. In 2015, Kissil and colleagues reported a Cronbach's alpha of .98 when utilizing the SCMI in a sample of 153 foreign born therapists between the ages of 23 and 69 ($M = 41$). This was consistent with my results, which indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .98 for the SMCI. Results also indicated that the SMCI was moderately significantly correlated with the Counselor Activity Self-Efficacy Scale's total score ($r = .27, p < .005$) (Lent et al., 2003). Similarly, Crockett & Hays (2015) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .98 when utilizing the SCMI in a sample of 221 counseling supervisees.

Counselor Self Estimate Inventory

The current study also utilized the COSE, which is a 37-item self-report measure developed by Larson et al., (1992). The COSE is used to assess the supervisee's perception of their self-efficacy in counseling clients. The measure consists of five subscales that assesses for microskills, awareness of values, difficult client behaviors, cultural competence and process. Participants are asked to rate their level of self-efficacy using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 6 *(strongly agree).* Higher scores indicate higher levels of self-efficacy in ability to counsel clients. The COSE demonstrated moderate convergent validity ($r = .51, p < .05$) through comparison with the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965, 1988) in a sample of 213 counselor supervisees. Additionally, Larson and colleagues (1992) found a significant negative correlation between the COSE and the State Anxiety Scale ($r = -.42, p < .01$) and the Trait Anxiety Scale ($r = -.51, p < .01$), which is evidence of convergent validity because theory suggests that higher self-efficacy is associated with lower rates of anxiety. Discriminant validity of the COSE was evidenced by low correlations ($r = .06$ to $r = .29$, $p < .05$) with items on the Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlow, 1960) that measured defensiveness and faking. When examining the reliability of the COSE, Larson and colleagues (1992) found that the COSE total had a Cronbach's alpha of .93. Subscales of the COSE also demonstrated high internal consistency with Cronbach's alphas of .88 (Microskills), .87 (Process), .80 (Difficult Client Behaviors), .78 (Cultural Competence) and .62 (Awareness of Values). Similar reliability estimates of the COSE subscales ($\alpha = .85$ (Microskills), $\alpha = .84$ (Process), $\alpha = .75$ (Difficult Client Behaviors), $\alpha = .76$ (Cultural Competence) and $\alpha = .55$ (Awareness of Values) were

reported by Crockett and Hays (2015) in a sample of 221 counselor supervisees. In the current study, results indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .74 for the full COSE, which is lower than previous reports but still acceptable.

Trainee Personal Reaction Scale and Trainee Personal Reaction Scale Revised

The Trainee Personal Reaction Scale (TPRS) was created by Holloway and Wampold (1983) who made minor changes to the CPRS (Ashby et al., 1957), with test-retest reliability equaling .79 (negative scale) and .52 (positive scale). In a 1979 dissertation study by Holloway, doctoral and masters level counseling students (N = 37; *n* = 28 females) participated in naturalistic design in which they were assigned supervisor and supervisee roles for simulated sessions. This study was later published by Holloway and Wolleat in 1981. In 1983, Holloway and Wampold conducted a study (N = 39; *n* = 9 supervisors, *n* = 5 women supervisors, *n* = 18 women supervisees) in which they utilized an analogue design of simulated supervision in which they were asked to audiotape supervision sessions with supervisees. These sessions were subsequently coded to assess for verbal behavior of each participant. Participants were asked to assess their level of satisfaction with supervision.

Using results from the 1980 and 1983 studies, Holloway and Wampold (1984) conducted a factor analysis which revealed three primary factors for the TPRS. These factors were then conceptualized as the following subscales: (a) evaluation of supervisor (b) evaluation of self as supervisee, and (c) level of comfort in the interview. Factor loading analyses were used to identify which items on the TPRS loaded onto each subscale. Cronbach's alphas were then calculated for each subscale to establish internal consistency, evaluation of supervisor (α = .89), evaluation of self (α = .71) and level of

comfort (α = .76) Overall, the average alpha for the three subscales was .78. Inter-subscale correlations indicated an average of r = .45.

The Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised

The Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R; Holloway & Wampold, 1984) is a 12-item measure that surveys trainee satisfaction with their supervision. Using a 5-point Likert scale, participants report their level of satisfaction with supervision from 1 (*not characteristic of my feeling*) to 5 *(highly characteristic of my feeling).* The scores are then summed for a total score, with higher total scores indicating higher levels of satisfaction with their supervision. For example, "Many of the things the supervisor said really hit the nail on the head" and "I got irritated at some of the supervisor's remarks." The TPRS-R is derived from the TPRS, which was used to measure the reactions of trainees to a particular supervision interview (e.g., naturalistic supervision or simulated supervision).

The TPRS was revised after Holloway and Wampold (1984) decided to further analyze items on the TPRS and wanted to ensure items would have reliable and relatively independent subscales. Internal consistency of the TPSR-R total score has been reported to range from .72 to .86 (Crockett & Hays, 2015; Ladany et al., 1999). An average internal consistency of .78 was reported for each of the subscales (Ladany et al., 1992). Discriminant validity and other measures of reliability have not been established via the literature. In the current study, the results indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .62, which was lower than expected based on previous literature.

Of note, Ladany and colleagues (1999) modified the TPRS-R to measure trainee reactions across a period of supervision rather than one single supervision session. They

adapted the TPRS-R's original instructions to read "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." For my study, I followed Ladany et al.'s (1999) modified instructions but changed the time period to "over the course of the most recent semester" since this survey was introduced to participants after their spring semester has ended.

Feminist Identity Composite

The FIC was developed in 2000 by Fischer and colleagues using a sample of 295 women ranging in age from 17 to 67 ($M = 37.26$, $SD = 13.29$). The composite is made up of 33 items and uses a 5-point Likert-type scale. The items are designed to measure the participant's beliefs associated with feminism and a social feminist identity. The FIC was developed using the best items from the Feminist Identity Scale (Rickard, 1987) and the Feminist Identity Development Scale (Bargad & Hyde, 1991) and is based on feminist identity development theory. The FIC comprises five subscales that are based on Downing and Rousch's (1985) five-stage model. The subscales include Passive Acceptance, Revelation, Active Commitment, Synthesis and Embeddedness Emanation (A. R. Fischer et al., 2000). Higher scores indicate more consistency with a particular acceptance stage of feminism. The sample utilized to develop the FIC was 91% White and 69% of the sample were women. Cronbach's alphas were reported as ranging from .68 to .84 for each of the five subscales. Additionally, several other studies have found Cronbach's alphas ranging from .60 to .91 for the five subscales of the FIC (Backus & Mahalik, 2011; Blue & Berkel, 2010; M. J. Erchull & Liss, 2013; A. R. Fischer & Good, 2004; Kucharska, 2015; Luu & Inman, 2018; Peterson et al., 2008). In the current study, results indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .83 for the Active Commitment subscale of the FIC, suggesting high internal consistency.

A replication study by Moradi and Subich (2002) was conducted on a sample of predominantly White (79%) undergraduate women and found similar results. The authors also found acceptable construct validity in the forms of convergent and discriminant validity by correlating the FIC with a similar instrument that measured social desirability and perceived sexist discrimination. Subscale scores of the FIC were explored by Yoder et al, (2011) and found to be significantly correlated with feminism and affective attitudes toward the feminist movement as measured by the Attitudes Toward Feminism and the Women's Movement (Fassinger, 1994) (α = .19 (Passive Acceptance), α = .32 (Revelation), α = .37 (Embeddedness/Emanation), α = .38 (Synthesis) and α = .50 (Active Commitment)).

One of the limitations of the FIC is that it was originally developed with a predominantly White heterosexual sample. The use of the FIC within a sample of Chinese women was explored by Liu and Zheng (2019). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis revealed six factors with the original synthesis subscale divided into two. The six-factor structure accounted for 34% of the variance in the sample of Chinese women. The revised FIC was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .75. Convergent validity was supported by significant correlations with the Willingness to Engage in Feminist Behaviors scale (Redford et al., 2018) (α = .25 (Passive Acceptance), α = .24 (Revelation), α = .31 (Embeddedness/Emanation), α = .15 (Synthesis) and α = .53 (Active Commitment)). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted by DeBlaere and colleagues (2017) on the FIC with a sample of sexual minority women. The results indicated that items in four of the subscales (Passive Acceptance, Active Commitment, Embeddedness Emanation and Synthesis) could be retained with a sexual

minority sample. Similar to Liu and Zheng (2019), the authors found a six-factor structure worked accounted for 48% of the variance in the sample of sexual minority women.

For the current study, only the Active Commitment Subscale of the original FIC was used. A suggestion by Fischer and colleagues (2000) was that researchers using the FIC should consider the areas of feminist identity they're interested in and use the appropriate subscales or the entire FIC. I used the Active Commitment subscale of the FIC because I was interested in how a supervisee not only self identifies as a feminist but also how they use their identity for activism both within and outside the counseling environment. Furthermore, the Active Commitment subscale would be appropriate for this type of research as I was looking at female counseling supervisees and I was interested in knowing how their feminist identity and work as a therapist is affected by their perception of their supervisor. Thus in total, this study included only the 9 items from the Active Commitment subscale of the FIC which may have been beneficial in reducing participant drop out as it is significantly less questions compared to the original 39 item FIC. During my analysis and discussion, I was conscientious about my sample's demographics and the implications for the results based on using only the Active Commitment subscale.

The Social Justice Advocacy Scale

The SJAS is a 42-item instrument that measures trainee social justice advocacy (Dean, 2009). The 43 items within the scale are associated with four domains that are measured which include Collaborative Action, Client Empowerment, Social/Political Advocacy and Client/Community Advocacy. The scale utilizes a 7-point Likert scale in

which trainees are asked to indicate their agreement with each of the provided statements regarding social justice advocacy. Trainees who report higher scores are more likely to be engaged and skilled in social justice advocacy.

Dean (2009) developed the SJAS by initially having 148 items. Expert ratings were utilized to ensure validity of the items which led to a reduction of items to 49. She then conducted an exploratory factor analysis on 112 graduate students in the fields of counseling and counseling psychology who had at least one semester of practicum experience. The sample primarily consisted of females (83%) and the majority of the sample identified as White (76%). On average, the participants had four years of counseling experience and 53% reported having an affiliation with a social justice organization. Data analyses revealed that the items had a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of .69, indicating that they were appropriate for factor analyses. Of the 49 items, seven of them were removed due to not meeting criteria which reduced the number of items to the final number of 42. Factor analyses revealed a four-factor model which accounted for 42% of the variance. An alpha level of .94 was found when conducting tests of reliability on the items, suggesting that they provided consistent responses. The SJAS was measured for concurrent validity and found to be significantly correlated with the Miville-Guzman Universal-Diverse Orientation Scale-Short Form ($r(89) = .30, p < .01$) (Fuertes et al., 2000), which measures perception of connection to diverse range of people. Additional concurrent validity was demonstrated by a significant correlation between the SJAS and the MCKAS ($r(81) = .53, p < .01$) (Ponterotto et al., 2012), which measures multicultural competency. These findings suggested that the SJAS was appropriately measuring what it intended to because research has indicated that having multicultural awareness and

competency, in addition to feeling connected to a diverse range of people is related to social advocacy (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1999; O'Brien et al., 2006; Toporek & Williams, 2006). One of the limitations of this study however was the small sample size, which may lead to lower reliability of factors. In addition, several of the factor loadings did not meet the criteria of .80 or higher, which suggests a replication study is needed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Several recent studies have successfully utilized the SJAS such as Luu and Inman (2018) who found the full scale to have an internal consistency estimate of $\alpha = .95$ in a sample of 235 female trainees. The authors also found acceptable alphas for the four subscales of (a) Collaborate Action ($\alpha = .93$), (b) Social/Political Advocacy ($\alpha = .88$), (c) Client Empowerment ($\alpha = .85$) and (d) Client/Community Advocacy ($\alpha = .72$). In my own study, the Client Empowerment subscale demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha of (.84). The SJAS was also used by Decker (2013) in her dissertation which explored counselor education, social justice advocacy and the likelihood to engage in advocacy in a sample of 112 counselor educators and trainees. The results from Decker (2013) indicated partial support of her hypothesis that social justice advocacy training would be correlated with advocacy efforts in counselor trainees. For example, for those who indicated they had received social justice training, there were significantly more likely to work at a societal level to develop alliances and lobby policy makers to promote fair polices in the workplace ($p = .01$). This SJAS was selected for this dissertation due its previous successful use in dissertations and publications with similar research interests.

For the purpose of my study, I used the Client Empowerment subscale of the SJAS. The sample chosen for this study encompassed students who were enrolled in

graduate level training. It was more likely that students would be working within the counseling environment to understand their clients from a social, political and cultural context and assisting their clients with self-advocacy. Once the students were independently licensed, I theorized that it would be most likely that they would be engaging in the other areas of advocacy that are measured within the entire scale based on graduated levels of responsibility standards in the profession. Thus, it seemed appropriate to use the 8-items from the Client Empowerment subscale from SJAS for the purpose of this study.

For the remainder of this paper, instead of using "feminist identity" I will be using "active commitment" because I utilized only the Active Commitment subscale of the FIC (Fischer et al., 2000). Additionally, I will utilize "client empowerment" instead of "social justice advocacy" as I used the Client Empowerment subscale of the SJAS (Dean, 2009).

Analyses

The current study utilized descriptive statistics, tests of normality, a Pearson *r* correlation matrix, and a canonical correlation analysis. The descriptive statistics include trainee year in school, number of months counseling, age, race, gender of supervisee, and gender of supervisor. All results were analyzed for normality using a Doornik-Hansen test. Furthermore, multicollinearity was examined to ensure it was not too high. Multicollinearity refers to the correlations between variables and indicates if the variables are too similar. To examine if any scores are outliers, I examined the Mahalanobis distance which provides an indication if a score is too far from the mean of other scores.

The canonical correlation was originally developed by Hotelling in 1935. A canonical correlation is used to examine the strength of the overall relationship between

two sets of variables (X and Y) (Cohen et al., 2003). The canonical correlations are produced by correlating the weighted linear combinations of the items from X and Y. These linear combinations are also known as canonical functions or canonical variates. A canonical correlation analysis has been found to be analogous to principle components analysis as it repeats the correlation process until all variance is accounted for. Only the canonical correlations that are able to explain a reasonable amount of the relationship between the variable sets are analyzed (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

To conduct a canonical correlation the data must have multivariate normality. There is also an assumption related to sample size in that researchers need a minimum of 10 cases per variable. Furthermore, a canonical correlation is most appropriate when the researcher has a rationale to treat the variables on each X and Y axis as two distinctive variable sets made up of multiple variables that theoretically combine appropriately. In the case of the current study, the X variate comprises the supervisor variables and the Y variate comprises the supervisee variables. Among the supervisor set of variables are the feminist supervision practices and multicultural competency measures and among the supervisee set of variables are feminist identity, satisfaction in supervision, self-efficacy in counseling skills, and social justice advocacy. The relationship can be visually examined in Figure 1.

