School Counselor Training: Differentiated Site Supervision Based on Prior Work Experiences

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School Counselor Training:
Differentiated Site Supervision Based on Prior Work Experiences

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University

by

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This document is dedicated to my family. This program has not only been a journey for me but one for my husband, daughter, mother, and family-in-law. Since the arrival of my beautiful daughter, Hadley Grace, last year, it has certainly been a group effort for me to complete this document, and I have relied on the support of Josh, Mom, Kay, Nelson, and Amy to turn my proposal into a study. I am also grateful to my extended family, friends, colleagues, and pets for their patience and belief in my abilities to accomplish this life-long goal.

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# Table of Contents

List of Tables 
List of Figures 
Abstract 

I. INTRODUCTION ........................................... 1
   Statement of Problem .................................. 1
   Rationale for Study of Problem .................... 2
   Statement of Purpose ................................ 2
   Literature/Research Background .................. 3
   Research Questions .................................. 8
   Methodology .......................................... 9
   Findings .............................................. 10
   Summary ............................................. 11
   Definition of Terms .................................. 12

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE .................................. 15
   Introduction ......................................... 15
   Overview of Related Areas ......................... 16
   History of the Problem .............................. 19
   Council for Accreditation of Counseling &
     Related Educational Programs .................. 30
   Models Related to Site Supervision ................ 34
   Recent Studies ....................................... 48
   Conclusion/Study Rationale ......................... 64

III. METHODOLOGY ....................................... 66
   Statement of Problem ................................ 66
   Research Questions .................................. 67
   Research Design ...................................... 68
   Research Methods/Data Collection ................ 69
   Researcher Positionality ............................ 76
   Data Analysis ....................................... 77

IV. FINDINGS .......................................... 81
   Characteristics of the Sample ...................... 81
   Results .............................................. 83
   Synthesis of Findings ................................ 138

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION ..................... 147
   Summary ............................................. 147
   Discussion .......................................... 154
   Limitations ......................................... 164
   Implications ....................................... 169
   Final Summary ..................................... 178
Abstract

SCHOOL COUNSELOR TRAINING: DIFFERENTIATED SITE SUPERVISION BASED ON PRIOR WORK EXPERIENCES

By Rachel Savage Loving, Ph.D.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

Virginia Commonwealth University, 2012

Co-Chairs: Dr. Jonathan Becker, Assistant Professor, Educational Leadership and Dr. Mary Hermann, Associate Professor and Chair, Counselor Education

Over a decade after the regulation change in Virginia allowing individuals without teaching experience to pursue school counseling careers, no known study had focused exclusively on differences site supervisors observe when training school counselors from different professional backgrounds and the extent to which those counselors employ a tailored supervision approach in the clinical setting. While site supervisor training has been an area of interest in recent articles (e.g., Dollarhide & Miller, 2006), its relationship to supervision philosophies and technique differentiation has not been previously addressed. The researcher investigated those topics using a mixed-method research design shaped by suggestions from recent literature (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; DeKruyf, 2007; Luke, Ellis, & Bernard, 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Stephens, 2008). This study analyzed site supervisors’ perspectives on supervision, the role training can play in developing site supervisors’ confidence and philosophical orientation, and the beliefs and practices site supervisors employ when supervising former teachers and non-teachers. Observed differences
between former teachers and non-teachers in the clinical setting existed, yet 7 out of 12 site supervisors did not differentiate their supervision approach in order to close this gap. Findings from both Phase I (survey) and Phase II (interview) of this study indicated that practice is linked to training. Site supervisors who reported receiving supervision training were more likely to work from a philosophy of site supervision, feel more confident about their ability to supervise, and believe that differences between former teachers and non-teachers were slight and could be overcome with supportive, intentional supervision.
I. Introduction

Today’s school counseling site supervisor oversees the practicum and internship of students with a variety of previous work and life experiences. Fifty years ago, 48 states and the District of Columbia required school counselors to have a valid teaching license (Lister, 1969). Only five states currently maintain a teaching requirement for school counselor licensure (Bundy & Studer, 2011). Empirical evidence shows that appropriate clinical experiences, such as the practicum and internship, can help counselors-in-training without prior teaching experience learn the school procedures necessary to be effective (e.g., Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Havens, 1972). This and other evidence provided over the last half-century triggered the shift in state licensure requirements for school counselors. As fewer states required teaching experience, more individuals entered the school counseling profession without it (Bundy & Studer, 2011). Today, the majority of school counselors-in-training do not possess teaching experience (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006); thus, clinical experiences may be their first exposure to working in a school.

As the key element of experiential counselor training, each school counselor-in-training should have an effective site supervisor oversee their clinical experiences (Luke & Bernard, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Studer, 2005; Thompson & Moffett, 2010). The approaches site supervisors use can affect counselor confidence (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010). In order to ensure that school counseling students without teaching experience receive optimal clinical experiences that will prepare them for the school setting, it is important to understand how site supervisors address these students’ needs in the clinical setting.

Statement of Problem

Recent literature indicates that school counselors-in-training with teaching experience and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience face different challenges in the
clinical setting (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004). Researchers have identified clinical experiences as a vehicle for acclimatizing non-teachers with the school setting (Beale & McCay, 2001; Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Olson & Allen, 1993). However, site supervisors have often not received training that specifically fosters understanding of the unique needs of non-teachers (Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Nelson & Johnson, 1999; DeKruyf, 2007). Site supervisors' skill sets for working with school counselors-in-training who do not have teaching experience require deeper understanding.

**Rationale for Study of Problem**

Gaps exist in the literature regarding how current site supervisors approach supervision. DeKruyf (2007) established that 40 hours or more of supervision training positively correlates with site supervisor self-efficacy. Over half the site supervisors in DeKruyf’s study, however, reported they had a dearth of knowledge and no training on supervision models and a lack of confidence in employing them in practice. Site supervisors’ knowledge of training techniques that could help them meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from different professional backgrounds remains unclear. Researchers have not yet studied the perspectives of site supervisors on differentiated strategies used to supervise school counselors-in-training with teaching experience and without teaching experience (DeKruyf, 2007; Marino, 2011; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006).

**Statement of Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to identify site supervisors' beliefs and practices regarding differentiated supervision of school counselors-in-training with and without previous teaching experience and to uncover themes within their approaches to supervisees with diverse professional backgrounds. This study cultivated understanding of whether site supervisors feel
that supervision should be differentiated as well as the extent to which site supervisors tailor their supervision techniques based on the supervisees’ previous work experiences. The researcher also investigated site supervisors’ preparedness to train practicum and internship students.

**Literature/Research Background**

The literature surrounding this topic covers the historical evolution of two developments: a) the support for non-teachers as effective school counselors and b) school counseling standards. Events of the twentieth century such as the passing of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 (Baker, 1994; Olson & Allen, 1993) seemed to support school counselors having prior teaching experience because knowledge of school procedures was viewed as beneficial for systematically delivering services to large groups of students. The process by which school counselors acquired skills had not been extensively studied at that time, although researchers believed classroom experience was necessary to develop competence (Olson & Allen, 1993). Beginning in the 1960s, researchers began investigating the effectiveness of non-teachers and questioning the necessity of the teaching requirement (Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Lister, 1969). In 1967, 48 states and the District of Columbia required a teaching certificate in order to obtain school counselor licensure (Lister, 1969). All but 13 states required teaching experience in addition to the teaching certificate. Alternative licensure programs, such as the pilot program through the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh (Havens, 1972), provided the first opportunities for experimental inquiry of the performance of teachers versus non-teachers in the clinical setting.

Over the next forty years, studies provided evidence that school setting exposure, not necessarily teaching experience, prepared school counselors to meet the challenges of the
profession (e.g., Baker, 1994; Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Haven, 1972). One by one, states began repealing the teaching requirement for school counselor licensure. In 1998, Virginia changed the requirement from two years of teaching experience to two years of school experience. Under the new requirements, a school counselor without teaching experience qualifies for a provisional license for the first two years, and the state grants full licensure after successful completion of those two years of practicing school counselor experience (Virginia Code 8 VAC 20-22-630, as cited in the Virginia Register of Regulations, 2006). Virginia’s regulations are consistent with Baker’s (1994) findings that the differences between counselors with teaching experience and those without, as documented by teachers, diminish over time as school experience is acquired. Only five states still require teaching experience for school counselor licensure (Bundy & Studer, 2011). Peterson and Deuschle (2006) found that 73% of school counselors-in-training did not have teaching experience in 2005. At the start of the twenty-first century, research began to focus on the role of the clinical experiences as a means for closing the gap in school setting preparedness between teachers and non-teachers. Beale and McCay (2001) contended that the internship plays a large role in preparing school counselors-in-training without teaching experience to meet administrators’ expectations.