An advantage of utilizing a canonical correlation is that it limits the risk of Type I error. Additionally, a strong advantage of using canonical correlation is that it honors the reality of psychological research. Lastly, a canonical correlation can be used instead of other parametric tests which can allow the researcher to be more comprehensive in their

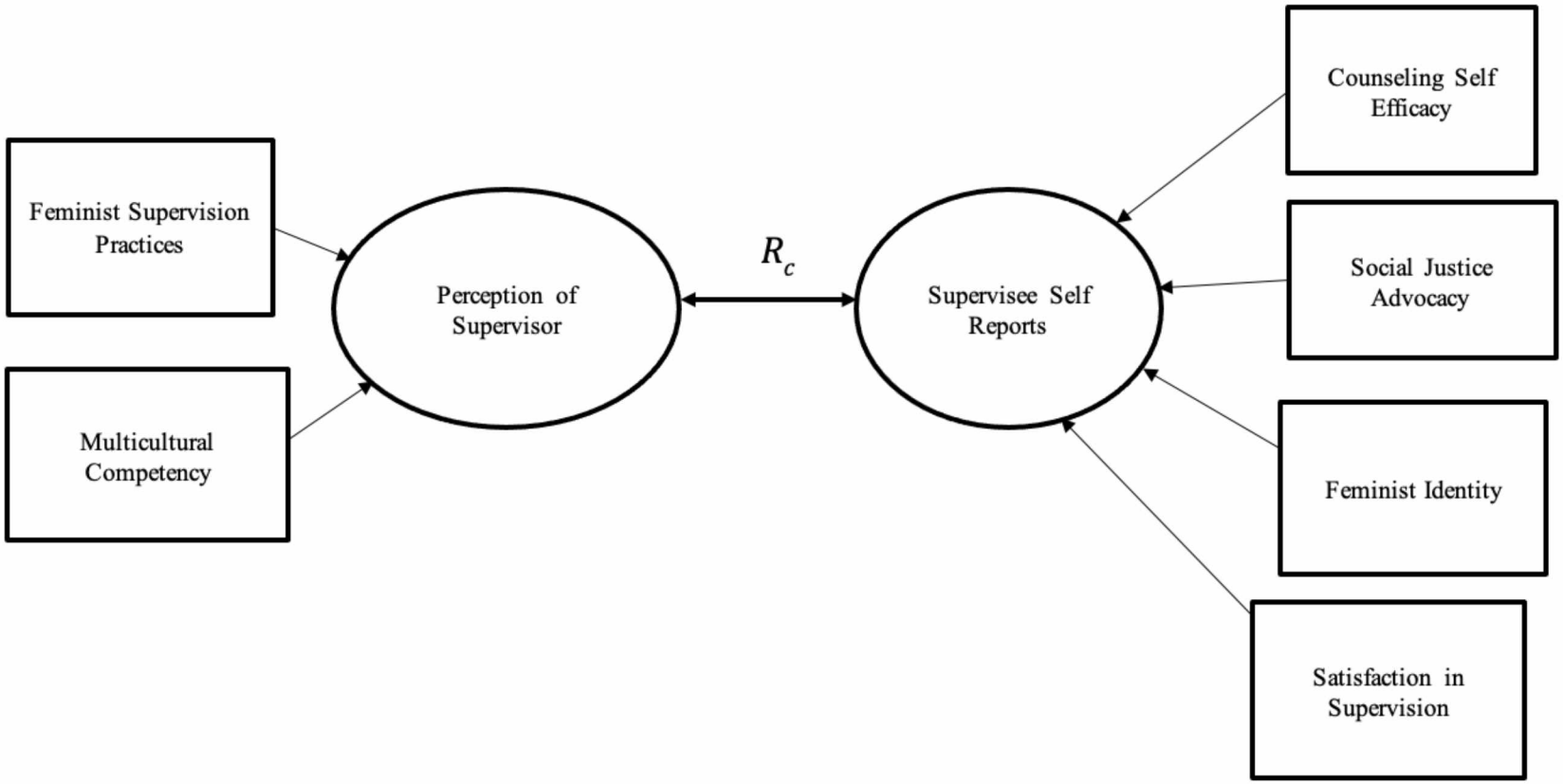
analysis. A limitation of canonical correlation analysis however is that it does not allow the researcher to determine the nature of the relationship between X and Y.

The canonical correlation produces a canonical correlation coefficient (R_c) which is described as the Pearson *r* relationship between the two synthetic variables on a canonical function (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The coefficient ranges from 0 to 1 indicating the strength of the relationship. I produced a canonical correlation coefficient to determine if a relationship existed between feminist supervision, multicultural competence and the supervisee outcomes of self-efficacy, feminist identity, supervision satisfaction and social justice advocacy (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I also produced a squared canonical correlation (R_c^2) which represents the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the two synthetic variables and is an indicator of effect size. Third, I produced a canonical function which is a set of standardized canonical function coefficients for each of the predictor and criterion variable sets. The canonical function allows for the researcher to examine the importance of variables and are similar to *B* weights in a multiple regression. In addition, I examined the structure coefficients (r_s) which are described by Sherry and Henson (2005) as the bivariate correlations between a variable and the variate. These correlations can range from -1 to +1. Eigenvalues, also known as squared canonical correlations, were also evaluated to provide an estimate of the shared variance of the canonical variates of the independent and dependent variables.

To complete the canonical correlation, I utilized the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The Software for Statistics and Data Science (STATA) was used to explore multivariate normality. A canonical correlation is considered an extension of univariate and multivariate statistical analyses (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

Figure 1

Canonical Correlation Model of Supervisor and Supervisee Variables



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Statistical analyses will be presented that were used to evaluate the primary research question and hypothesis established in the previous chapters. First, I present the data screening process and the reliability check of the instruments. Second, descriptive statistics are provided. Third, the canonical correlation analysis is presented. The results are then presented and interpreted based on the research aim, which included the goal of answering the question "Is there a relationship between perceived supervisor variables of feminist supervision and multicultural competence and the supervisee outcomes of counseling self-efficacy, active commitment, client empowerment and satisfaction in supervision?". After presenting results in Chapter IV, I discuss the findings in Chapter V.

Assumptions

A canonical correlation requires several assumptions to be met prior to completing the analysis. The data must first be reviewed for missing data and outliers, which can affect the power of the analysis and the strength of the correlation coefficients if present (Sherry & Henson, 2005). Second, the data must conform to the assumption of multivariate normality. The two sides of the model must also demonstrate a linear relationship. Lastly, it can be highly problematic if variables within the same side of the model are highly correlated with each other because this indicates that they may be too similar (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Missing Data, Power and Reliability

First, I analyzed the data set for missing data and sample size. Findings indicated no missing data and a sample size of 158 participants. For acceptable power, a canonical correlation analysis requires at least 10 cases (participants) for every variable in the social sciences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Therefore, for the current study I required at minimum 60 participants. My final sample included 158 participants, thus enough data was collected to ensure acceptable power in the analyses and proceed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Evidence of reliability for each variable was measured in terms of internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha (N = 158): Feminist Supervision Scale (.97) (FSS; Szymanski, 2003); Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory (.98) (SMCI; Inman, 2005); Counseling Self Estimate Inventory (.74) (COSE; Larson et al., 1992); Trainee Personal Reaction Scale - R (.62) (TPRS-R, Holloway & Wampold, 1984); Client Empowerment subscale (.84); and Active Commitment subscale (.83). Cronbach's alpha uses the mean of all inter-item correlations to assess the stability, or consistency, of measurement (Warner, 2013). Cronbach's alpha results of .70 or at least .60 and higher are generally considered to be acceptable in the social sciences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

All measures were in the acceptable range, however the TPRS-R presented a low alpha of .62. The TPRS-R is a measure that assesses supervisee experiences in supervision. It appeared that Item 6 "sometimes the supervisor seemed to twist around the things I said to mean something different than what I intended" was problematic because the majority of participants (n = 110) selected the same response of "Not characteristic of my feelings about the supervision session". Based on the question and answer selected it was hypothesized that many participants would agree that their supervisor listens to and understands their voiced perspective which is in line with the principles of supervision in the field of psychology.

Since the response coordinated with the expected conduct in supervision and the Cronbach's alpha is in an acceptable range, the item was not removed from the analyses. Next, I reviewed the data for outliers and normality.

Outliers and Normality

I examined all measures for outliers by examining their standardized *z* scores. Cases with standardized scores in excess of 3.29 ($p < .001$, two tailed test) are potential outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Two outliers (i.e., participants) were removed from analysis from the Counseling Self Estimate Inventory and one outlier score was removed from analysis from the TPRS-R due to having standardized scores in excess of 3.29. I then analyzed all measures for multivariate normality.

I analyzed the data using a STATA Doornik-Hansen test to assess if the data met the assumption of multivariate normality (Doornik & Hansen, 2008). The Doornik-Hansen test analyzes the skewness and kurtosis of multivariate data that is transformed to insure independence and normality. When working with multivariate data, the Doornik-Hansen test is more suitable than the Shapiro-Wilk test because it can control the size of the data better and has stronger power (Doornik & Hansen, 2008). Results of the Doornik-Hansen test on the two perception of supervisor variables (side 1) were non-significant, suggesting that the perception of supervisor measures met the assumption of normality x^2 (4) = 7.60, p = 0.12.

The results of the Doornik-Hansen test on the four supervisee outcome variables however, were significant, indicating that they violated the assumption of normality x^2 (8) = 94.61, p = .001. Additional analyses were run including the computation of skewness and kurtosis, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test. Results of the additional tests confirmed that the supervisee outcome variables violated the assumption of normality based on a significant p-value ($p < .05$) and would need to be transformed.

Linearity and Multicollinearity

Histograms of the supervisee outcome variables revealed that both the Active Commitment subscale and the Client Empowerment subscale had a moderate negative skew (Figures 4 & 5). The COSE had a moderate positive skew (Figure 2) and the TPRS-R had a substantial positive skew (Figure 5). I transformed each of the supervisee outcome variables based on their individual skewness using the recommendations from Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). The COSE, Active Commitment subscale and Client Empowerment subscale were transformed using a square root transformation. The TPRS-R was transformed using a logarithm transformation. After the transformations, I ran the Shapiro-Wilk test again, which revealed that the Active Commitment subscale was the only measure still violating the assumption of normality (p = .004). Based on recommendations from Leech, Barrett and Morgan (2014), I completed a square transformation on the original Active Commitment data and followed this by another Shapiro-Wilk test and a Doornik-Hansen test. Results indicated a significant Shapiro-Wilk test (p = .007) but a non-significant Doornik-Hansen test (p = .23). Although the Shapiro-Wilk test was significant, the Doornik-Hansen test, which can handle larger sample sizes and has higher power was non-significant. Based on the Doornik-Hansen test the Active Commitment data met the assumption of normality and analysis could proceed. The assumption of multivariate linearity was checked by visually inspecting scatter plots and including a fit line at total. Scatter plots demonstrated linear relationships (Figures 6-13), as opposed to curvilinear relationships, suggesting the assumption of linearity was met.

Lastly, I analyzed the data for multicollinearity which is defined as the occurrence of high intercorrelations between two or more independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Multicollinearity is calculated in SPSS by producing the Variance Inflation Factor

(VIF) and Tolerance. VIF scores > 10 and Tolerance scores < .10 are problematic. Results indicated VIF = 6.50 and Tolerance = .15, thus multicollinearity was not a concern and the canonical correlation analyses could proceed.

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients of each measure, untransformed and transformed are provided in Tables 2 and 3. In the untransformed data, there were significant correlations between the supervisor variables (the FSS and SMCI ($r(156) = .92, p < .001$)), and correlations between the supervisor and supervisee variables. I found significant correlations between the FSS and Active Commitment ($r(156) = .24, p = .003$), the FSS and TPRS-R ($r(156) = .19, p = .02$), the SMCI and TPRS-R ($r(156) = .17, p = .04$), the SMCI and Client Empowerment ($r(156) = .30, p < .001$). I also found that the supervisee variables significantly correlated with each other in the untransformed data such that there were significant relationships between the COSE and Active Commitment ($r(156) = .24, p = .002$), the COSE and TPRS-R ($r(156) = .27, p = .001$), the COSE and Client Empowerment ($r(156) = .19, p = .02$), the TPRS-R and Active Commitment ($r(156) = .16, p = .04$), and Client Empowerment and FIC ($r(156) = .52, p < .001$).

Within the untransformed data, I found that compared to prior research, my participants produced similar means and standard deviations on each individual measure. For example, in the sample used by Szymanski (2003), she reported a mean score of 5.46 ($SD = 0.91$) for the full FSS, which is similar to my mean score of 4.19 ($SD = 1.24$). Similarly, Arbel (2006) reported a mean score of 4.26 ($SD = 1.24$) when using the FSS. Research using the SMCI has found mean scores ranging from 4.26 ($SD = 0.96$) (Inman, 2006) to 4.10 ($SD = 1.06$) (Crockett & Hays, 2015), which is consistent but slightly

higher than my SMCI average score of 3.80 (*SD* = 1.21). In my supervisee variables, I also found similar mean scores, such that my participants reported an average COSE score of 138 (*SD* = 13.43), which is consistent with Larson and colleague's (1992) mean score of 141.6 (*SD* = 22.03). My participants also reported an average score of 4.01 (*SD* = 0.55) on the Active Commitment subscale of the FIC, which is higher than the average score from participants in the study by Fischer et al. (2000) (*M* = 3.42, *SD* = 0.54). One notable difference from prior research was my average scores on the TPRS-R. Participants in my study reported a mean score of 30.35 (*SD* =6.73) which is lower than the average score of 50.60 (*SD* = 7.60) found by Crockett and Hays (2015). Additionally, my results were lower than what was reported by Ladany et al. (1999) who found an average TPRS-R score of 48.51 (*SD* = 7.75). Lastly, my study found an average score of 5.68 (*SD* = 0.88) on the Client Empowerment subscale of the SJAS, which was consistent with average scores from research by Luu and Inman (2018) who used the same subscale (*M* = 5.40, *SD* = 1.02). Overall my scores were similar to prior research but as I previously mentioned my data had challenges with violating normality. Thus, transformations were required on my original data to conduct my analysis.