School counseling standards have also emerged as an important aspect to consider. While professional organizations and early versions of standards existed in the first half of the twentieth century, training standards took a modern form in the 1960s (Robinson, 2011b; Sheeley, 1990). The founding of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) in 1981 and its recognition by the Council of Postsecondary Education (COPA) in 1987 gave CACREP oversight of master’s- and doctoral-level counseling programs that sought accreditation (Sweeney, 1992). Despite CACREP’s stringent 600-hour internship requirements,
the number of accredited departments has grown to nearly 600 over the last 30 years (CACREP, 2011a).

In the twenty-first century, the profession adopted two additional standards documents. First, in 2003, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) published its National Model. This model outlined the appropriate responsibilities for school counselors, denouncing duties such as test administration that interfere with direct services for students, advocacy, and collaboration (Miller & Dollarhide, 2006). School counselor responsibilities resembled those of a school leader rather than a teacher. Classroom management skills, however, remained necessary for large-group aspects of the Òdelivery systemÓ (p. 22), the ASCA (2003) term for the method by which school counselors deliver their curriculum. School counselors are expected to deliver part of their curriculum in the classroom setting (ASCA, 2003); therefore, being prepared to serve in this capacity is now more critical than ever.

Second, in 2011, the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) adopted Best Practices in Clinical Supervision, which provides more detailed guidelines for site supervision. Where the CACREP Standards (2009) mandate that training for site supervisors should occur, the ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision recommends formal training for site supervisors which should provide information about models of supervision and counselor development and ongoing professional development in supervision. Section 12 specifies the supervision training mentioned in the CACREP Standards (2009) should take the form of Òdidactic instructionÓ (ACES, 2011, p. 15), and supervisors should be able to articulate a philosophy of supervision as a result. The extent to which this training was already taking place at the time of the ACES publication is unknown. Without formal training, site supervisors feel less prepared to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf &
Pehrsson, 2011), especially those without teaching experience. Non-teachers have cited clinical experiences as an influential factor in their self-efficacy as a school counselor (Scoles, 2011). Unfavorable supervision strategies have been linked to lower school counselor intern self-efficacy (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010).

The minimal extent to which training exists is well documented (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011; Lambie & Williamson, 2006; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Studer, 2005). While numerous models for school counseling supervision exist (e.g., the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers), site supervisors’ awareness and use of these models in practice is unknown. Bernard and Goodyear (2004) contended that practicing supervisors should select and work from a model. The six models presented in this study provide both theoretical frameworks and practical suggestions. Roberts and Morotti’s (2001) Site Supervisors of Professional School Counseling Interns: Suggested Guidelines provided seven preliminary recommendations for site supervisors. Supervising School Counselors-in-Training: A Guide for Field Supervisors (Studer, 2005) infused the ASCA National Model (2003) into the recommended supervision techniques. The School Counseling Supervision Model: An Extension of the Discrimination Model (Luke & Bernard, 2006) provided a school counseling orientation to Bernard’s (1979, 1997) classic Discrimination Model. The Goals, Functions, Roles, and Systems Model (Wood & Rayle, 2006) outlined an approach in which site supervisors conceptualize supervision through the student, teacher, administrator, parent, and counselor systems of function within a school. The Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006) helped site supervisors of counselors-in-training without teaching experience acclimate their supervisees to the school environment. The Developmental Model for School Counselor Training (Thompson & Moffett, 2010) offered the learning, observing,
comprehending, and knowing (LOCK) model, which is based on Stoltenberg and Delworth’s (1987) theory of counselor development and focuses on activities that facilitate this development. Each of these models provides different techniques site supervisors can utilize to meet the needs of their supervisees. Peterson and Deuschle’s (2006) model is particularly relevant for the supervision of non-teachers and suggests practices for differentiation. The extent to which this model is being used in practice is unknown.

Studies conducted in the last decade continued to investigate the differences between teachers and non-teachers as school counselors as well as the issues surrounding site supervisor preparation. Recent literature indicates that small differences exist between school counselors who have teaching experience and those who do not (Bringman & Sang, 2008; Peterson et al., 2004; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Scoles, 2011; Smith, Crutchfield, & Culbreth, 2001). The number of school counselors without teaching experience has risen since the state-by-state removal of the teaching requirement began (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Researchers no longer appear to be investigating whether non-teachers can be effective school counselors, but rather how the clinical experience can most effectively facilitate their transition to the school setting. As the presence of non-teachers becomes more prevalent and the importance of clinical experiences becomes more pronounced, researchers have increased attention on the role of the site supervisor. In the last decade, researchers have studied these developments from the perspectives of counselor educators (Smith et al., 2001), school counselors-in-training (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; Peterson et al., 2004), practicing school counselors (Bringman & Sang, 2008; Marino, 2011; Scoles, 2011), and site supervisors (DeKruyf, 2007; Stephens, 2008; Walter, 2009). Recent studies, however, have yet to address how site supervisors differentiate
supervision strategies and techniques based on the supervisees’ previous professional experiences.

For over a decade, researchers have called for further research on site supervision. Specifically, Nelson and Johnson (1999) suggested that site supervisors be surveyed to determine how they approach site supervision, what kind of theoretical framework they use, and what kind of training is needed. While DeKruyf (2007) attempted to address these issues in her dissertation, the quantitative methodology created more questions about the preparedness of site supervisors and their ability to meet the specific needs of their supervisees. The literature suggests a qualitative methodology is needed to further explore site supervisors’ thoughts on the supervision process (DeKruyf, 2007; Luke, Ellis, & Bernard, 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Recent literature also calls for a generalizable quantitative methodology (Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Stephens, 2008). A mixed-methods study of site supervision approaches for supervising teachers and non-teachers that also addresses site supervisors’ levels of preparation could answer the remaining questions from the literature.

**Research Questions**

Historical literature and recent studies leave the following questions unanswered:

1) How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?

2) How prepared are site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?

   a. How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?

   b. To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?
3) What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?

**Methodology**

Using a sequential explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), members of the Virginia School Counselors Association (VSCA) who have served as a site supervisor for a master’s-level school counseling student engaged in a practicum or internship completed a survey pertaining to their site supervision approach (Phase I). A volunteer sample of those surveyed participated in a follow-up interview (Phase II).

The Site Supervision Questionnaire (SSQ) consisted of 24 questions. Because no single existing survey addressed all three of the research questions for this study, a researcher-developed questionnaire was necessary. Open and closed questions were both present on the survey. Closed questions used dichotomous, multiple choice, and Likert-type formats. One question section employed items from an existing site supervisor checklist (Studer, 2006). The VSCA distributed the approved survey to its members via the online Survey Monkey software. There were approximately 800 members in the spring of 2012. A screening question that asked if the participant had ever served as a site supervisor prevented ineligible participants from completing the survey. The researcher estimated that approximately 400 VSCA members were eligible to complete the survey.

Upon completion of the survey, respondents were asked to participate in a follow-up interview. The survey directed volunteers to click a link that opened a new window which allowed them to provide their contact information while also maintaining survey response anonymity. The researcher interviewed participants via phone and, with participant permission, used the phone’s speaker function and audio recorded the responses.
Researchers must follow ethical guidelines when conducting research with human subjects. The Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) Institutional Review Board (IRB) and VSCA Research Committee approved the research procedures and instruments. The researcher asked the survey and interview participants to provide informed consent. The surveys were anonymous, and the researcher kept the identities of the interviewees confidential by using pseudonyms when reporting results.