The Pearson *r* correlations between all transformed scales ranged from -.01 to .92. In the transformed data, I also found significant relationships between the supervisor variables and the supervisee variables. I found significant correlations between the FSS and Active Commitment ($r(153) = .24, p = .003$), the FSS and TPRS-R ($r(153) = .21, p = .01$), the FSS the Client Empowerment ($r(153) = -.27, p = .001$), the SMCI and Active Commitment ($r(153) = .20, p = .01$), the SMCI and the TPRS-R ($r(153) = .18, p = .03$), the SMCI and the Client Empowerment ($r(153) = -.27, p = .001$), the Active

Commitment and TPRS-R ($r(153) = .16, p = .05$), and the Active Commitment and Client Empowerment ($r(153) = -.51, p < .001$), My transformed data correlations were similar but slightly different to my untransformed data correlations. Notably, in the transformed data the Client Empowerment revealed a negative correlation with all other variables. I hypothesized a rationale for this relationship in my discussion.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Perceptions of Supervisor Measures and Supervisee Outcome Measures (N = 158)

Scale / Subscale	*M*	*SD*	α	1	2	3	4	5	6
Perception of Supervisor									
1. Feminist Supervision Scale	4.19	1.24	.97	--					
2. Supervisor Multicultural Competence Index	3.80	1.21	.98	.92**	--				
Supervisee Outcomes									
3. Counseling Self Estimate Inventory	138	13.43	.74	.11	.12	--			
4. Active Commitment subscale (FIC)	4.01	.55	.83	.24**	.20	.24**	--		
5. Trainee Personal Reaction Scale – R	30.35	6.37	.62	.21*	.17*	.27**	.16*	--	
6. Client Empowerment subscale (SJAS)	5.67	.88	.84	.29	.30**	.19*	.52**	.15	--

Note. The data are based on the sample prior to transformation and excluding outlier participants. FIC = Feminist Identity Composite. SJAS = Social Justice Advocacy Scale.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Perceptions of Supervisor Measures and Supervisee Outcome Measures (N = 155)

Scale / Subscale	*M*	*SD*	α	1	2	3	4	5	6
Perception of Supervisor									
1. Feminist Supervision Scale	4.19	1.24	.97	--					
2. Supervisor Multicultural Competence Index	3.80	1.21	.98	.92**	--				
Supervisee Outcomes									
3. Counseling Self Estimate Inventory	.32	.01	.74	.07	.04	--			
4. Active Commitment Subscale (FIC)	147.68	38.18	.83	.24**	.20*	.07	--		
5. Trainee Personal Reaction Scale – R	.12	.01	.62	.21**	.18*	.15	.16*	--	
6. Client Empowerment Subscale (SJAS)	.40	.13	.84	-.27**	-.27**	-.01	-.51**	-.14	-

Note. The data are based on the sample after transformations and excluding outlier participants. FIC = Feminist Identity Composite. SJAS = Social Justice Advocacy Scale.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Canonical Correlation

I conducted a canonical correlation analysis to answer the primary research question: Is there a relationship between perceived supervisor characteristic variables and supervisee self-reported outcomes? On one side of the model, there were supervisor variables which included perceived use of feminist supervision and perceived multicultural competence of one's supervisor. The other side of the model included self-reported supervisee outcome variables including counseling self-efficacy, client empowerment, active commitment, and satisfaction in supervision. High scores reflect more confidence in one's counseling ability and client empowerment, active commitment to being a feminist and being more satisfied in one's supervision experiences.

Untransformed Data.

I conducted a canonical correlation for both the untransformed and transformed data. First, I will discuss the untransformed data. The analysis yielded two functions with squared canonical correlations (R_C^2) of .11 and .01 for each successive function. The canonical correlation coefficient, or R_C^2, is the Pearson *r* relationship between the two synthetic variables on a given canonical function, and ranges from 0 to 1 (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The full canonical model was statistically significant Wilk's $\lambda = .87$, $F(8, 304) = 2.65$, $p = .008$. The full model accounted for approximately 13% of the variance between the variable sets across all functions. These results suggested that I could reject the null hypothesis that there was no relationship between perceived supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

Function 1 explained approximately 11% of the shared variance respectively. The standardized canonical function coefficients indicate the extent to which the discriminant variables affect the score. When examining Function 1, the relevant criterion variables were

primarily the TPRS-R (-.40) and the Client Empowerment subscale (-.68). Structure coefficients greater than .60 are heavy loadings, coefficients from .40 to .60 are considered moderate loading, and coefficients below .40 are considered weak or low loading. Loadings of less than .30 are not interpreted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). These findings were supported by the squared structure coefficients of (-.55) and (-.88) respectively. Higher loadings on the TPRS-R indicate higher satisfaction with supervision. Furthermore, higher loadings on the Client Empowerment subscale indicate more engagement in social justice efforts for clients. Regarding the predictor variable set in Function 1, the FSS was the primary contributor to the predictor synthetic variable as indicated by a standardized canonical coefficient of (-.74). This finding was supported by the squared structure coefficient of (-.99). Therefore, there was a positive relationship between the FSS and the TPRS-R and Client Empowerment subscale. Lastly, the structure coefficient and squared structure coefficient for the Active Commitment subscale should be interpreted with caution. The structure coefficient was moderate (-.68) however, the squared structure coefficient was very low (.27). This finding is likely related to the model being weak overall. Function 2 to 2 was non-significant, $F(3,153) = .76$, $p = .51$. All results presented thus far have been on the untransformed data, I now review the results of the transformed data analysis.

Table 4

Canonical Solution for Significant Canonical Root of Untransformed Data ($N = 158$)

Variables	Root 1		
	Coef	r_s	r_s^2 (%)
Set 1 Perception of Supervisor Variables			
Feminist Supervision Scale	-.74	**-.99**	.98
Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory	-.28	**-.96**	.50
Set 2 Supervisee Outcome Variables			
Active Commitment Subscale (FIC)	-.25	**-.68**	.27
Trainee Personal Reaction Scale	-.40	**-.55**	.12
Client Empowerment Subscale (SJAS)	-.68	**-.88**	.77
Counseling Self Estimate Inventory	-.05	-.35	.12

Note. Structure coefficients r_s greater than .4 are in bold face. *Coef* = Standardized Coefficient; r_s = Structure Coefficient; r_s^2 = Squared Structure Coefficient

Transformed Data.

The analysis yielded two functions with squared canonical correlations (R_C^2) of .104 and .02 for each successive function. The full canonical model was statistically significant Wilk's $\lambda = .88$, $F(8, 298) = 2.42$, $p = .01$. The full model accounted for approximately 12% of the variance between the variable sets across all functions. Table 5 provides the standardized canonical function coefficients, structure coefficients, squared structure coefficients and the communalities (h^2) for Function 1. When examining Function 1, the relevant criterion variables were primarily the TPRS-R (-.47), the Client Empowerment subscale (.52) and the Active Commitment subscale (-.41). These findings were supported by the squared structure coefficients of (-.59) and (.76) and (-.72) respectively. It is important to note that the squared structure coefficient of the Active Commitment subscale demonstrated improvement in the transformed data compared to the untransformed data. Higher loadings on the Active Commitment subscale indicate stronger identification as a feminist. Notably, in the transformed data, the Client Empowerment subscale indicated a positive canonical loading, suggesting that it was inversely related to the other supervisee outcome variables. This finding was supported by the negative correlations between the Client Empowerment subscale and all other supervisee (Table 3).

Regarding the predictor variable set in Function 1, the FSS was the primary contributor to the predictor synthetic variable as indicated by a standardized canonical coefficient of (-1.37) with a secondary contribution by the SMCI (.43). This finding was supported by the squared structure coefficient of (-.99) and (-.84). Therefore, there was a significant relationship between the perceived supervisor variables (FSS, SMCI) and three of the four supervisee outcome variables (TPRS-R, Client Empowerment subscale and Active Commitment subscale). Finally, Function 2 was non-significant, $F(3,150) = .98$, $p = .49$

Table 5

Canonical Solution for Significant Canonical Root of Untransformed Data (N = 155)

Variables	Root 1		
	Coef	r_s	r_s^2 (%)
Set 1 Perception of Supervisor Variables			
Feminist Supervision Scale	-1.38	**-.99**	.98
Supervisor Multicultural Competence Inventory	.43	**-.84**	.71
Set 2 Supervisee Outcome Variables			
Active Commitment subscale (FIC)	-.41	**-.72**	.52
Trainee Personal Reaction Scale	-.47	**-.59**	.35
Client Empowerment subscale (SJAS)	.52	**.76**	.58
Counseling Self Estimate Inventory	-.14	-.24	.06

Note. Structure coefficients r_s greater than .4 are in bold face. *Coef* = Standardized Coefficient; r_s = Structure Coefficient; r_s^2 = Squared Structure Coefficient

Conclusions.

Although the canonical correlation was significant for Function 1, it is important to note that the results were weak. The full model accounted for 12% of the variance suggesting that although significant, the predictor variables (perceived supervisor variables) may not have as strong of a relationship with the predicted variables (supervisee outcome variables) as expected. These results are surprising based on the theoretically supported relationships within the literature. A review of these differences and the implications for the field are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In Chapter V I discuss the implications of the results from Chapter IV. I begin with a discussion the results in relation to my hypothesis and aims of my study. This is followed by a discussion of how the results relate to the field of education and training and then similarly I present how they are related to prior and future research. Lastly, I review the limitations of the study and provide a conclusion to my research.

Hypothesis Results

I hypothesized in Chapter II that supervisees who perceived their supervisor to use feminist supervision practices and have higher multicultural competence would also report counseling self-efficacy, active commitment, client empowerment, and satisfaction with their supervision. The aim of my study was to answer the question "Is there a relationship between perceived supervisor variables of feminist supervision and multicultural competence and the supervisee outcomes of counseling self-efficacy, active commitment, client empowerment and satisfaction in supervision?". The results of the canonical correlation analysis revealed a significant but weak correlation between perceived supervisor variables and supervisee self-reported outcomes. More specifically,

perceiving a supervisor to use feminist supervision practices and possess multicultural competence was significantly related to three of the four supervisee outcome variables.

The relevant supervisee outcome variables that contributed to the synthetic supervisee variable were primarily active commitment, client empowerment and satisfaction in supervision. Notably, the satisfaction in supervision scale was no longer a strong contributor when examining the squared canonical structure coefficient of the variable, which is analogous to an effect size. These three supervisee variables also tended to have moderate canonical function coefficients. Both of the supervisor variables demonstrated strong contributions to the synthetic supervisor variable and had the same sign, indicating they were positively related.

These findings suggest that my hypothesis was partially supported. Although I found a significant correlation between the supervisor and supervisee variables, the counseling self-efficacy scale did not contribute as strongly to my overall grouping of supervisee variables as I had previously theorized. Furthermore, the overall strength of the relationship between the supervisor and supervisee variables was weaker than expected based on previous literature.

Relationship to Previous Theory

The results of this study have several implications for understanding supervision and clinical training in psychology. In this section, I review how the results extend and/or contradict the research and theory reported in Chapter II. Specifically, I will discuss how the significant but weak relationship between perceived supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes was unexpected based on the previous supervision literature which had suggested there may be a stronger relationship (Arbel, 2006; Crockett & Hays, 2015;

Inman, 2006; Leaper & Arias, 2011; McKibben et al., 2019; Szymanski, 2005; Yoder et al., 2011).

Feminist Identity Theory

Feminist identity stems from the different stages of feminist identity development. In the feminist identity developmental model by Downing and Roush (1985), the authors posit that there are five stages a woman must go through to achieve an authentic and positive feminist identity. These stages include passive acceptance, revelation, embeddedness-emanation, synthesis and active commitment. In the final active commitment stage, women are characterized as developing a future in which they view transcending their traditional roles as the ultimate goal. According to Downing and Roush (1985) however, very few women actually get to the active commitment stage.

In my study, I explored the active commitment stage within supervisees to understand if their reports were related to supervisor variables including feminist supervision practices and multicultural competence. Results supported a positive correlation between a supervisor's use of feminist supervision practices, multicultural competence, and the supervisee's self-report of active commitment. These results suggest that having a supervisor who uses feminist practices and possesses multicultural competence may affect feminist identity development. I would also assert, though, that there is a possibility that feminist supervisees may be more frequently matched with feminist and multiculturally competent supervisors when they enter practicum or internship. Contrary to Downing and Roush (1985) I found that several counseling supervisees reported behaviors and viewpoints that reflected active commitment. These findings also contrast with research by Erchull and colleagues (2009) who found that

older feminists are more likely to be in the active commitment stage and young feminists are more likely to be in the revelation stage.

The contradictory results may be explained by the idea that feminist identity does not necessarily develop in a linear fashion (Erchull et al., 2009). Additionally, if feminist identity development does not develop in a linear fashion, this may explain why my sample, although young, have engaged in the active commitment stage. The conflicting findings may also be related to the fact that my study had a diverse sample and prior research has suggested that it is unclear whether this model would fit well with racial/ethnic minority women (Moradi et al., 2002).

Feminist Supervision Theory

For the purpose of this study, I was interested in feminist supervision, which is a specific form of supervision that was derived from the literature on feminism and feminist therapy (Chesler, 1972). Early feminist theorists emphasized the interconnections between gender, race, sexual identity and class (de Beauvoir, 1949; Friedan, 1963; hooks, 1981). In a feminist supervision framework, there is an emphasis on striving to maintain equal power between supervisor and supervisee, with a focus on empowering the supervisee (L. Brown, 2016; Falender & Shafranske, 2007; M. L. Nelson et al., 2006; Worell & Remer, 2003).

According to feminist supervision theory, the implementation of such structure would allow a supervisee to build strong alliances supervisors and be an advocate for their clients (Rawlings & Carter, 1977). Moreover, supervisees would have the opportunity to explore new material without the fear of being threatened or blamed (Porter, 1995). These factors, in turn, would allow a supervisee to feel more confident in

their clinical skills and feel more satisfied with their supervision (Eisele & Stake, 2008; Green & Dekkers, 2010). Prior to this study, there was a lack of research examining the relationship between feminist supervision and supervisee outcomes.

The results of the current study demonstrated a significant relationship between supervisor multicultural competence, feminist supervision practices and the supervisee outcomes of client empowerment, satisfaction in the supervisory relationship and active commitment. Thus, supervisees advocacy with clients, comfort in the supervision environment, and active commitment as a feminist was related to if they perceived their supervisors to utilize feminist supervision practices. These findings provided support to feminist supervision theory. More specifically, these findings directly supported feminist supervision theory's assertion that feminist supervision practices are correlated with a supervisee's ability to advocate for their clients, feel more satisfied in supervision and have more awareness of gender related issues and values.

Although this study was not experimental, it is important to acknowledge that these findings suggest that feminist supervision may be achieving the outcomes it has been theorized to produce. Additionally, feminist supervision theory has historically emphasized the importance of addressing the needs of multiculturally diverse supervisees and clients. The current study incorporated a racially diverse sample. Thus, these results provide support for feminist supervision theory as being significantly correlated with clinical outcomes in diverse supervisees. One area that may need further clarification in the literature regarding feminist supervision theory is how feminist supervision practices are related to counseling self-efficacy, as this factor was not found to be significantly correlated with feminist supervision practices in the current sample.

Multicultural Supervision Theory

Essential to the supervision process, is the ability of a supervisor to enhance a supervisee's personal exploration of their own biases, behaviors and values that may affect their clinical work with clients (Porter, 1995). A factor that often contributes to the strength of the supervisory relationship is the acknowledgement of multicultural differences. When engaging in multicultural supervision there is a focus on recognizing and understanding the historical and contemporary experiences of both clients and psychologists with power, privilege and oppression. According to multicultural supervision theory, if a supervisee can explore their own multicultural identities in the supervision process without fear of being judged or blamed, they can then translate these discussions into their work with clients (Tohidian & Quek, 2017). Multicultural supervision theory and related research has also asserted that awareness within the supervisory relationship can also result in a positive working alliance and satisfaction with supervision (Dressel et al., 2007; Falender & Shafranske, 2012; Inman, 2006; Soheilian et al., 2014; White & Queener, 2003).