The researcher analyzed the survey responses using Microsoft Excel for the closed questions and thematic, qualitative analysis for the open questions. Additional sub-questions were added to some interview questions as a result of survey responses. Interview recordings were transcribed and analyzed for common points, or codes, and the codes were consolidated into themes. Themes were then organized into seven categories that addressed the research questions: site supervisor training, site supervisor responsibilities, site supervisor philosophies, site supervisor confidence, observed trends in supervisee experiences, performance differences among supervisees, and supervision practices.

Findings

The data collected in Phase I (survey) and Phase II (interview) of this study revealed several themes within the dynamics of site supervision. This study analyzed site supervisors' training, philosophies, confidence, beliefs, and practices, and draws connections between them. The findings demonstrated that site supervisors tend to understand site supervision in terms of a concrete list of tasks. Few site supervisors incorporated supervision models or descriptions of their type of approach or communication style into their philosophy. Philosophies of site supervision that were truly philosophical tended to come from those participants who had received some form of supervision training. In fact, participants who had not received
supervision training were one-third less likely to work from a philosophy at all. Training was also linked to participants having higher confidence levels and rating performance differences in the clinical setting between school counselors-in-training with and without previous teaching experience more moderately. Specifically, participants who reported receiving training were more likely to rate the observed performance differences closer to the mid-point of three (on a scale of one to five) than those who had not received training. Those who had not received training rated the differences between former teachers and non-teachers as being more evident in the classroom setting and less evident in small group and individual settings than those who had received training. One possible explanation for this finding is that site supervisors who received training are more aware of non-teachers' potential to learn classroom skills in the clinical setting and understand the possible need for former teachers to receive additional support with their transition to small group and individual counseling settings. These findings also provide evidence that site supervisors' belief systems, whether they are based on information from training or their own experiences, affect site supervisors' practices with their supervisees. Phase II participants who believed differences between former teachers and non-teachers existed and those who had received training were more likely to differentiate their supervision practices based on the supervisees' professional background and individual strengths. Implications for school counselors-in-training, site supervisors, school counseling leaders, counselor educators, and professional organizations are presented in the final chapter.

**Summary**

Over the last century, the school counseling profession has evolved into one that is standards-based and more closely aligned with the counseling field than the education field. Forty-five out of fifty states no longer require teaching experience for licensure (Bundy &
Studer, 2011). This makes the clinical experience, overseen by the site supervisor, the primary means by which non-teachers gain knowledge of school procedures. CACREP Standards (2009) and ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011) recommend that site supervisors receive training in supervision prior to engaging in a supervisory relationship. Several studies acknowledge that this is a challenge (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Nelson & Johnson, 1999). While school counseling supervision models exist (e.g., Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), evidence of their implementation does not. This absence could be problematic for non-teachers who have a steeper learning curve (Peterson et al., 2004) and may possess less self-confidence if their site supervisor has not been properly trained (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010).

This mixed-method analysis of Virginia site supervisors’ experiences in supervising school counselors-in-training with diverse professional backgrounds is beneficial to the profession. While this study’s findings support DeKruyf’s (2007) finding that many school counseling site supervisors lack training, it also demonstrates how training, or lack thereof, can affect practice. Training is linked to site supervisors’ preparedness, their beliefs regarding non-teacher potential, and their differentiation of supervisees’ individual strengths. Understanding Virginia site supervisors’ beliefs, practices, and needs has the potential to shape future supervision training opportunities.

**Definition of Terms**

Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES): A division of the American Counselor Association (ACA), ACES aims to advance counselor education and supervision in order to improve the provision of counseling services in all settings of society (ACES, 2011, para. 4).
American School Counselor Association (ASCA): A division of the ACA, ASCA is the publisher of the *National Model* (2003, 2005) that formally defines the school counselor’s role within the school.

Clinical experience: A general term used to describe supervised field experiences, either practicum or internship, within a counselor education program (Thompson & Moffett, 2010)

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP): The credentialing agency that accredits counselor education and other counseling programs (CACREP, 2011b)

Counselor education: The term used to describe the university program that trains school counseling students

Counselor educator: An instructor within a university’s counselor education program

Non-teacher: A school counselor-in-training that does not possess prior teaching experience (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006)

Philosophy of supervision: A philosophy of clinical supervision encapsulates the beliefs about supervision that a supervisor holds. These beliefs arise from the person of the supervisor, to be sure. But they also arise from the experience of delivering clinical services, receiving supervision of clinical supervision, and a careful and studied understanding of clinical supervision. The content of these beliefs encompasses the supervisor’s beliefs about people, how people develop and change. As a whole, a philosophy of supervision serves to guide the work of clinical supervision and to inform supervisees about important aspects of supervision (Martin & Cannon, 2010, p. 1).

School counselor: The preferred term for counselors who work within a school setting (ASCA, 2003)
School counselor-in-training: A student enrolled in a counselor education program (Studer, 2006)

Site supervisor: A practicing school counselor who meets the CACREP requirements (two years of school counseling experience) to supervise a practicum or internship student (Studer, 2006)

Supervisee: A school counselor-in-training that is enrolled in a supervised clinical experience, either practicum or internship (Studer, 2006)

Supervision: “Supervision is an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of that same profession” (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004, p. 8). While supervision often occurs among postgraduates for professional development, in this paper, supervision and site supervision will be used interchangeably to denote supervision between an experienced professional in the field of school counseling and a master’s-level school counseling student.
II. Review of Literature

Introduction

Site supervisors encounter school counselors-in-training with a variety of different backgrounds. Evidence exists which demonstrates that those who have not worked in a school encounter more difficulties upon entering their clinical experiences (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004). Historically, school counselors were required to have teaching experience prior to becoming licensed (Lister, 1969; Olson & Allen, 1993), but that has changed over the last fifty years. Recent studies indicated slight differences between teachers and non-teachers in the school counseling profession (Bringman & Sang, 2008; Peterson et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2001); however, these differences can be minimized through appropriate clinical experiences (Beale & McCay, 2001). While supervision models exist for school counselors (e.g., Luke & Bernard, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Roberts & Morotti, 2001; Studer, 2005; Thompson & Moffett, 2010; Wood & Rayle, 2006), only one (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006) addresses the specific needs of the school counselor-in-training without teaching experience. The implementation of that model in practice is unclear.

There is evidence that the site supervisor plays a significant role in the developmental experience of the school counselor-in-training (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011; Stephens, 2008; Walter, 2009). ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011) and CACREP Standards (2009) indicated that training for site supervisors should take place. It is recommended that site supervisors possess knowledge of supervision models (ACES, 2011) and work from a model as they supervise (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). The literature indicates that site supervisor training is limited (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011; Marino, 2011; Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Studer, 2005) and suggests that the
extent to which site supervisors are equipped to address professional background differences should be examined (DeKruyf, 2007; Marino, 2011). Therefore, the profession could benefit from understanding how site supervisors respond to professional background differences in school counselors-in-training and to what extent they have knowledge of and implement the existing supervision models. In studying this phenomenon, the researcher will answer the following questions:

1) How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?

2) How prepared are site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?
   a. How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?
   b. To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?

3) What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?

**Overview of Related Areas**

To become a fully licensed school counselor in the Commonwealth of Virginia, one must earn a master’s degree in counselor education, complete clinical experiences, possess two years of successful, full-time teaching experience or two years of successful experience in guidance and counseling (Virginia Code 8 VAC 20-22-630, as cited in the Virginia Register of Regulations, 2006), and gain employment by a school system that will apply for the license on the school counselor’s behalf. Until 1998, all school counselors in Virginia had to begin their careers as teachers and then transition into the position of school counselor later in their careers. After ongoing debate (Baker, 1994; Bringman & Sang, 2008; Olson & Allen, 1993; Peterson,
Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004; Smith et al., 2001), the teaching requirement was gradually removed state by state (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Few states still require teaching experience for licensure (Baker, 1994; Bundy & Studer, 2011).

In 1998, the Commonwealth of Virginia began allowing aspiring school counselors without teaching experience to be provisionally licensed for the first two years of their career. This two-year provisional requirement would substitute for the two years of educational experience required for initial licensure as a school counselor (Virginia Code 8 VAC 20-22-630, as cited in the Virginia Register of Regulations, 2006). The removal of the teaching requirement allowed aspiring school counselors in the internship phase of their counselor education program to be marketable for positions as school counselors upon graduation, regardless of their previous work experiences. However, school counselors without prior teaching experience still faced a number of obstacles, including a history of administrator and teacher preference for school counselors with the traditional teaching background (Baker & Herr, 1976; Beale, 1995; Quarto, 1999).