Results of this study demonstrated a significant correlation between perceiving a supervisor to have multicultural competence and the supervisee outcomes of client empowerment, satisfaction in the supervisory relationship and active commitment. These findings provide support to multicultural supervision theory in that they provide up to date evidence that supports a correlation between multicultural supervision and supervision satisfaction. Multicultural supervision theory also highlights the importance of discussions related to gender identity.

In my study, a significant correlation was found between perceiving a supervisor to be multiculturally competent and supervisee's reporting themselves to be in the active commitment stage of feminism. Although I cannot make causal relationship conclusions, it is possible that multicultural supervision enhanced conversations related to gender identity, which may have been linked to feminist identity development in supervisees. An additional explanation may be that multiculturally competent supervisors are more likely to be matched with supervisees who self-identify as a feminist. More research is needed to understand this connection and enhance the multicultural supervision theory literature.

Multicultural supervision theory additionally emphasizes the discussion of power, privilege, and oppression, which is then translated into therapy discussions with clients. Although not directly examined, it is possible that the significant correlation between multicultural competence in a supervisor and client empowerment in a supervisee may be moderated or mediated by multicultural discussions with clients. Future research may want to examine explore this relationship to further understand the full effect of multicultural supervision.

An additional area of multicultural supervision theory that requires further exploration is how multicultural competence of a supervisor is related to supervisee counseling self-efficacy. Based on the work of Tohidian and Quek (2017), I anticipated that supervisees would report a strong positive correlation between supervisor multicultural competence and counseling self-efficacy. My findings however suggested that counseling self-efficacy did not significantly contribute to the overall relationship between perceived supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes. According to multicultural supervision theory, the discussion of multicultural issues should allow for a

strong alliance between supervisor and supervisee and enhance the supervisee's ability to engage in self exploration and express their needs (Falender & Shafranske, 2012). Although I did not measure a supervisee's comfort with expressing their needs, the findings of my study bring forth a question for future research about the connection between multicultural supervision, comfort in revealing needs and supervisee counseling self-efficacy. Based on the current findings, I can only assert that counseling self-efficacy did not significantly contribute to the supervisee variable construct when examining the relationship between perceived multicultural competence and clinical outcomes in a diverse sample of supervisees. It is important to note that my sample was diverse compared to prior research (Dressel et al., 2007; Falender & Shafranske, 2012; Inman, 2006; Soheilian et al., 2014). These findings allude to the idea that racial/ethnic minority supervisees may feel satisfied with supervision but still do not feel confident in their counseling abilities even when they have a multiculturally competent supervisor.

Social Cognitive Model of Counselor Training

One of the theoretical aims of this study was to explore the interaction between the individual supervisee, their behavior and their environment as emphasized by general social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Within a social cognitive model of counselor training (SCMCT), I examined how the counselor training environment which included their perceptions of their supervisor's feminist supervision practices and multicultural competence related to the supervisee agency factor of counseling self-efficacy.

The results of my study partially supported the guiding theory of SCMCT in that perceived feminist supervision and multicultural competence of a supervisor was significantly related to the supervisee variables of client empowerment, active

commitment and supervision satisfaction. Surprisingly however, counseling self-efficacy was the only supervisee variable that did not demonstrate a strong effect on the relationship with the supervisor variables. The reason for this departure from prior literature may be that the sample I collected was more representative of the larger population of students in training compared to prior research. In my study, I was able to collect a diverse sample which aligns with the movement in psychology programs to diversify their student cohorts.

It is possible that my results are not necessarily due to error but rather they represent an area in which psychology researchers needs to investigate further. More specifically, these findings suggest that SCMCT may not be valid in a diverse group of students. The outcome variable of counseling self-efficacy in particular may not have had as strong of a relationship with supervisor variables with a more diverse student sample as it once did in the older predominately White samples of prior studies who explored SCMCT.

Education and Training

The results of this study provide support for the enduring viewpoint of psychology professions that supervision is a vital component to the supervisee growth and development. Supervisor competency and orientation had a significant relationship with supervisee outcomes according to the data provided by the doctoral and masters level students of this study. Specifically, supervisees reported that supervisor characteristics had a significant relationship with their ability to advocate for their clients, their own personal active commitment, and their satisfaction in the supervisory relationship. The results of my study highlighted the importance for supervisors to be

trained in feminist supervision practices and multicultural competency. In sum, the participants demonstrated that the supervision process had a significant effect on their ability to advocate for clients and feel respected in the supervisory relationship. Furthermore, the sample of this study was diverse in racial identity, sexual orientation and years of experience, therefore these results may be generalizable to the larger student population. I propose that several advancements in supervision can be generated from these results and these ideas will now be discussed.

Practice of Supervision

Based on these findings, education and training in the field of psychology will likely want to emphasize the use of feminist and multicultural practices in supervision. If the field of psychology has a goal of producing clinicians who feel comfortable in their supervisory relationships and can act as an advocate for their clients, then attention must be paid to what skills, competence, and theoretical orientation a supervisor is utilizing. Furthermore, these findings suggest that during the educational track of supervisees, it may be wise to emphasize how to become a supervisor who exercises multicultural and feminist skills. Upcoming supervisors may benefit from required training feminism, multiculturalism, and client empowerment to ensure they are providing an environment that allows for client empowerment growth in their future supervisees.

Current supervisors may benefit from continuing education on the topics of multiculturalism and feminism because this research demonstrates a significant relationship with supervisee outcomes. Shortly after graduating, doctoral and master's level counseling and clinical students transition into the working environment and are often asked to supervise supervisees on practicum or internship. Unfortunately, there is

often a lack of time and resources spent enhancing the competency of supervisors outside of their education. Additionally this may be important for current supervisors because many supervisors in the field were trained prior to when APA implemented requirements for education related to supervision (Altamier, 2003). Thus, a focus on enhancing supervision training opportunities within the field would benefit the upcoming generations of clinicians. Examples of such trainings could include workshops, outreach presentations or virtual classes. By providing enhancement opportunities to our supervisory workforce, we are in turn improving supervisee capabilities and ultimately influencing client experience.

During mid-year and end of the year evaluations in their clinical placements, it may be useful for supervisees to be asked by the practicum and doctoral program training directors about their individual supervisor's use of equal power, respect and multicultural awareness and how they believe these components are affecting their own abilities. Supervisors may want to facilitate a conversation surrounding supervisory behavior and theoretical orientation at the beginning of the year and periodically collect input from the supervisee as the practicum progresses. At the end of the year when supervisees complete evaluations of their supervisor and the practicum site, it may be beneficial to include questions about how they felt their supervisors affected their abilities. If possible, the collection of this data would best be done so in an anonymous way so that supervisees can freely express their concerns without worry that they may be negatively affecting a professional relationship.

A strength of this study was the use of a diverse supervisee sample. These results suggest that discussions around multicultural identities are vital in supervision for

supervisees to feel satisfied in the supervisory relationship and confident in their client advocacy efforts. Furthermore, these results suggest that the multicultural competence of a supervisor may relate to a supervisee's self-identity as a feminist. It is possible that a supervision environment with a supervisor who is competent in multiculturalism provides a trainee the opportunity to explore their own identity. For example, they may explore an identity that supports equal power between gender identities and between the supervisor and themselves Additionally, this exploration of personal identity in a supervisee may elicit more feminist supervisory behaviors and/or multicultural interventions from their supervisor. Thus, current and future supervisors are encouraged to incorporate multicultural and feminist supervision practices, especially when working with diverse supervisees. Educators in counseling and clinical psychology programs may need to consider how to adapt current supervisory methods or trainings to ensure that racial/ethnic minority supervisees can find confidence in their counseling abilities.

The emphasis of feminist supervision practices and multicultural competence of supervisors may also want to be highlighted in master's level training programs. Often at the master's level, there is little to no opportunity to engage in supervision specific coursework. Masters level students may benefit from brief training in feminist and multicultural supervision practices. Additional supervision training opportunities could potentially be offered through elective classes or workshops. Training directors of master's level programs may also want to explore how they can secure practicum training sites for their students that have supervisors with feminist supervision and multicultural competence. Educators making changes to both master's level and doctoral level accreditation standards in psychology may want to examine how additional supervisory

learning opportunities can be implemented. In addition to implications for supervision practices, the results of this study have several implications for future research.

Implications for Future Research

This study enhanced the psychological literature by examining the effect of supervision through a combination of measures that assessed for feminist supervision practices, multicultural competence, active commitment, satisfaction in supervision, client empowerment and counseling self-efficacy. The field of psychology has lacked a study in which all these topic areas were combined. Taken as a whole, the results indicate that feminist supervision practices and multicultural competence of a supervisor can be significantly correlated with supervisee outcomes. More specifically, the supervisee outcomes of supervision satisfaction, client empowerment and active commitment appear to be of importance in this relationship. The findings from this study provide valuable information for research moving forward. Future researchers may want to examine the causality of this relationship as this study only looked at the correlation. Additionally, future researchers may want to examine how feminist identity development looks in counseling supervisees compared to women in other disciplines and how societal and cultural shifts over time have influenced the feminist identity development since the model of developed almost 40 years ago.

Research in this topic area moving forward would benefit from the examination of a variety of supervisee outcome variables beyond the four that were captured in this study. It is possible that this study is missing an outcome variable that is largely influenced by having a supervisor who utilizes feminist and multicultural supervision. I suggest that future researchers, who are examining multicultural supervision theory,

should explore whether a supervisor's multicultural competence affects not only the supervisee's satisfaction in supervision but also their comfort in having discussions about their areas for improvement and perceptions of their counseling abilities. Furthermore, the ability to generalize these results to a larger population may be completed using a larger, more diverse sample that includes all gender identities. Research is also needed to fully understand whether SCMCT can be generalized to diverse supervisee samples and whether this theory will be applicable to the growing psychology student population moving forward.

Capturing the supervision experiences of supervisees using qualitative methodologies would also benefit the current literature. Qualitative interviews would allow future researchers to explore this topic in a way that is not limited by the Likert scale options. Furthermore, it would allow supervisees an opportunity to discuss experiences that may not have been captured within the measures selected for this study. Future studies might also be conducted using a longitudinal methodology to examine the supervision experiences of supervisees across a single academic year or across several academic years could yield a higher quality of results. For example, self-efficacy may be shown to fluctuate throughout the year or across different supervisors which would enhance the finding that supervisor variables have a relationship with supervisee outcomes. Lastly, this study did not compare results across program type (e.g., PhD, Master's, PsyD), practicum or internship type (e.g., community mental health, college counseling, V.A. hospital), and academic year. Future research could examine how these differences affect supervisee outcomes on the same or similar measures. Based on the

results, there are additional research recommendations pertaining to each individual measure used, which will now be discussed.

Perceived Supervisor Variables

Feminist Supervision. One of the major strengths of my study was utilizing the Feminist Supervision Scale (FSS; Szymanski, 2003) which had limited use in past research. The 32-item scale was presented to participants through the online survey format with higher scores indicating that they perceived their most recent supervisor to utilize more feminist supervision practices. Previous feminist supervision researchers that also used the FSS (Szymanski, 2003) have indicated that utilization of feminist supervision principles is significantly correlated with activism, satisfaction in supervision, stronger relationships with a supervisor, and leadership (Arbel, 2006; Green & Dekkers, 2010; McKibben et al., 2019; Szymanski, 2005).

Similar results were found in the current study such that perceived feminist supervision usage was significantly associated with the supervisee outcome variables of client empowerment, active commitment, and satisfaction in supervision. Although this association was weaker than expected, it is in line with the previous literature. This study was unique in that it utilized the reworded the FSS to elicit the supervisee's perspective on their supervisor's feminist practices. To this author's knowledge, only two other studies in the literature have performed such a methodological change. These studies were conducted by Arbel (2006) and Green & Dekkers (2010). Thus, this study provided a more recent analysis of the FSS. Furthermore, regardless of the change in wording, the results demonstrate a similar relationship to prior research and suggest that the supervisee

perspective may be as equally as valuable in assessing supervisor feminist practices as the supervisors themselves. This study also extended the literature in several ways.

First, the association between feminist supervision practices and supervisee outcomes was extended into a sample of combined master's and doctoral level clinical and counseling students. There has been limited prior research that has been able to collect data from both masters and doctoral level students in the same study. Second, the study results aligned with prior research and I was able to highlight the utility of the FSS in the field of supervision research. Lastly, these findings indicate that feminist supervision practices can have a significant relationship with supervisee outcomes. Thus, this research highlights the importance of feminist practices across current supervisors and within the education and training of supervisees. Additional research is needed to explore whether these feminist supervision practices findings can extend into other gender identities of supervisees besides identifying as a woman.

The weak association between the FSS and supervisee outcomes may be related to the fact that my sample was diverse. Historically, feminism has been viewed as a White, middle-class women's movement and may not align with the views of women of color (Bowman et al., 2001). Instead, my sample may have shared views that are more similar to what is described as the womanist perspective which is defined as "a black feminist or feminist of color" (Moradi, 2005, p. 229). Future researchers who are collecting data from a diverse sample of supervisees may want to incorporate a measure of womanist identity and examine the strength of the relationship between perceived womanist identity in supervisors with supervisee outcome variables. A brief review of the literature conducted by this author found that research examining womanist supervision and

womanist identity within the counseling supervisee population may be lacking and in need of additional exploration. In addition to adding to the field of feminist supervision, this study enhanced findings in the area of supervisor multicultural competence.

Multicultural Competence. The Supervisor Multicultural Competence Index (SMCI, Inman, 2005) was used within the current study. Higher scores on the 34-item measure indicate that a supervisee feels their supervisor demonstrates higher multicultural competence in supervision. Prior research using the SMCI has found that supervisor multicultural competence according to the supervisee perspective has previously been linked to a stronger working alliance in supervision, satisfaction in supervision and counseling self-efficacy (Crockett & Hays, 2015; Hutman & Ellis, 2020; Inman, 2006; J. C. Phillips et al., 2017). Furthermore, the author of the SMCI discovered significant relationship between perceived multicultural competence and satisfaction in a sample of marriage and family counseling students (Inman, 2006).

The results of this study found a significant relationship between perceived supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee outcomes. Specifically, perceived supervisor multicultural competence was significantly related to client empowerment, active commitment, and supervision satisfaction. These findings suggest that the link between supervisor multicultural competence and supervision satisfaction is still relevant in today's population of psychology students.

A surprising find from the current study was that although the overall correlation was significant, self-efficacy did not significantly contribute to the relationship between supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes. These results are in contrast to prior research from Crockett and Hays (2015) and Phillips et al. (2017) which found a link

between supervisor multicultural competence and counseling self-efficacy. When conducting data analysis, it was found that all of the supervisee measures did not meet the assumption of normality, including the counseling self-efficacy measure (COSE; Larson et al., 1992). Thus, the lack of relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and counseling self-efficacy may be related to the choice of measure used to assess counseling self-efficacy. In the research conducted by Phillips et al. (2017), the authors used a different measure to assess multiculturalism which was the MCSE-RD (Sheu & Lent, 2007). The MCSE-RD was designed to assess therapist's perceived capabilities in performing culturally relevant in-session behaviors in cross-racial counseling. The COSE in comparison is used to assess the supervisee's perception of their self-efficacy in counseling clients. Therefore, the difference in findings may be due to using a different multicultural competence and counseling self-efficacy measure compared to prior research. Another possibility is that students who took this survey after the Spring semester had ended may have had higher levels of burnout and consequently low levels of self-efficacy due to continuing their practicum into the summer. Prior research from Gunduz (2012) has suggested a link between high levels of burnout and low self-efficacy in counselors.

The sample used in the research by Crockett and Hays (2015) was also primarily White and made up of master's level students. Thus, differences in results from prior research may be related to my sample which was primarily doctoral level students and racially diverse. Doctoral level students are typically enhancing their independence as a psychology professional during training, thus perhaps there was not a significant relationship because they do not strongly link their self-efficacy at that stage of training

to supervision compared to master's level students. Additionally, this lack of correlation may be related to the diversity of my sample. Prior research has suggested that counseling self-efficacy can vary across ethnic groups (Lam et al., 2013).

This study was unique in that it expanded the literature by exploring perceived multicultural competence in a sample of both masters and doctoral level students in clinical and counseling programs. This research provides an added layer to literature by suggesting that multicultural competence is in fact important for supervisee outcomes in master's and doctoral level clinical and counseling students. Furthermore, this research highlights the importance of continuing to study supervisor multicultural competence. Specifically, more research is needed to evaluate the full effect of supervisor multicultural competence on supervisee outcomes beyond active commitment, client empowerment, counseling self-efficacy and satisfaction in supervision. Lastly, future researchers should continue to explore multicultural competence within diverse supervisee samples, as they are often underrepresented in the literature.

Supervisee Outcome Variables

Social Justice Advocacy. The Client Empowerment subscale of the 42-item Social Justice Advocacy Scale was used to measure supervisee client empowerment in this study (Dean, 2009). Higher scores indicate that a supervisee is more likely to be engaged and skilled in client empowerment. Prior research from Luu and Inman (2018) and Decker (2013) have successfully used the Social Justice Advocacy Scale. The findings from previous research using the SJAS has suggested a link between exposure to a multicultural training environment, social justice advocacy and feminist identity (Luu & Inman, 2018). Furthermore, Decker (2013) found that supervisees who were exposed to

social justice training were significantly more likely to engage in advocacy efforts for their clients.

Students in this study who identified that their supervisor possessed multicultural competence were likely to report active commitment, engage in client empowerment, and identify satisfaction in supervision. These findings provide direct support to the previous work by Luu and Inman (2018) and provided partial support to the findings by Dean (2009) and Decker (2013). Of note, I opted to utilize the client empowerment subscale of the SJAS rather than the full scale, which limited my ability to discuss other components of social justice advocacy. Additionally, I did not measure exposure to social justice training, but it is likely that having a supervisor who uses feminist principals and multicultural strategies will also incorporate social justice advocacy training. Furthermore, the sample used by Dean (2009) was predominately White and included participants with mixed gender identity. In my study I measured the participants' views of their supervisor's multicultural competency where as Dean (2009) asked participants about their own multicultural awareness and used the full SJAS. In both the current study and the study by Dean (2009), there was a significant correlation between client empowerment and multicultural competence. The sample used by Decker (2013) was predominately master's level students. In comparison, my sample was predominantly made up of doctoral level students, thus the level of training may have affected results. Doctoral level students typically have higher levels of development in their counseling abilities compared to master's level students simply due to having experienced more years of training. However, the findings confirm prior research and suggest that social

justice advocacy is still an important factor to examine within the counseling supervisee population. Furthermore, these results support the use of the SJAS in future studies.

Researchers may want to explore through a qualitative study specific examples of how supervisees advocated for their clients to gain a fuller understanding. This study provided a unique perspective on the client empowerment literature in that it incorporated feminist supervision practices from the supervisee's perspective in this relationship. Additionally, it expanded prior literature by exploring other facets beyond client empowerment such as satisfaction, active commitment, and counseling self-efficacy. These findings are important to the field of education because they highlight the importance of client empowerment for supervisees within the clinical training and education environment.

A surprising finding within this study was the inverse relationship between client empowerment and active commitment, meaning that the higher the students rated their ability to empower their clients, the lower their identified themselves as a feminist or vice versa. This finding is unusual based on the similar goals of feminism and social justice advocacy which include advocacy and empowerment to achieve equal treatment for specific groups of people in society (e.g., women or other minority identities). Additionally, this finding is in direct contrast to research conducted by Luu and Inman (2018). In contrast to the sample used by Luu and Inman (2018), my sample was moderately diverse, thus my findings may be related to how students of diverse backgrounds truly experience active commitment and client empowerment.

Furthermore, compared to prior research, the average active commitment score for my sample was slightly higher, suggesting that students in this sample may identify

more strongly as a feminist compared to past research. Based on my findings, I would hypothesize that perhaps active commitment was more valued or obtainable than client empowerment in this sample. This result may also tie into the lack of significant findings for counseling self-efficacy. Prior research suggests that self-efficacy and racial identity can be related to advocacy engagement (Guerrero et al., 2021). Future researchers may want to evaluate the relationship between counseling self-efficacy and client empowerment in diverse samples. Lastly, an additional reason for this inverse relationship may be my use of subscales rather than the full scales and my use of transformations.

Client empowerment may be an important construct to explore further in future research. In my study, I used the client empowerment subscale of the SJAS and found a significant correlation with supervisor variables. Thus, although past research has used the full scale, my research suggests that it can be useful to utilize the client empowerment subscale in a diverse sample of both masters and doctoral level students. Furthermore, these results suggest that future researchers who are interested in adapting training standards may want to explore the component of client empowerment and how it is related to feminist supervision and supervisor multicultural competence. Lastly, researchers examining client empowerment may want to combine the subscale of the SJAS with qualitative questionnaires to understand the supervisee perspective more fully.

Counseling Self-Efficacy. Counseling self-efficacy was measured through the Counselor Self Estimate Inventory (COSE) which is a 37-item self-report (Larson et al., 1992). Several past studies have utilized the COSE when exploring counseling self-efficacy in supervisees. Counseling self-efficacy in relation to supervisory style and

supervisor behavior was explored by Lorenz in 2010. Results indicated that having a supervisor who is eclectic in style and creates a positive working alliance has a significant relationship with counseling self-efficacy. Additional research by Hoover et al., (2014) and Soheilan et al., (2014) has suggested a significant relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of a supervisor to demonstrate openness and equal power. Engagement levels with a supervisor have also been found to have significant positive effect on self-efficacy (DePue & Lambie, 2014). The current study explored supervisor use of feminist supervision and multicultural competence and found a significant relationship with all supervisee outcomes, except counseling self-efficacy. Similar to Lorenz (2010), I found a significant relationship between perceiving a supervisor to possess multiculturalism and feminist supervisory skills and supervision satisfaction. Although the measures were slightly different, my research extends prior findings by suggesting that in addition to being eclectic, possessing multicultural and feminist skills as a supervisor is important in producing supervision satisfaction. However, I did not find that supervisor characteristics related to counseling self-efficacy. This study was limited in that it did not measure working alliance, which may have provided clarity on the non-significant relationship. The literature may be enhanced in the future by a study that explores supervisory style, specifically multicultural and feminist skills, in relation to supervisory satisfaction, counseling self-efficacy and alliance.

It is possible that the measure selected, the COSE, may not accurately capture the supervisee experience in counseling self-efficacy of the new cohort of supervisees. As previously mentioned, all the supervisee outcome variables had problems with normality. Non-normality may suggest problems with the validity of the COSE. Furthermore, the

sample utilized in my study was moderately diverse, which is in contrast to the majority of prior studies who relied in predominantly white samples. It is possible that the COSE may not accurately capture counseling self-efficacy in a diverse sample as it was created based on a sample that was 83% White (Larson et al., 1992). Additional research is needed to understand if the COSE is still a valid measure to capture counseling self-efficacy in upcoming cohorts that are diverse in race, sexual orientation and gender identity. Additionally, since this study did not find a significant contribution from self-efficacy to the supervisor and supervisee variable relationship, more research is needed to understand if other components of a supervisor beyond supervisor style are more strongly related to counseling self-efficacy. This study has advanced the literature by extending prior research in the field with an educationally diverse and moderate size sample.

Feminist Identity. Feminist identity of the supervisee was measured via the Active Commitment subscale of the 33-item Feminist Identity Composite (FIC; A. R. Fischer et al., 2000). Prior research using the FIC has suggested a significant relationship between feminist identity and having a positive view on a supervisor (Liss et al., 2001; Reid & Purcell, 2004). The results of the current study indicated a significant relationship between the supervisor variables of feminist supervision practices and multicultural competence with active commitment in supervisees. The use of the active commitment subscale limited my ability to identify which stage of feminist development related to the supervisor variables. Future researchers may want to utilize the full FIC scale for a better understanding of this relationship and to identify the stage that best represents this young adult counseling supervisee population. Future researchers may also want to explore the

relationship between supervision satisfaction and active commitment as they were found to significantly correlate with one another in this study.

Findings from this study varied compared to prior research in that counseling self-efficacy was not found to be a strong outcome variable. Furthermore, client empowerment was found to be inversely related to active commitment, thus the stronger the supervisee identified as a feminist, the less likely they were to engage in client empowerment. These results are surprising given the fact that prior research has suggested client empowerment and feminist identity to be related (Luu & Inman, 2018). Notably however, in my survey I opted to only use the Active Commitment subscale of the Feminist Identity Composite. It is possible that this modification affected the results. Specifically, it is possible that I was not able to capture all aspects of feminist identity, including the components that relate to client empowerment. Additionally, my study differed from Luu and Inman (2018) in that I had a smaller sample that was more diverse in racial identity and sexual orientation. Additional research may be needed to identify how feminist identity relates to other forms of advocacy beyond client empowerment, as I only evaluated this form of advocacy in this study.

An additional interesting finding from this study was that although students endorsed that their supervisor utilized feminist supervision skills, only a small proportion of students (5%) identified feminist supervision as their supervisor's theoretical orientation. The contrast in findings may be related to the student's lack of understanding on what feminist supervision is comprised of or a lack of discussion about their supervisor's theoretical orientation. Students may have found it easier to identify feminist supervision when provided with specific examples such as on the FSS. Notably the FSS

does not provide a definition of feminist supervision, only skills to endorse. Therefore, future researchers examining supervisory theoretical orientation may want to include examples of specific supervisory models rather than simply the name of theory. Recent research has found that the term feminism can have significantly different meanings for students of different identities and backgrounds (Houvouras & Carter, 2008). Students in education and research may need additional clarity on the definition of feminism and how it looks in the supervision environment.

Lastly, this research expanded the feminist identity research by Nelson et al., (2008) by finding a significant relationship between perceived supervisor feminist supervision practices and supervisee active commitment. One area that this study did not explore however was feminist identity development. Rather, I focused on the outcome variable of active commitment. Future researchers may want to explore the differences between feminist identity development and reported feminist identity for supervisees to fully understand the relationship. Regardless of this limitation, my study provided an updated investigation of how being exposed to feminist practices can have an association with active commitment in counseling and clinical supervisees.

Satisfaction in Supervision. Supervisee satisfaction in supervision was measured via the 12-item Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TPRS-R; Holloway & Wampold, 1984). The instructions for the TPRS-R were adapted based on the study by Ladany et al., (1992) to examine supervision satisfaction across the most recent semester. Researchers have found that supervisor variables including using multiculturalism can relate to supervision satisfaction (Crockett & Hays, 2015). I used the same measures as Crockett and Hays (2015) and found a significant correlation between supervisor

multicultural competence and supervision satisfaction. A significant relationship between supervisor multicultural competence and counseling self-efficacy was also reported by Crockett and Hays (2015). My results however indicated that counseling self-efficacy did not significantly contribute to the overall relationship between supervisor and supervisee variables. One notable difference between the two studies is that my sample was diverse, and Crockett and Hays (2015) had a sample that was 75% White. It is possible that the diversity of the sample affected the results.

My results were also in line with the research conducted by Green and Dekkers (2010) who found a significant relationship between feminist supervision practices and supervision satisfaction. The authors used the Feminist Supervision Scale (Szymanski, 2003) and the Supervision Feedback Form (L. Williams, 1994). The sample used by Green and Dekkers (2010) included predominantly female, White, supervisees and supervisors. My study results align with this previous research and provide additional confirmation that feminist supervision practices appear to be highly important in producing supervision satisfaction. These findings suggest that future researchers examining supervisee satisfaction may want to consider utilizing either the Supervision Feedback Form (L. Williams, 1994) or the TPRS-R (Holloway & Wampold, 1984). Furthermore, although I did not explore supervisor style in this study, prior research suggests that supervisor style may also be an important construct related to supervisee satisfaction (Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005). I will now review limitations of my study.

Limitations

This study had several limitations that will now be reviewed. First, the study was reliant on self-report measures which the literature has shown may negatively affect the results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Second, this study was completed online without any guidance or structure that may have been provided if the study was completed in person without distractions. Additionally, the study was limited to participants identifying as women. Another limitation of this study was that although it took between 20-30 minutes to complete and they were compensated, the participants may have encountered fatigue due to the high number of questions. This study also had a smaller sample size of 158 participants due to being financially restricted on the number of participants who would be compensated.

Furthermore, the online survey and request for participation was sent towards the end of spring semester and was active into mid-summer. Students who took the survey during the summer may have forgotten details of their practicum which then could have affected their self-reports. Additionally, this data was collected near the time in which evaluations of students are completed in practicum, thus the counseling self-efficacy results may have been influenced by when the survey was given. Research on practicum or internship training in the future may benefit from implementing their study in the early Spring of the academic year to ensure all participants are still active in their externship.

An important limitation of this research is that it is entirely from the supervisee perspective. Future research would benefit from the inclusion of supervisor perspective to gain insight into what supervision framework and multicultural competence a supervisor possesses. One area that this study was lacking was the exploration of the internal

psychological states of supervisees. More specifically, based on the social cognitive model of counselor training, it would have been beneficial to explore levels of anxiety and stress. Future research would benefit from the inclusion of psychological measures to understand if they moderate the relationship between supervisor variables and supervisee outcomes.