Also in the 1990s the profession began to advocated for the term "school counselor" instead of the term "guidance counselor" because the role had shifted from merely imparting information and providing vocational guidance toward program development, leadership, and collaboration with administrators, teachers, and other educators, as well as community and mental health professionals (Beale & McCay, 2001; Bemak, 2000; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006). The skills and responsibilities of the professional school counselor, as defined by the ASCA National Model (2005), are unique to the school counseling profession and do not include the ancillary duties of teachers. Specifically, ASCA expects school counselors to spend the majority of their time counseling students rather than engaging in tasks such as hall monitoring, bus duty,
and test administration. The skills required to be a school counselor became more closely aligned with the counseling profession rather than the teaching profession. Counselor education graduate programs, often regulated by credentialing and professional agencies such as CACREP and ACES, provide specific training and clinical experiences to prepare school counselors-in-training to adhere to the ASCA National Model and state regulations for school guidance and counseling programs (8VAC20-620-10, Virginia General Assembly, 2011).

As school counselors serving as site supervisors help prepare school counselors-in-training for their future careers, they encounter practicum and internship supervisees with a variety of experiences. School counselors-in-training who have not previously worked in a school possess a unique set of needs that differ from those who have prior knowledge of how school systems work (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Clinical experiences play a large role in helping non-teachers gain school system experience (Beale & McCay, 2001; Quarto, 1999). Over a decade after the regulation change in Virginia that allowed non-teachers to pursue school counseling careers, little research exists that explores the differences site supervisors observe when training school counselors from different professional backgrounds and the extent to which they approach these students differently in the clinical setting. The training that site supervisors receive to address these differences and the extent to which they are familiar with supervision models that can facilitate school counselor development are also in question.

It is difficult to discuss the differences between school counselors-in-training with and without prior teaching experience without considering the historical debate over the topic. Olson and Allen (1993) provided a detailed account of these events. In analyzing this article and others on the topic, the researcher explored original sources from as early as 1909. The researcher downloaded sources for this literature review primarily through EBSCO host (Academic
Research Complete, Educational Research Complete, and ERIC) over two years. Search terms included, but were not limited to, school counseling, teaching experience, clinical experience, clinical supervision, site supervision, CACREP, and supervision model. The researcher ordered several items through inter-library loan (e.g., Brewer, 1932) and copied two articles from Counselor Education and Supervision from the early 1970s from microfiche. One supervision model designed by Peterson and Deuschle (2006) was particularly relevant for non-teachers. With the assistance of library services, all recent studies that cited this article were identified. Google Scholar was particularly helpful for finding dissertations that referenced the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers. The researcher established an email alert for new articles or dissertations that referenced this model. While the history of research surrounding teaching experience and clinical experiences is rich, the models and recent studies that support the rationale for this study were designed or conducted within the last decade.

**Historical Background**

The historical background for the supervision of school counselors-in-training without teaching experience requires following two developments through time: a) the debate over teachers versus non-teachers as school counselors and b) the development of standards and credentialing. Both developments will be discussed in segments of time: early 1900s, 1960s and 70s, 1980s, 1990s, 2000s, and 2010s. These developments evolved on a parallel trajectory as official documentation of the school counselor’s role emerged at the turn of the century.

**Early 1900s**

The connection between teaching and educational guidance (Ohlsen, 1949, p. 410) dates back to the early 1900s. In 1907, Jesse Davis implemented what has been called the first organized guidance program (Pope, 2009; Robinson, 2011a). As a principal in Grand Rapids,
Michigan, Davis mandated that English teachers conduct weekly guidance lessons. Teachers instructed students in each grade to write an essay on a different topic addressing character and future plans (Pope, 2009). Davis’s program offered the first connection between teaching skills and counseling. Frank Parsons (1909), along with the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA), called for school counselors in their earliest form and recommended that vocational counselors possess “two years or more in teaching or business or social work, or a satisfactory equivalent for such experience” (p. 94). John Brewer’s proclamation that all teachers provide guidance on life activities (Brewer, 1932) continued to associate teaching and counseling by suggesting that some roles were interchangeable.

These early connections implied that teaching skills were necessary, particularly in a time when formal counselor training was in the developmental stages. The debate over whether school counselors should be required to possess prior teaching experience became more prominent with the passing of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, which increased the demand for school counselors (Baker, 1994; Olson & Allen, 1993) and provided funds for their training (Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Robinson, 2011a). This event is paramount in the history of school counseling (Robinson, 2011a), as it helped to solidify the counselor’s role in schools as one separate from that of a teacher. According to Olson and Allen (1993), the debate began over which expertise is more beneficial for effective school counseling: the prior knowledge of school operations or behavioral sciences.

As the school counseling profession became more organized, its leaders sought to separate it from teaching and maintain a unique identity, training, and role within schools. Experts debated whether prior teaching experience should be required for school counselors originated or if training could supplement or take the place of classroom experience. As a
fledgling profession, counselor education standards did not initially exist. According to the 1978 *Commission on Standards Implementation Report* (Sheeley, as cited in Sweeney, 1992), the first discussions of training standards can be traced back to the 1940s. The 1950s, however, gave way to organizational structure for counselors and counselor educators. The American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA, later renamed the American Association of Counseling & Development, AACD, and now called the American Counseling Association, ACA) was founded in 1952 (Robinson, 2011b). As one of four divisions of the APGA, the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers (NAGSCT, founded in 1940 as the National Association of Guidance Supervision, NAGS, now ACES) joined the APGA the same year (Robinson, 2011b; Sheeley, 1990). ASCA was also formed in 1952 (Lambie & Williamson, 2004) and joined APGA in 1953 (Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Robinson, 2011b). These organizations gave the profession the credence to move forward with standards development.

**1960s and 1970s**

ACES established its first *Code of Ethics* in 1961 (Robinson, 2011a). According to Sweeney (1992), ACES implemented the first sets of standards in the late 1960s—a one set for secondary school counselors (1967) and one for elementary school counselors (1968). Additionally, ACA and Ohio University prepared the *Manual for Self-Study for a Counselor Education Staff*, which ACES distributed at its 1967 convention. Counselor educators used this document into the mid-1970s, and it served as a precursor to one eventually utilized by the CACREP. The desire to combine these three sets of standards as well as have counseling programs be accredited by their own credentialing body in order to avoid overlap by less relevant credentialing bodies drove CACREP’s development. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), for example, had already accredited a number of counselor
education programs, but NCATE’s guidelines did not meet the specific needs of counseling programs. By the end of the 1970s, ACA and ACES had adopted the *Standards for Entry Preparation of Counselors and Other Personnel- Services Specialists*. While ACES was eager to have CACREP act as counselor education’s own credentialing body, it still needed to be recognized by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA). In order to do this, ACES developed a Committee on Accreditation, developed and implemented its own set of standards, and “grandparented” Idaho State University, University of Virginia, University of Washington, and Ball State University into CACREP accreditation status (Sweeney, 1992). The road to CACREP receiving full COPA recognition, however, would continue into the next decade.

As counselor education became more structured in the 1960s and 1970s, the first formal studies on the difference between school counselors with and without teaching experience appeared. In their comprehensive review of literature from this period, Olson and Allen (1993) presented Lister (1969), Havens (1972), Dilley, Foster and Bowers (1973), White and Parsons (1974), and Erpenbach and Perrone (1976) as having made significant contributions to supporting non-teachers’ effectiveness. In the late 1960s, Lister (1969) found that 48 states and the District of Columbia required a teaching license. From his review of research, Lister found that some education leaders and counselor educators did not feel that prior teaching experience was absolutely necessary. Lister declared that the teaching requirement that existed for years was not supported by sound evidence that prior teaching led to more effective counseling.

Thirteen states possessed some flexibility on teaching experience as a requirement at that time (Lister, 1969). Wisconsin, for example, became one of the first states to allow, at the superintendent’s discretion, a waiver of the teaching requirement for those who participated in
experimental (p. 4) counselor training programs that included a one-year, full-time internship (Havens, 1972). Havens described such an experimental program that began in 1969 at the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh as part of a grant under the Education Professional Development Act (EPDA). The university requested that interns’ site supervisors provide guidance and assistance (Havens, 1972, p. 24) in the school setting and did not ask them to evaluate their supervisees’ performance. Havens (1972) found that school counseling interns without teaching experience were just as effective as interns in the regular program who did have teaching experience. While these non-teachers were rated as effective by students, administrators, and other school personnel, they were not seen as being as knowledgeable (Havens, 1972, p. 65) as other counselors, a point that separates counselor effectiveness from procedural knowledge of the educational environment.

Dilley et al. (1973) and White and Parsons (1974), through their studies conducted in Wisconsin and Wyoming respectively, substantiated claims that non-teachers can be as effective, and perhaps even more effective, than former teachers. Baker and Herr (1976) suggested that teacher effectiveness in the counseling setting was a myth (p. 117) partially perpetuated by principal bias (p. 115). In a meta-analysis of internship studies, Erpenbach and Perrone (1976) determined that an appropriate internship can help future counselors without teaching experience gain knowledge of school operations as this type of knowledge is more easily taught than counseling skills. Several universities in Wisconsin, in partnership with the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, developed an internship model that included workshops for the interns, site supervisors, and university supervisors as a means to monitor progress (Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976). In their analysis of the workshops’ effectiveness, Erpenbach and Perrone (1976) recognized the lack of preparation for site supervisors and concluded that there is a definite
need to examine the role to be played by the supervising school counselor in the internship program and to develop a systematic approach to preparing individuals for this responsibility (p. 56). The role of training and its ability to diminish the differences between teachers and non-teachers has proven to be paramount in the debate over the requirement of prior teaching experience (Baker & Herr, 1976; Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Havens, 1972; Lister, 1969). As a result, advocacy for the removal of the teaching requirement for school counselor licensure ensued.

1980s

In the early 1980s, CACREP continued its fight for COPA recognition, but overlap in accreditation was an obstacle. While several counselor education programs became CACREP-accredited before its COPA recognition, many also possessed NCATE and other accreditation. The ACA Governing Council, which was steering CACREP's development, decided to seek "collaboration-reciprocity" (Sweeney, 1992, p. 669) and merge with NCATE and several other overlapping agencies (e.g., Council on Rehabilitation Education, American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy). CACREP's articles and bylaws were written in 1981 under the name Accreditation Board for Counselor Preparation (ABCP). The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) was, however, one of ACA's largest divisions. ACPA's desire to be included in the CACREP scope led to the change of the agency name to include "Related Educational Programs" (Sweeney, 1992, p. 669). Seeking to limit redundancy, the COPA review process was delayed over the use of the term "psychology" in its accrediting capacity over doctoral programs. COPA determined that CACREP would oversee master's- and doctoral-level counseling and counselor education programs, and doctoral-level psychology programs were to remain under the exclusive guise of the American Psychological Association (APA). Within the
first few years of CACREP’s official existence, it finally earned recognition from COPA in 1987, accredited 49 programs, and revised its standards. Sweeney (1992) contended that ACES leadership played a major role in CACREP’s establishment and that ACES influenced many of the revisions to its standards, particularly the increase in required internship and credit hours.

While the research debate regarding prior teaching experience for school counselors was put to rest for a period of time in the early 1980s, it re-emerged when the Wisconsin Developmental Model was introduced in 1986 (Olson & Allen, 1993). School counselors were mandated to provide a systematic delivery of guidance services, which rallied support for the teaching requirement. Because many of these services are best delivered in a large-group or classroom environment, classroom management and curriculum development skills were seen as important (B. Herzog, personal communication, May, 1988, cited in Olson & Allen, 1993).

1990s

The 1990s yielded conflicting literature regarding the teaching prerequisite for school counselors. In Olson and Allen’s (1993) study, principals rated school counselors with prior teaching experience higher in every area, three being statistically significant: teacher consultation, individual counseling, and advisory committee participation. Beale (1995) found that 45% of principals preferred to hire school counselors with prior teaching experience with over half being willing to consider (p. 215) school counselors without teaching experience. Additionally, Quarto (1999) found that 93% of teachers would rather work with a school counselor with prior teaching experience. Although administrators and teachers preferred prior teaching experience, Baker (1994) found no evidence for prior teaching experience making a school counselor more effective, and the author even indicated that teachers may acquire classroom behaviors that are less effective for counseling relationships but can be offset during
the training program (p. 319). Support for this potential disadvantage of teaching experience dates back as far as the 1960s (Lister, 1969). Baker (1994) also found that teachers’ preference for school counselors with prior teaching experience dissipated after six months of working in a school. These findings demonstrated that school exposure, not the act of teaching, can prepare school counselors-in-training for working in the school environment.

As more states continued to remove the teaching requirement for licensure in the 1990s, including Virginia in 1998, the role of the clinical experiences became more prominent since the practicum and internship would be the school counselor-in-training’s only required school encounters. The 1990s also saw an increase in the number of programs accredited by CACREP (Sweeney, 1992), which included a rigorous internship component. Dollarhide and Miller (2006) noted an increased focus on the importance of supervision in the 1990s. The ACA Code of Ethics (1990) urged site supervisors to gain knowledge of models, skills, and research specific to supervision which could benefit supervisees’ development. Similar recommendations existed within the 1993 ACES Ethical Guidelines for Counseling Supervisors (Dollarhide & Miller, 2006). Also of note, 1990 marked the beginning of the terminology shift from “guidance counselor” to “school counselor” (Lambie & Williamson, 2004). This small change signified the start of the advocacy movement, a movement that furthered the self-separation of “professional school counselors” (Lambie & Williamson, 2004, p. 128) from other educators. Nelson and Johnson (1999) addressed the fact that supervision up until that time appeared to focus on acclimating school counselors-in-training to the administrative roles of being a counselor versus focusing on the counseling skills. Despite the recommendations of ACES and CACREP, institutions provided little to no training for site supervisors (Nelson & Johnson, 1999).
2000s

ASCA’s introduction of the National Model (2003) marked the current century. The ASCA National Model denounced non-counseling duties such as study hall proctoring, class coverage, lunchroom monitoring, and test coordination, and promoted school counselor functions beyond those of therapeutic counseling professionals (Miller & Dollarhide, 2006). School counselors, in addition to counseling, are expected to lead, advocate, collaborate, and seek systemic change. These responsibilities are the cornerstones of the ASCA National Model. Now in its second edition (ASCA, 2005), this model is significant because it officially documented the role of the school counselor, separating it from the inappropriate, teacher-oriented roles that it had included in the past.

These developments reinforced the call for removing the teaching requirement from state licensure for states that had not already done so (Lambie & Williamson, 2004). Even more so than in the 1990s, school counselors were encouraged to advocate for themselves and help administrators understand the counselors’ role (Fitch, Newby, Ballesero, & Marshall, 2001). Fitch et al. (2001) found that administrators could identify appropriate school counselor duties; however, they also identified inappropriate duties for school counselors, such as record-keeping. Understanding the message of the ASCA National Model (2005) could help administrators overcome biases (Bake & Herr, 1976) that may have led them to prefer teachers over non-teachers in the hiring process (Beale, 1995). While the ASCA National Model (2005) does not directly address site supervision for school counselors-in-training, Studer (2005), in a supervision model, proposed activities for supervisors that could be incorporated into the ASCA National Model. Murphy and Kaffenberger (2007) found that the typical site supervisor does not
possess detailed knowledge of the ASCA *National Model* (2005) and advocated for infusing the ASCA *National Model* (2005) into site supervision techniques.

Around the same time, the shortcomings of site supervisor training re-emerged in the literature (Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Lambie & Williamson, 2004, Studer, 2005). Herlihy, Gray, and McCollum (2002), in an assessment of supervision ethics, found that lack of training for site supervisors could negatively impact supervisees’ skill development. This lack of training becomes a perpetual cycle as these supervisees become site supervisors themselves. While ACA, ACES, and CACREP expect that site supervisors receive training (Studer, 2006), ASCA has not published official supervisor guidelines. ACES ethical guidelines, which became a part of ACA standards in 2005 (ACA, 2005), remain the same with regard to supervision training as they did in the previous decade, yet evidence of training implementation is limited (Herlihy et al., 2002).