The data from the supervisee variables also demonstrated non-normality when it was first analyzed. Canonical correlation analyses require that the data meets the assumption of normality, thus several transformations were required to reduce the level of skewness in the data. Additionally, some outliers were removed to improve normality. It is possible that the measures selected for the supervisee variables may have issues with validity that affected the results of this study. Additionally, I did not always use the full scale which may have created issues with my measures. For example, I selected the Active Commitment subscale of the Feminist Identity Composite and only used the Client Empowerment Subscale of the Social Justice Advocacy Scale. Additionally, I did not measure feminist identity development which may have produced significantly different results compared to measuring active commitment. The length of time required for the survey may have also been a factor in this issue of non-normality due to participant fatigue. Future research on this topic area may want to implement different measures to ensure this limitation does not occur.

In discussing my results, I was also limited in my ability to draw conclusions about the directionality of the relationship found. My study design was correlational rather than experimental, thus I could not prove that supervisor variables had an effect on supervisee variables or vice versa, I could only say are related. Another limitation was

my recruitment strategy of collecting data across different program types and years within the program. Counseling psychology, clinical psychology and mental health counseling programs have significantly different training guidelines and expectations with regards to classes taken, practicums required and the number of years for completion. Furthermore, each individual school may have different requirements based on the available faculty. Future research may benefit from exploring one type of program and a specific training year to produce results that may be more directly applicable to training guidelines.

Summary and Conclusions

Results of this study partially supported the prediction made in Chapter II, that is, that perceived supervisor variables of feminist supervision and multicultural competence were significantly related to the supervisee outcome variables of client empowerment, active commitment and supervision satisfaction. Although this relationship was significant it is important to note that this relationship was weaker than expected. When examining each individual supervisee variable, counseling self-efficacy was not found have a significant contribution to the synthetic supervisee variable. Thus, although I theorized counseling self-efficacy to contribute to the overall supervisor and supervisee relationship according to previously research, it did not in this sample. Additionally, client empowerment was found to have an inverse relationship with all supervisee variables.

The surprising finding of the Client Empowerment subscale negatively correlating with all other variables may be due to several reasons. First, I selected to use only the Client Empowerment subscale of the SJAS rather than the full scale, which may have

affected the strength of the relationship between the variables. Furthermore, my original data violated assumptions of normality, which required me to apply transformations to each of my supervisee variables, including the Client Empowerment subscale. Research has demonstrated that transformations may change the correlation coefficient between variables (Bishara & Hittner, 2015; Box & Cox, 1964; Goodwin & Leech, 2006). Notably, in my untransformed data I observed a positive correlation among each of the variables, thus the result may be related to my efforts to fit my data to a normal distribution.

The negative relationship, however, may be representative of the true relationship. Prior researchers have found that multicultural awareness and knowledge is not predictive of social justice advocacy (Jones, 2013). My results are also in line with the finding from Luu and Inman (2018) who found that a social justice training environment was found to be better predictor of supervisee advocacy than a multicultural training environment. For my study I only evaluated multicultural competence of a supervisor. Thus, evaluating social justice training may have produced different results. Additional research has suggested that social justice advocacy is correlated with spiritual maturity, exposure to racist and sexist events, and participation in formal diversity experiences, all of which I did not measure in this study (Luu, 2017; Strickland, 2017). Lastly, my study included a diverse sample that was largely doctoral students and only included individuals who identified as a woman. Therefore, my results may be demonstrating a correlation that is accurate for this subgroup of the supervisee population and may need to be explored further.

This study provides empirical support for the notion that supervision practices can have a significant relationship with supervisee identity and experience. This study also provides crucial evidence that the social cognitive model of counselor training may need to be revisited in future studies to further examine the importance of counseling self-efficacy (Barnes, 2004). This study served as an instrumental addition to the field of supervision and education and training. Prior to this study, few studies had examined feminist supervision practices from the supervisee perspective. Furthermore, few studies had examined how perceived feminist supervision practices may relate to supervisee outcomes. More research is needed within this sample of graduate students but this study provides several recommendations and areas in which the field could grow, which would ultimately enhance training standards for future clinicians.