**2010s**

Further developments have taken place in the current decade. In 2011, ACES adopted *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision*, designed to supplement the ACA *Code of Ethics*. The document suggested that the supervisor and supervisee discuss their prior experiences with supervision, yet the professional history of the supervisee was still underemphasized. Of importance, the supervisor should ideally address both the personal and professional learning curves of the supervisee, which Peterson et al. (2004) found to be different between teachers and non-teachers. Within the 17-page document, several recommendations made were significant for supervisors working non-teachers. The supervisor should seek to reduce the supervisee’s anxiety when possible, encourage the supervisee to work outside of his/her comfort zone and experience working with different populations, and provide suggestions for remediation when necessary. Formal training for site supervisors, including the knowledge of models of
supervision and counselor development and ongoing professional development in supervision, were also recommended. Section 12 explained that formal training should include “didactic instruction” (p. 15) in addition to experiential training in supervision in accordance with credentialing bodies such as CACREP. Supervisors should be able to articulate a philosophy of supervision as a result. ACES conceded that “there are, however, many aspects of supervision that have not been investigated or investigated adequately” (p. 1).

At the current time, only five states (Arkansas, Connecticut, Nevada, North Dakota, and Rhode Island) require prior teaching experience in order to be licensed (Bundy & Studer, 2011). The majority of school counselors-in-training have not previously taught (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). The question now is rarely whether a non-teacher can be an effective counselor, but how can a counselor education program meet the needs of both the teacher and non-teacher. Special training for non-teachers dates back to the 1960s (Havens, 1972), but given the change in profile of the school counseling student over the last two decades, Bundy and Studer (2011) suggested counselor educators take additional steps to ensure that these individuals are appropriately prepared to manage a classroom. While former teachers may need additional assistance with counseling skills in order to “ reframe their approach” (p. 4) to students, non-teachers need more assistance with school-based components of the profession (Bundy & Studer, 2011). Bundy and Studer proposed a “hybrid-course” (p. 5) as a part of the orientation to the counselor education program. Providing a combination of online materials, face-to-face activities, and school site exposure, this program was designed to acclimate the school counselor-in-training to the school setting prior to the practicum or internship. For students that have had such experience, site supervisors would need to adjust their approach. So far, for this decade, the state of the typical site supervisor is unknown.
The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs

CACREP is the credentialing agency that oversees counselor education programs. According to the CACREP vision, the organization is committed to improving counselor education programs and preparing counselors to meet the needs of their clients (CACREP, 2011b). CACREP’s mission is three-fold: to promote ‘the development of preparation standards, the encouragement of excellence in program development, and the accreditation of professional preparation programs’ (CACREP, 2011a, lines 14-16). According to the CACREP directory (2011a), there are currently 596 CACREP-accredited departments.

Since its establishment in 1981, CACREP has provided standards for accredited programs to ensure that school counselors-in-training are provided with quality training (CACREP, 2011b). CACREP’s most recent set of standards was developed in 2009. Counselor educators in accredited programs must ensure that their program and curriculum are aligned with these standards. One approach for this alignment is for counselor educators to outline the CACREP Standards (2009) that each course addresses on the course syllabus (Branthoover, Desmond, & Bruno, 2010). Branthoover et al. called this the ‘infusion method’ (p. 38). This method also included utilizing CACREP- and ASCA-approved language and selecting textbooks that do the same. The authors contended that these efforts can help school counselors prepare for their unique dual role as a counselor and ‘educational specialist’ (p. 38) as well as build a strong professional identity. The standards pertaining to the clinical experiences are particularly important for assisting non-teachers’ skill development.

Clinical Experiences

CACREP requires accredited programs to have two clinical experiences: the practicum and the internship. The practicum calls for 100 clock hours of on-site experience, and the
internship calls for 600 clock hours (CACREP, 2009). To satisfy the Virginia requirements, the clinical experiences must be divided among two levels, one K-6 and one 7-12, with at least 100 hours spent at each level (Virginia Code 8 VAC 20-22-630, Virginia Register of Regulations, 2006).

Section III of the CACREP Standards (2009) describes the practicum and internship as opportunities for professional practice implementing theories and counseling skills. In addition to 100 clock hours, requirements for the practicum include the following:

- Completing the 100 clock hours over a minimum of 10 weeks;
- Having 40 of the 100 hours be in direct service with clients;
- Engaging in one hour per week of one-on-one supervision with a site supervisor;
- Attending one and a half hours per week of group supervision (class);
- Recording video or audio interactions with clients;
- Receiving formative and summative performance evaluations.

The internship, which is designed to be a more reflective experience, requires 600 clock hours as well as the following:

- Acquiring 240 direct service hours within the 600 clock hours;
- Engaging in one hour per week of one-on-one supervision with a site supervisor;
- Attending one and a half hours per week of group supervision (class);
- Participating in professional activities beyond the scope of direct service (e.g., program evaluation, record management, data analysis);
- Recording video or audio interactions with clients;
- Receiving formative and summative performance evaluations.
In addition to these requirements, there are specific k-12 school counseling competencies in which programs must be able to demonstrate student learning. CACREP (2009) divides these into seven broad categories, or domains (p. 40), including academic development. The academic development domain specifies that school counselors-in-training must understand curriculum design, lesson plan development, classroom management strategies, and differentiated instructional strategies for teaching counseling- and guidance-related material (p. 44). School counselors-in-training must be prepared to implement differentiated instructional strategies that draw on subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge and skills to promote student achievement (p. 44). Former teachers would have an advantage in perfecting these skills; however, researchers noted the need for them to reframe their approach (Bundy & Studer, 2011, p. 4). Non-teachers may encounter more obstacles approaching competency in these areas (Peterson et al., 2004).

Research has demonstrated over time that school counselors-in-training can gain school system knowledge through enriching clinical experiences (Beale & McCay, 2001; Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Olson & Allen, 1993). Beale and McCay (2001) asserted that acquiring this experience can make non-teachers equally marketable candidates in their eventual job search. According to Smith et al. (2001), the rigor of CACREP-approved clinical experiences may have contributed to the gradual removal of the teaching requirement. The researchers contended that counselor educators from CACREP-accredited programs may feel that teaching experience is less important because these programs offer more clinical experiences that provide school counselors-in-training, regardless of background, with extensive school system knowledge.
The Role of the Site Supervisor

The experienced counselors that supervise school counselors-in-training during clinical experiences, commonly referred to as "site supervisors" (Studer, 2006, p. 7), play a significant role in the professional development of their supervisees (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; Luke & Bernard, 2006; Murphy and Kaffenberger, 2007; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Roberts & Morotti, 2001; Wood and Rayle, 2006). Those that supervise counselors in a k-12 setting must meet CACREP guidelines, which specify that site supervisors possess:

- the necessary master's degree in and licensure,
- two years of experience in their current role,
- knowledge of counselor education program requirements for the clinical experience, and
- "relevant training in counseling supervision" (CACREP, 2009, p. 15).

In addition to these requirements, site supervisors must work with supervisees with a variety of professional backgrounds. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) found that the number of school counselors-in-training coming from backgrounds other than teaching is increasing. School counselors-in-training that have not been previously exposed to a school system need additional support from their site supervisor. What qualifies as "relevant training in counseling supervision" is subject to debate. CACREP's most recent Standards (2009) expected that counseling students be able to demonstrate knowledge of "counseling supervision models, practices, and processes" (p. 10). Because this knowledge is a new requirement, most current site supervisors would not have received this knowledge during their master's program. While the ACES Best Practices in Counselor Supervision (2011) provided more detail for training expectations, as described in the previous section, site supervision training related to non-teachers is currently not specified.
According to Peterson and Deuschle (2006), it is just as important for site supervisors to be informed about the clinical experiences as it is for the supervisees themselves. Site supervisors should understand the research revealing that although non-teachers may understandably have more trepidations than do teachers during the initial weeks of the first field experience (p. 270), the clinical experience has the potential to close the gap in confidence and competence (p. 270). Several models exist that provide a theoretical framework from which site supervisors may approach the art of supervision.

Models Related to Clinical Supervision

According to ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011), supervision should be "intentional and proactive" (p. 14). Bernard and Goodyear (2004) suggested that supervision theories be referred to as "models" (p. 74) as they are often less precise than a formal theory. A number of models exist for clinical supervision of counselors. While many provide suggestions for counselors in a variety of contexts (e.g., substance abuse counseling, psychotherapy), a few models have emerged over the last decade that target school counselor supervision specifically. Luke, Ellis, and Bernard (2011) revealed that school counselors apply classic supervision models such as the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1979, 1997) differently from mental health counselors. It is therefore important that school counseling site supervisors utilize context-specific models (Luke & Bernard, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Roberts & Morrotti, 2001; Studer, 2005; Thompson & Moffett, 2010; Wood & Rayle, 2006). ASCA (2005) recommended school counselors not only counsel, but also lead, advocate, collaborate, and seek systemic change. The dynamics of the ASCA National Model (2005) have encouraged the development of more holistic, school counselor-friendly models. Bernard and Goodyear (2004) contended that practicing supervisors select and work from a model.
Site Supervisors of Professional School Counseling Interns: Suggested Guidelines

Recognizing a need for a site supervision framework, Roberts and Morotti (2001) developed seven guidelines for supervising school counselors-in-training in the field. The authors discussed that the supervision literature of the time, including existing organizational codes of ethics, focused on university-level supervisors and not site supervisors. Roberts and Morotti suggested that the following guidelines serve as a "catalyst for future proposals" (p. 218) that will help prepare site supervisors for training school counselors-in-training:

1. In order to avoid having an intern being placed into a "sink or swim baptism" (p. 213) situation, potential site supervisors should be educated on their supervisory responsibilities before entering into an agreement.

2. Site supervisors should enter a formal training program to adequately prepare for supervising an intern. The authors recognized that such training is limited.

3. As part of their professional obligation, site supervisors should be openly willing to share their expertise with the supervisees.

4. Site supervisors must be aware of the various sets of legal and ethical regulations within the school counseling profession. Specifically, site supervisors should adhere to the guidelines of ASCA, ACA, ACES, and the Supervision Interest Network of ACES as well as federal, state, and local laws that pertain to school counselors.

5. Site supervisors should remain in close contact with the supervising university faculty throughout supervisees' internships. This contact includes scheduled site visits by the university faculty and consequent consultation with the site supervisor.

6. Site supervisors should be swift to recommend additional training for those interns that make significant errors or do not adhere to a "normal learning curve" (p. 217).
Site supervisors should be careful, however, not to be so critical as to irreversibly damage the self-esteem and confidence of an intern (p. 217) for a minor error.

7. Site supervisors and supervisees should make time for reflection in accordance with CACREP guidelines—one hour per week of face-to-face consultation. This practice develops the decision-making and counseling skills of school counselors-in-training.

Roberts and Morotti (2001) guidelines provided a starting point for training standards for site supervisors. As mentioned earlier, CACREP requires that training occur, but specific guidelines for that training are not provided in the 2009 Standards. ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011) provided little additional detail for school counselors but do specify that didactic instruction on models should take place. While Roberts and Morotti guidelines suggested that training occur, they do not specify the type of training or the amount that would be adequate for preparing a site supervisor to oversee a productive clinical experience. These guidelines also do not include recommendations for how to address professional background differences. The sixth guideline suggests that site supervisors recognize their supervisees’ areas for growth, but it does not provide suggestions for how site supervisors accomplish this, especially if they are related to a lack of knowledge of the school environment. Roberts and Morotti did acknowledge the need for site supervisors to be supportive and careful to not derail an intern’s confidence development. This guideline is especially important for non-teachers who are in the process of acclimating to the school setting (Peterson et al., 2004). Specific techniques on how to critique interns with a variety of different skill levels are needed.

**Supervising School Counselors-in-Training: A Guide for Field Supervisors**

Studer’s (2005) Guide for Field Supervisors was a practical model for supervision that provided the site supervisor with specific activities to facilitate supervisee development. Aligned
with the ASCA *National Model* (2003), Studer suggested that supervision be delivered within the framework of the four model components: delivery system, accountability, foundation, and management.

According to the ASCA *National Model* (2003), the delivery system is the means by which the school counseling curriculum is delivered to the students. This delivery system includes individual and small group counseling, classroom guidance, responsive services, and system support. Studer (2005) recommended that supervisees be given the opportunity to deliver a portion of the curriculum to the students, using the administration of a learning styles inventory as an example.

Accountability refers to ongoing performance assessment of the school counseling program (ASCA, 2003). School counselors must periodically audit their program to ensure that all components are present and that student gains are being measured and shared with stakeholders. Studer (2005) recommended that students be encouraged to assess the outcomes of one of their undertakings, such as a group, and share the results with building administrators.

The foundation component of the ASCA *National Model* (2003) refers to the development and implementation of the school counseling department’s unified beliefs, philosophy, and mission statement as well as the ASCA *National Standards* (2003). This component also includes implementing state standards such as the Virginia Standards of Learning (Virginia Department of Education, 2004). Studer (2005) suggested that supervisees gain an understanding of the foundation component by engaging in a crosswalk activity to triangulate the ASCA *National Standards*, state standards, and school program.

The management system refers to methods that provide checks and balances for the school counseling program such as advisory council, management agreement, and calendar of
school counseling events (ASCA, 2003). These actions help counseling departments reach out to other departments in the school to gain input and provide services and to ensure that the majority of a counselor’s time is spent in direct contact with students. Studer (2005) proposed that the supervisee lead an in-service for teachers on a given topic as an activity that could engage him or her with the management system.

Studer (2005) also recommended that the supervisory relationship be developmental in nature and have a beginning, middle, and end stage. The supervision process should begin with site supervisors and supervisees being deliberately matched by counseling philosophy when possible. Studer suggested drafting a written contract to outline the formal meeting times, school procedures, and evaluation methods. Pulling from the guidelines of Nelson & Johnson (1999) and Bernard & Goodyear (1992), Studer (2005) described the site supervisor’s role as evolving, depending on the supervisee’s confidence level, from more supportive to consultative. In the beginning and middle stages, the site supervisor should alternate between teacher and counselor. Early in the clinical experience, the supervisor should provide more instruction, but toward the middle of the process, the counselor role may be more predominant as the supervisor asks the supervisee to reflect on his/her own performance. In the later stages, the site supervisor should shift into the role of the consultant. The supervisee is gradually given more autonomy and may refer to the supervisor for affirmation and less for instruction. Studer suggested that site supervisors utilize observations, role-play, audio/video recording, and case study to facilitate the supervisee’s development.

Studer’s (2005) Guide for Field Supervisors infused the ASCA National Model (2003) into practice. This model provided specific suggestions for how to increase the supervisee’s awareness of the cornerstones of the ASCA National Model and guidance on how the site
supervisor can support and challenge a school counselor-in-training. Studer's model focused on the evolution of the supervisory relationship, which is pertinent for a counselor supervising a non-teacher. A non-teacher may specifically struggle with the proposed teacher in-service activity. Such an activity could potentially be the most challenging that school counselor-in-training without teaching experience encounter. More detailed suggestions for modeling and instructing for this population would be helpful; however, Studer's framework within the ASCA National Model (2003) allows for real-world challenges to be presented.

The School Counseling Supervision Model: An Extension of the Discrimination Model

Originally conceptualized by Bernard (1979, 1997), Luke and Bernard (2006) provided an extension to the Discrimination Model called the School Counselor Supervision Model (SCSM). The Discrimination Model, as summarized by Luke and Bernard, breaks down the role of the supervisor into three "postures" (p. 284): teacher, counselor, and consultant. The model "serves as a navigational chart for supervision and helps supervisors become more deliberate in their supervision" (p. 287). Using this framework, the SCSM includes these postures of the supervisor's role. This model does, however, expand the foci beyond intervention, conceptualization, and personalization, which usually only address individual counseling, and incorporates other components of the school counselor's role such as classroom guidance, administrator and teacher consultation, and program coordination.