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Appendix A

Figure A1

Histogram of untransformed TPRS scores

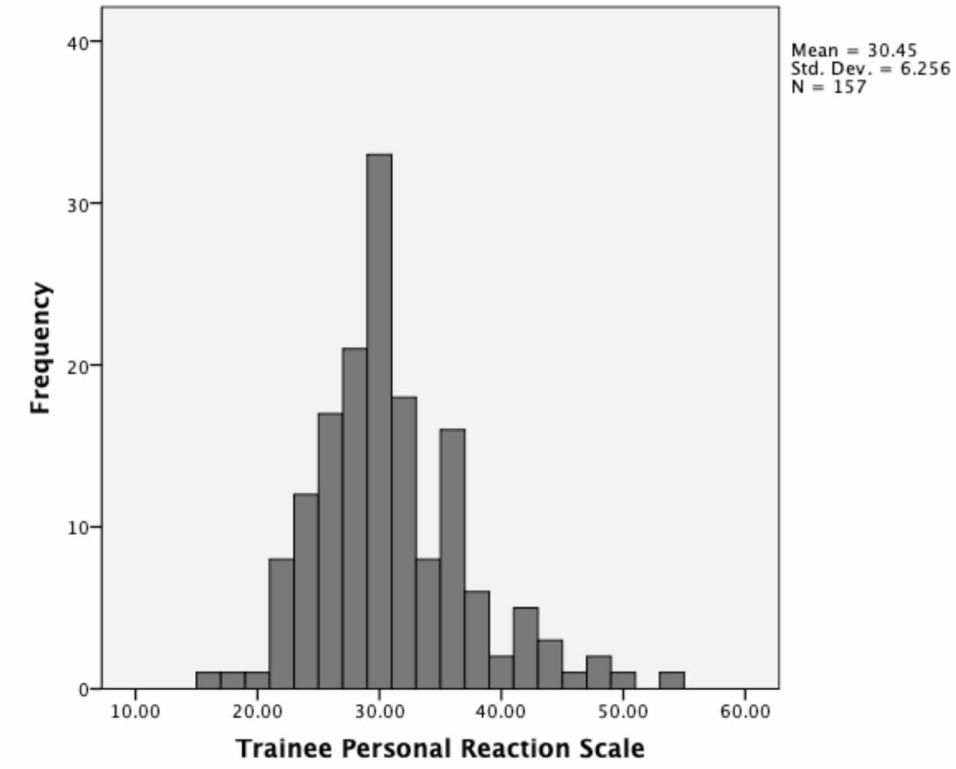


Figure A2

Histogram of untransformed COSE scores

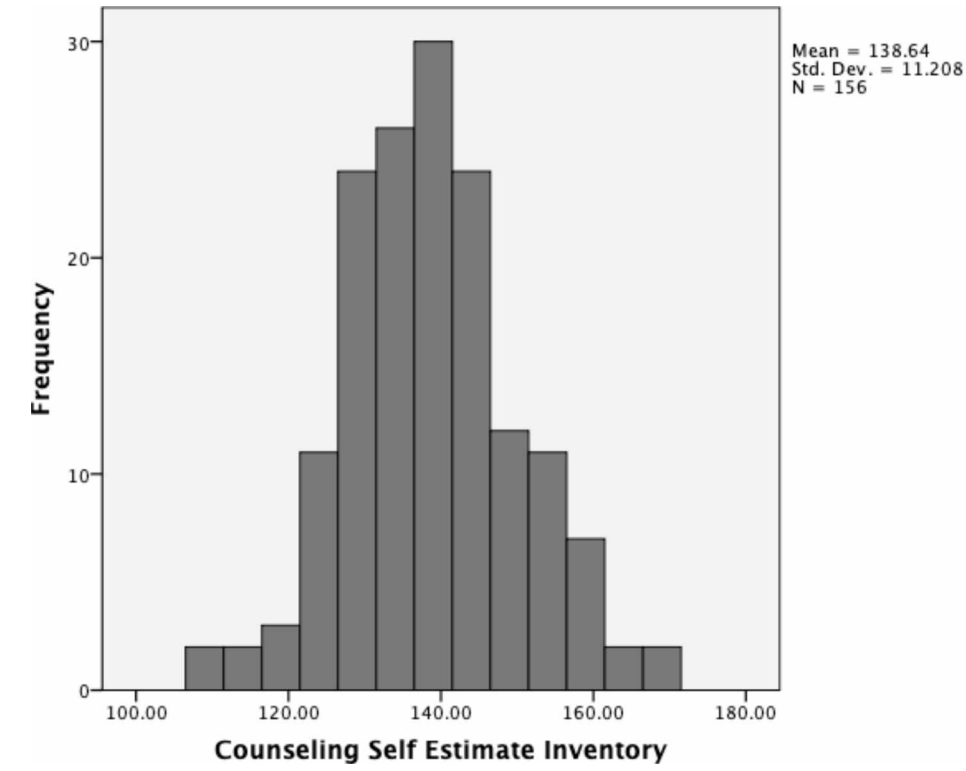


Figure A3

Histogram of untransformed Client Empowerment subscale scores

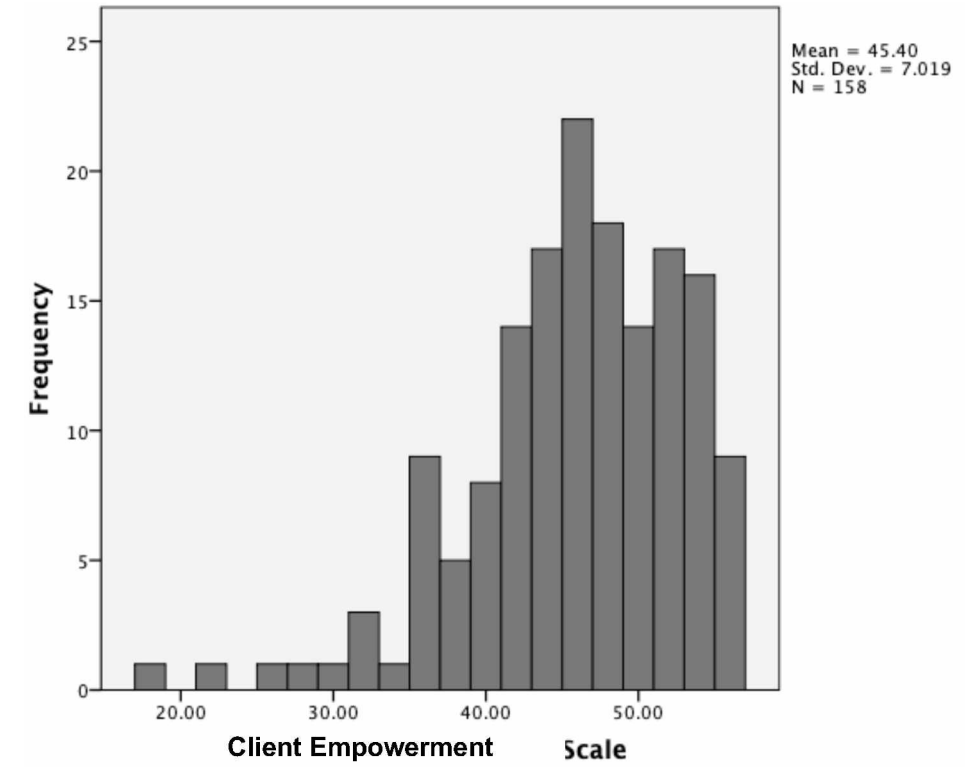


Figure A4

Histogram of the untransformed Active Commitment subscale scores

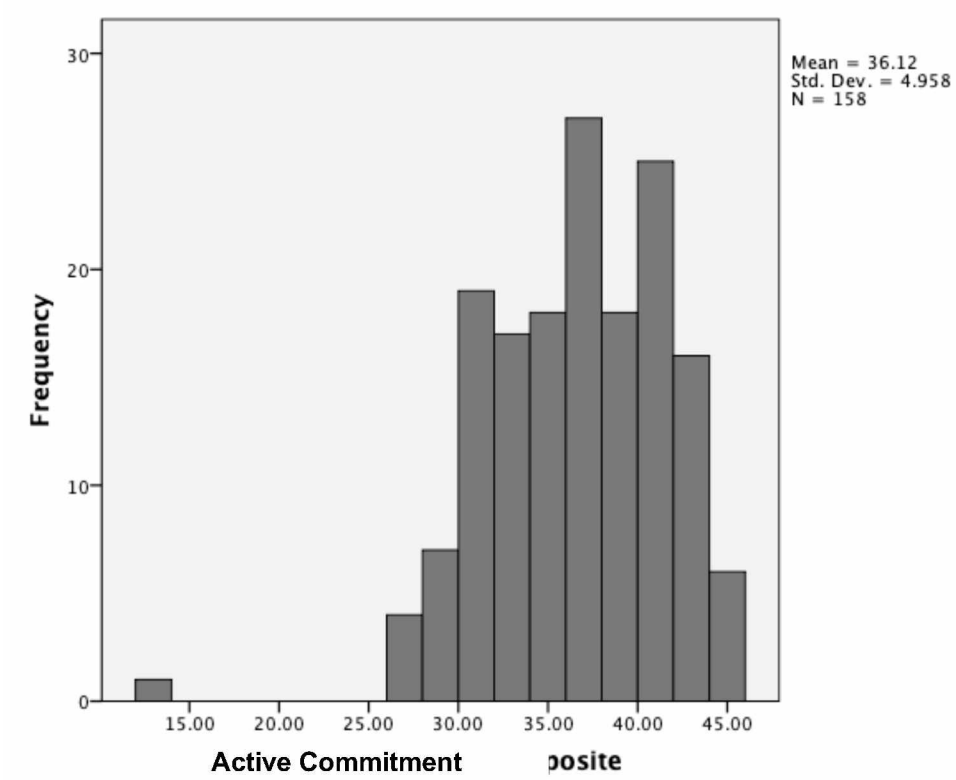


Figure A5

Scatterplot of the transformed TPRS-R and the FSS

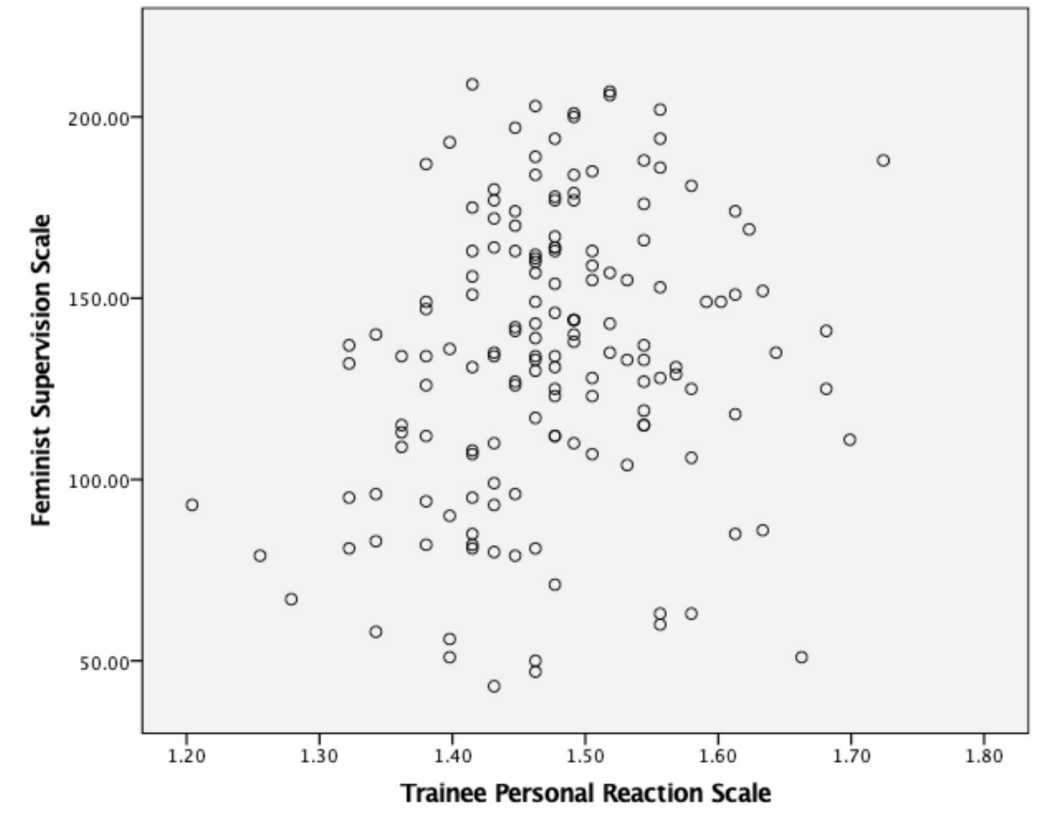


Figure A6

Scatterplot of the transformed COSE and FSS

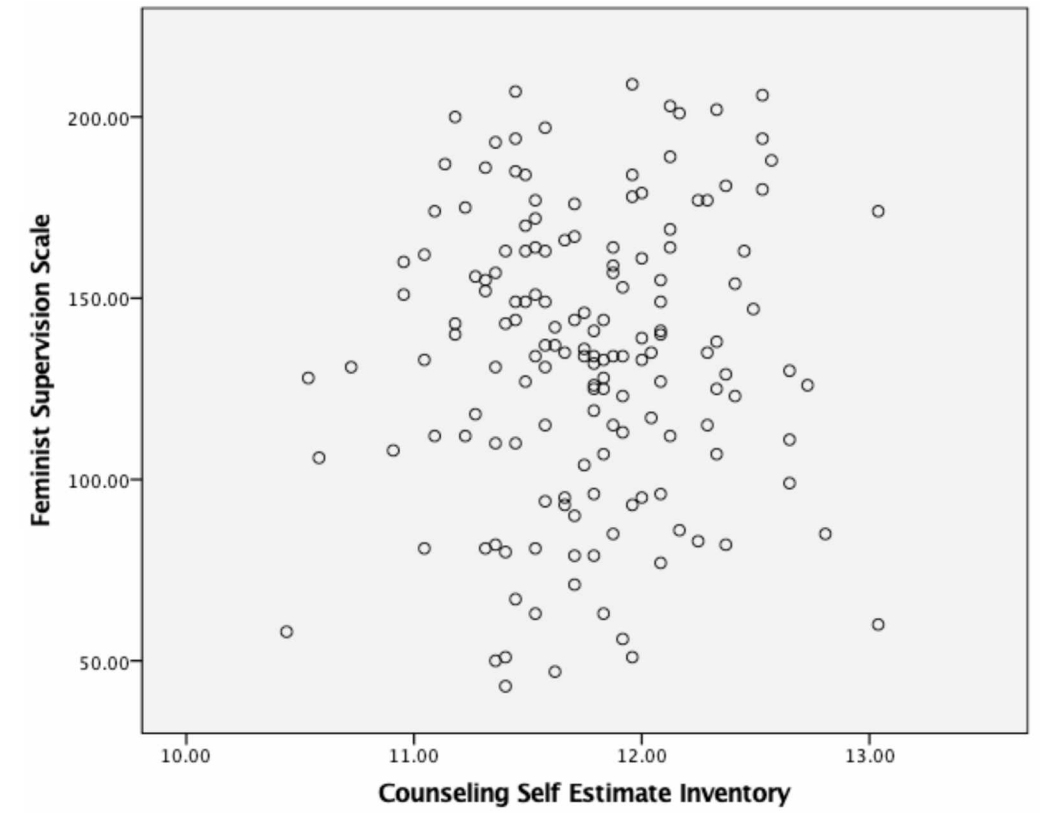


Figure A7

Scatterplot of the transformed Active Commitment subscale and FSS

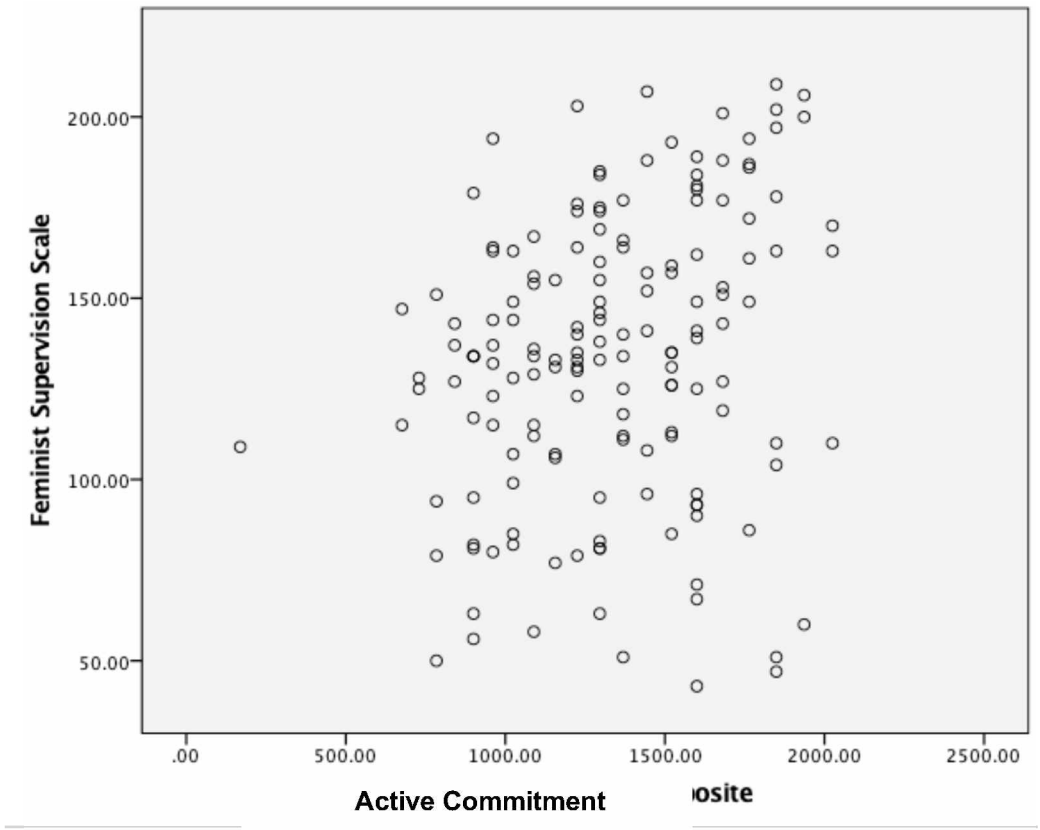


Figure A8

Scatterplot of the transformed Client Empowerment subscale and FSS

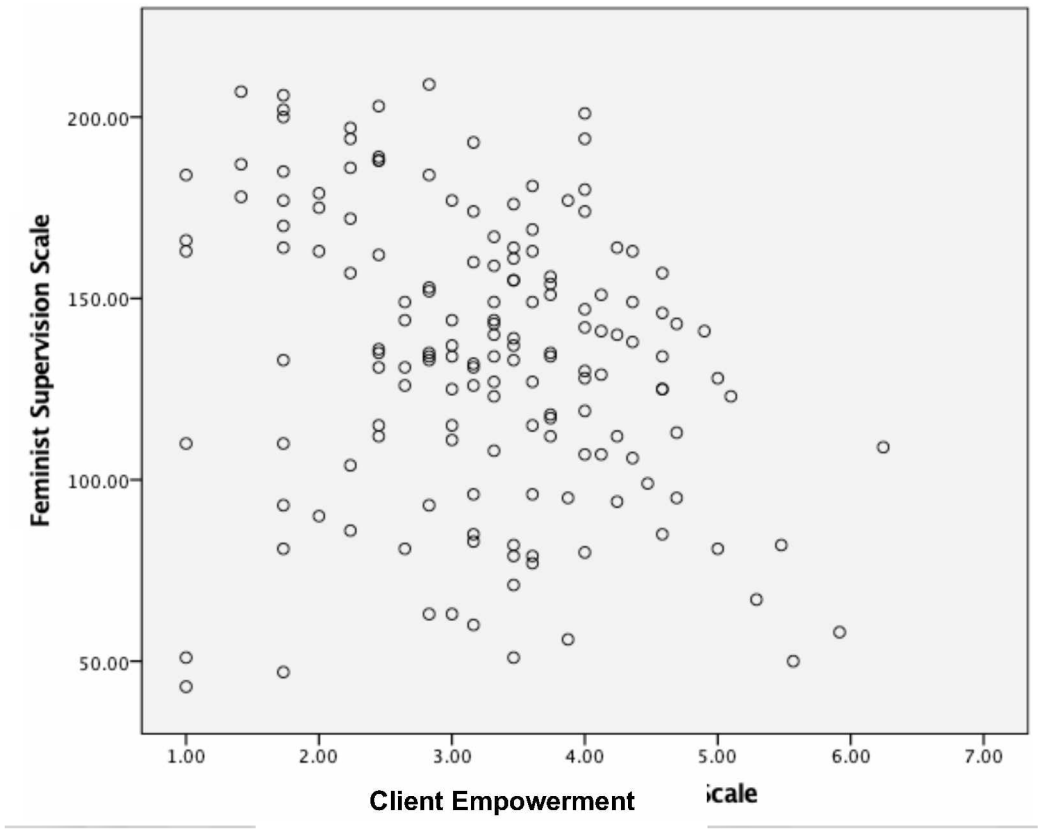


Figure A9

Scatterplot of the transformed COSE and the SMCI

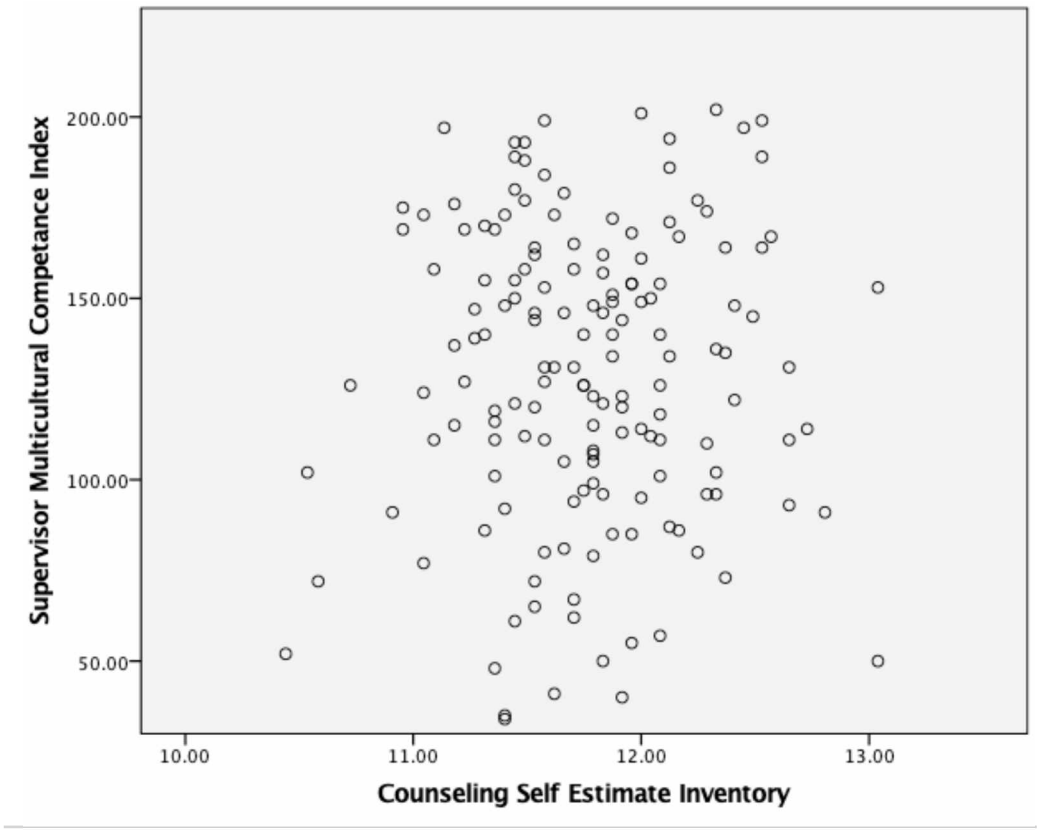


Figure A10

Scatterplot of the transformed TPRS-R and SMCI

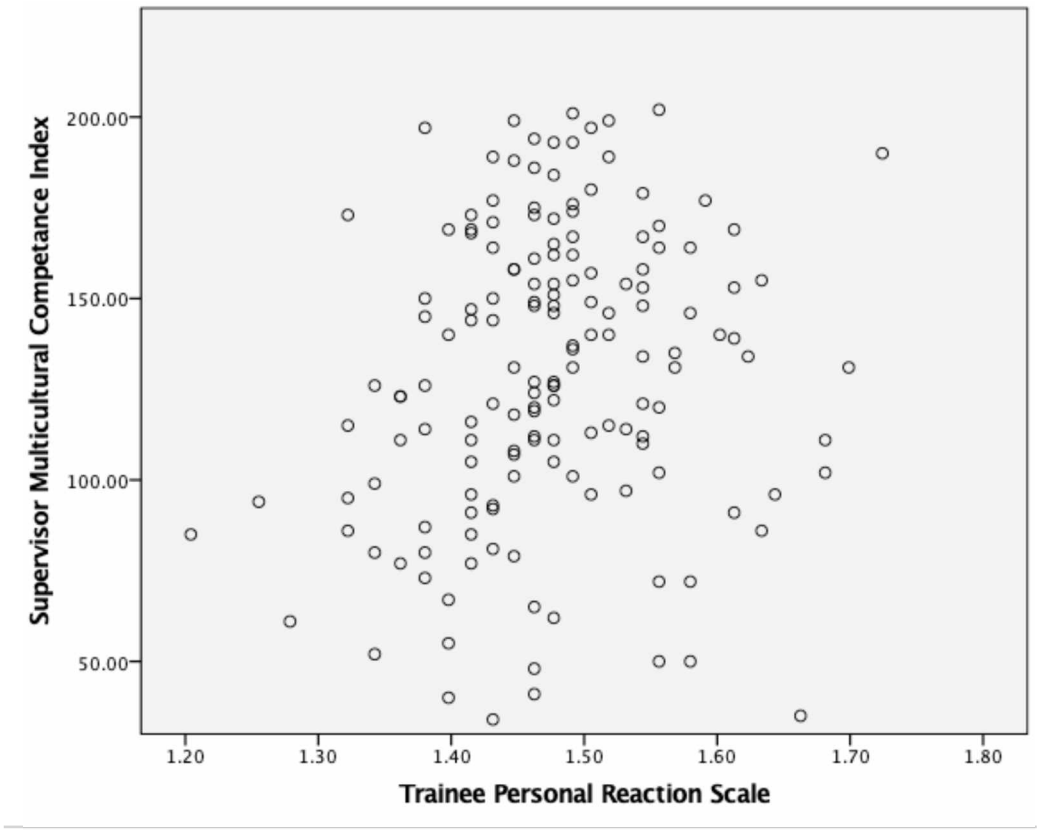


Figure A11

Scatterplot of the transformed Client Empowerment subscale and SMCI

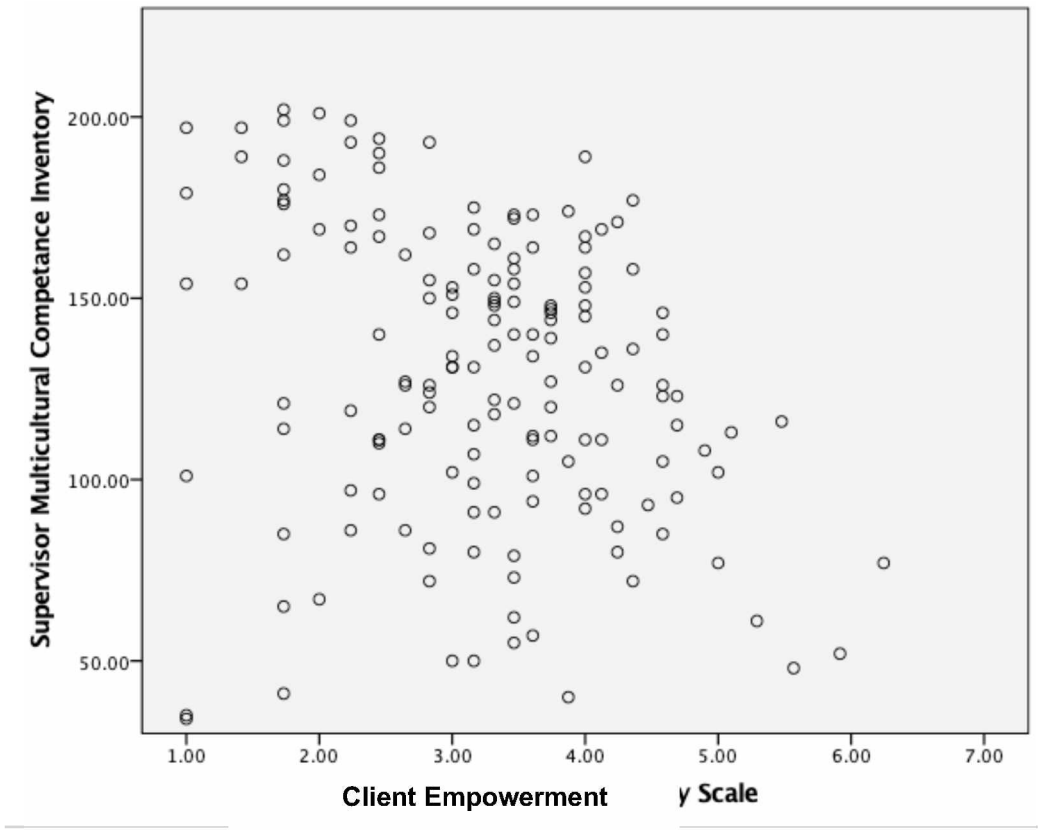
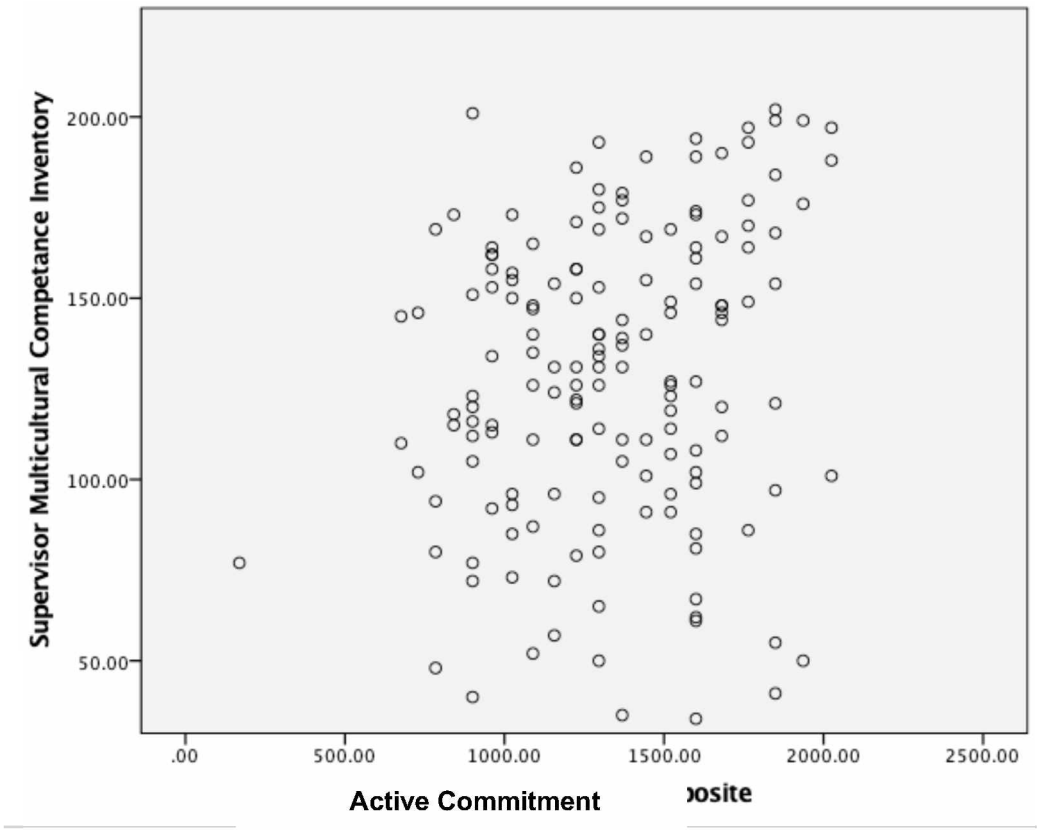


Figure A12

Scatterplot of the transformed Active Commitment subscale and SMCI



Appendix B

Recruitment Script

Dear ___(Training Director of Program)__,
My name is Rachael Dabkowski and I am a doctoral student in the Counseling Psychology department at Cleveland State University. I am reaching out to you in hopes that you would distribute this to your Clinical Mental Health Counseling students to participate in my dissertation research.

****All participants who complete the survey will receive a $10 amazon.com gift card****

The study is an online survey which takes approximately 30 minutes and poses minimal risk except possible discomfort from recalling possibly negative experiences with supervisors. I am seeking participants who are 18 y/o or older, identify as a woman and are currently in or were recently participating in practicum or internship during the spring semester. The goal is to understand student perceptions on supervision and how supervision impacts clinical competencies.

Interested students may use the following link to complete the survey:
http://csumarketing.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_86RJJjIOCDUMG7c

Participants are encouraged to complete the survey before **June 7th** to receive their gift card within 2-3 weeks of completion. Survey completions *after* June 7th may delay gift card arrival until late July.

For any questions or concerns please contact:
Rachael Dabkowski at (330) 203-1202 or r.smith6@vikes.csuohio.edu
Dr. Julia Phillips at (216) 875-9869 or j.c.phillips6@csuohio.edu

This study has CSU IRB Approval #FY2021-220

Thank you,
Rachael Dabkowski

Appendix C

Informed Consent

Dear Participant:

My name is Rachael Dabkowski. I am a doctoral student. My research supervisor is Dr. Julia Phillips. She is a professor at Cleveland State University. We are associated with the Counseling Psychology program in the College of Education and Human Services at Cleveland State University.

This study involves survey research. You must identify as a woman and a student. You must be 18 years of age or older. You must be enrolled in a counseling, clinical or mental health counseling program. You must have been enrolled in practicum or internship during Spring Semester 2021.

The purpose of this survey is to understand perceptions of supervision. The survey will ask about your supervision experiences. This study will illuminate perceptions of supervision. We hope to understand how supervision is impacting clinical competencies.

Your responses to the survey will be de-identified. Demographic data and de-identified data from the Supervisor Multicultural Competence Index (SMCI) (Question 32) will be given to the author of the SMCI - Dr. Arpana Inman from Lehigh University. Only the researchers will have access to your survey responses. Your data will be kept on password protected computers and flash drives. Your information will not be identifiable when results are reported.

Your name, contact information and signature will be kept secure. Only in the event of a tax audit will your name and mailing address be given to CSU internal audit staff. No other survey data will be released.

You will receive a $10 amazon.com gift card if you complete the entire study. You may be responsible for paying tax on this gift card.

Participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time without penalty. There is no consequence for not participating. Risk in participating is limited but you may experience possible discomfort by recalling possibly negative experiences with supervisors. The survey should take about 35 minutes to complete.

Whom to contact if you have questions about this study:

Dr. Julia Phillips, Professor in College of Education and Human Services, Cleveland State University. Contact: (216) 875-9869 or j.c.phillips6@csuohio.edu.

Rachael Dabkowski, Doctoral Student in Department of Counseling Psychology, Cleveland State University. Contact: (330) 203-1202 or r.smith6@vikes.csuohio.edu

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in this study:

The Cleveland State University Institutional Research Board at (216) 687-3630.

Agreement: You may print a copy of this Informed Consent for your records.

Please read the following:

"I understand that if I have questions about my rights as a research subject, I can contact The Cleveland State University Institutional Research Board at (216) 687-3630."

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the research.

Do you consent to participate in this study?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Appendix D

Demographics questionnaire

1. What is your gender identity? Please note that you must identify as a woman to complete this survey and to receive the $10 gift card upon completion.

- ○ Man
- ○ Woman
- ○ Cisgender
- ○ Transgender
- ○ Non-binary / third gender
- ○ Prefer not to say

2. Age?

_____

3. What is your race/ethnicity? (Choose all that apply)

- ○ White, Caucasian or European American
- ○ Black or African American
- ○ Asian or Asian American
- ○ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ○ Native American or Native Alaskan
- ○ Latino/a/x/ or Hispanic
- ○ Other race/ethnicity not listed
- ○ Prefer not to say

4. Are you an international student?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

5. What is your sexual orientation?

- ○ Heterosexual
- ○ Lesbian or Gay
- ○ Pansexual
- ○ Bisexual
- ○ Other sexual orientation not listed, please specify

_____

- ○ Prefer not to say

6. Your highest degree received?

- ○ PhD
- ○ PsyD
- ○ EdS
- ○ MA
- ○ MS
- ○ MEd
- ○ MSW
- ○ BS
- ○ BA

7. Current occupation?

_____

8. Your primary field of graduate study (e.g., marriage and family, counseling, clinical, mental health counseling)

_____

9. What year of your graduate program are you in?

- ○ 1st year
- ○ 2nd year
- ○ 3rd year
- ○ 4th year
- ○ 5th year
- ○ 6th year
- ○ 7th year
- ○ 8th year or older

10. Current level of training (e.g., beginning practicum):

_____

11. Please verify that you are/were enrolled in practicum or internship in Spring 2021. (Please note that this is also a requirement to participate in this survey to receive the $10 gift card)

- ○ Yes - I am/were enrolled in practicum or internship in Spring 2021
- ○ No - I'm not or was not

12. How many supervisors have you had?

- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ 5
- ○ 6
- ○ 7
- ○ 8+

13. What training have you received in multicultural issues (click all that apply):

- ○ Academic Course
- ○ Workshop
- ○ None
- ○ Other: _____

14. What percentage of your graduate level courses have substantially integrated multicultural/diversity/social justice issues?

- ○ Less than 25%
- ○ 25%
- ○ 50%
- ○ 75%
- ○ 100%

15. How many graduate level academic courses exclusively focused on multicultural issues have you taken?

- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ 5
- ○ 6+

16. Degree you are currently seeking:

- ○ PhD
- ○ PsyD
- ○ EdS
- ○ MA
- ○ MS
- ○ MEd
- ○ MSW

17. Approximate number of months of counseling experience with individual /family/group clients you have completed in your lifetime:

- ○ Individual _____
- ○ Family _____
- ○ Group _____

18. Of these months of counseling experience, how many were supervised?

_____

Please answer the following questions about your **most recent supervisor (spring semester).**

19. Supervisor's gender?

- ○ Man
- ○ Woman
- ○ Cisgender
- ○ Transgender
- ○ Nonbinary
- ○ Other gender identity not listed, please specify

_____

- ○ Unknown

20. What training has your supervisor received in giving supervision (select all that apply):

- ○ Academic Course
- ○ Workshop
- ○ None
- ○ Other: _____

21. What training has you supervisor received in multicultural issues (select all that apply):

- ○ Academic Course
- ○ Workshop
- ○ None
- ○ Other: _____

22. Supervisor's primary employment setting (e.g., CMHC, counseling center):

_____

23. Supervisor's primary theoretical orientation(s) with which he/she conceptualize and approach the treatment of clients:

_____

24. Supervisor's primary theoretical orientation(s) with which he/she conceptualize and approach supervision:

_____

25. How long have you been working with this supervisor?

_____

Appendix E

Debriefing form

Thank you for participating in this study. In this study, you completed a series of questionnaires. These questionnaires are intended to provide us with an understanding of experiences of supervision and how it can impact clinical competencies.

This study seeks to contribute to the existing research about how supervision impacts practicum and internship students. Ultimately, we hope to understand if feminist supervision and multicultural competencies of a supervisor can impact student competencies. We expect there to be a significant relationship between supervisor feminist supervision practices, multicultural competency of a supervisor and student clinical outcomes of self-efficacy, social justice advocacy, feminist identity and satisfaction with supervision. This study should pose minimal risk to participants but if you have any questions or concerns please contact us.

Whom to contact if you have questions about this study:

Dr. Julia Phillips, Professor in College of Education and Human Services, Cleveland State University. Contact: (216) 875-9869 or j.c.phillips6@csuohio.edu.

Rachael Dabkowski, Doctoral Student in Department of Counseling Psychology, Cleveland State University. Contact: (330) 203-1202 or r.smith6@vikes.csuohio.edu

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in this study:

The Cleveland State University Institutional Research Board at (216) 687-3630.

Your gift card should arrive to your e-mail provided within 2-3 weeks. If you did not receive your gift card please contact us.