When a site supervisor provides feedback to an intern on a task, such as a classroom lesson gone awry, the site supervisor would simultaneously posture the three roles in a face-to-face meeting. In the teacher role, the site supervisor would impart information on the area of weakness within the classroom lesson, providing instruction on how the supervisee can improve. In the counselor role, the site supervisor would encourage the supervisee to reflect on a
classroom lesson, offering support for the supervisee to have a breakthrough and gain understanding of what went wrong. In the consultant role, the site supervisor would work with the supervisee to devise an alternate approach, perhaps by watching a recording of the classroom lesson (Luke & Bernard, 2006).

Luke and Bernard (2006) designed the SCSM to be used in training sessions for potential site supervisors. Miller and Dollarhide (2006) recommended this model for supervisors working with non-CACREP-accredited programs because of its close alignment with the ASCA National Model (2005). School counselors-in-training at non-CACREP-accredited programs may not be as familiar with the ASCA National Model, and the SCSM has the potential to remedy that. While this model does provide specific techniques for school counseling site supervisors, it does not address professional background differences. The SCSM, as a revision of the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1979, 1997), offered a useful framework for how to address supervisee weaknesses discussed in Roberts and Morotti’s (2001) sixth guideline. The specifics of how site supervisors should approach non-teachers, however, remain unaddressed. Luke and Bernard (2006) invited empirical research to support or refute the utility of the SCSM.

**Goals, Functions, Roles, and Systems Model**

Focusing on the different systems in which school counselors operate, Wood and Rayle (2006) created a model to meet counseling supervisors’ needs within the school setting. Wood and Rayle’s Goals, Functions, Roles, and Systems Model (GFRS) for supervising counselors-in-training, is also closely aligned with the ASCA National Model (2005). It draws from several classic models, including the original Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1979, 1997) as well as systems theory (Minuchin, 1974). GFRS contains four elements: goals, functions, roles, and systems.
The premise of the GFRS model is that supervision must operate simultaneously within several systems. Systems theory espouses that individuals are a part of systems by which they influence and are influenced by (Minuchin, 1974). School counselors operate within many systems. Wood and Rayle (2006) illustrated the systems with a figure showing the school counseling site as having five systems: teachers, students, parents, community, and school administration. The figure also illustrates the school counselor-in-training as being influenced by the school, university, and site supervisor. A dotted line between the university and site supervisor indicates an indirect relationship. Wood and Rayle contend that the role of the site supervisor is to be aware of the systems and use them as a framework to teach and develop goals for their supervisee.

"Systems" is just one of the four elements of the complex GFRS model. Wood and Rayle (2006) identified goals, functions, and roles as the remaining elements. "Goals" refers to eight goal areas adapted from those delineated in the ASCA National Model (2005). School counselors-in-training are not goal-setting for themselves, but rather the supervisor should impart and model the aspirational goals of an effective counselor. For the "functions" element, Wood and Rayle draw from Holloway's (1995) work on supervision, which suggested site supervisors employ the following functions: (a) monitoring/evaluating, (b) instructing and advising, (c) modeling, (d) consulting, and (e) supporting and sharing (Holloway, 1995, as cited in Wood & Rayle, 2006, p. 259). Wood and Rayle (2006) also described five "roles" of supervisor, which include evaluator, advisor, coordinator, teacher, and mentor. Wood and Rayle (2006) highlighted the inter-connectedness of the four elements within the title of this model. Supervisors must be actively aware of goals for being an effective school counselor and the functions and roles of the site supervisor while operating within the systems inside and outside of the school.
This supervision model focuses solely on the school counselor-in-training and does not double as a framework for ongoing professional supervision, as does Luke and Bernard’s (2006) SCSM. The GFRS model is more comprehensive than the SCSM model, and Miller and Dollarhide (2006) recommended the GFRS for site supervisors who are working with CACREP- and ASCA-aligned programs. The model would be difficult to work from without existing working knowledge of the ASCA National Model (2005). While this model is not specifically designed for non-teachers, the systems framework provides the opportunity for instruction on school operations and teacher systems. School counselors-in-training will enter their clinical experience with greater knowledge of some systems over others. Site supervisors should intentionally spend more time on those systems in which the supervisee possesses less knowledge. This model offers apparent value for the school counselor-in-training; however, this model is theoretical in nature, and Wood and Rayle acknowledged that it has not been empirically tested.

**The Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers**

Peterson and Deuschle (2006) created the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers, which site supervisors can use to facilitate non-teachers’ acclimation to the school environment. This model includes five components: information, immersion, observation, structure, and awareness.

The “information” component refers to site supervisors’ and administrators’ awareness of the research surrounding school counselors-in-training without prior teaching experience. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) also intended for this component to include site supervisors imparting information to supervisees regarding the policies and procedures within that school and school system.
The "immersion" component encourages counselor education programs to employ school-based practica over a campus-based practica. This component is automatic for CACREP-accredited programs. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) also referred to immersion as clinical experiences targeting school system awareness and teacher culture, such as spending time assisting a teacher in the classroom.

The "observation" component specifies that the supervisee document the idiosyncrasies of school culture. This component includes the implied protocols and etiquette embedded within a particular school. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) contended that it is especially important for non-teachers to observe these intricacies immediately upon arrival at the clinical placement with "respectful curiosity" (p. 272) to facilitate a smooth transition. In order to gain credibility, non-teachers should be punctual, productive, and respectful of differing belief systems. Non-teachers should not complain about taking work home or working outside of school hours since teachers and other education veterans are used to doing this on a regular basis. Both counselor educators and site supervisors should require supervisees to keep a journal and perhaps write a paper on their observations.

The "structure" component refers to both the structure that site supervisors should provide to their supervisees as well as the structure that counselor educators provide to the site supervisors. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) acknowledged that carving out time for face-to-face supervision can be difficult, and the meetings themselves can be awkward. They suggested that counselor educators conduct training sessions for site supervisors so they can establish parameters for their time with their supervisees. Site supervisor training can be conducted in a group or individual setting. Ideally, site supervisors will receive enough guidance and support to effectively conduct face-to-face supervision on a weekly basis. Site supervisors should
intentionally select topics for discussion that cater to supervisees’ differences in experience. The authors offered examples of specific questions to help non-teachers examine their communication strategies with other educators, students with diverse backgrounds and ability levels, and parents. Site supervisors can also encourage their supervisees to reflect on their professionalism and adjustment to the school’s culture. Site supervisors should acknowledge personal strengths. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) championed validation, particularly for non-teachers.

School counselors-in-training typically gain awareness of child and adolescent development and classroom management through the counselor education curriculum and volunteer work. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) intended for the “awareness” component to focus on these two areas. Although many school counseling students possess degrees in psychology, they may be lacking hands-on experience. The site supervisor plays a significant role in the development of these skills, especially in cases where school counselors-in-training enter their first clinical experience before having had the coursework. Peterson and Deuschle described awareness as often coinciding with observation and immersion, as previously described. Supervisees can benefit from specific feedback regarding their skills in these areas, particularly with regard to matching the appropriate vocal tone to the situation or student age group.

Assessment is also an important aspect of the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) provided several assessment items under immersion, awareness, and observation. Because information and structure refer to the actions of counselor educators and not site supervisors, they are not components for assessment. Structured feedback should help lead the school counselor-in-training without teaching experience on a path toward “confidence and competence” (p. 270).
While parts of the Peterson-Deuschle Model forPreparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006) address counselor educators, the authors directed most of the elements of this model toward site supervisors of school counselors-in-training without prior teaching experience. This model provides specific techniques and actions that site supervisors can employ when working with non-teachers. Miller and Dollarhide (2006) contended that this model delivers the necessary guidelines for supporting non-teachers in the clinical setting who enter the profession from settings outside the school.

**The Developmental Model of Counselor Training**

Thompson and Moffett's (2010) Developmental Model of Counselor Training employed the theoretical constructs of Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) and Loganbill, Hardy, and Delworth (1982). The authors discussed school counselor development in three stages: reliance, trial and error, and maturity. Thompson and Moffett's learning, observing, comprehending, and knowing (LOCK) model was based on Stoltenberg and Delworth's (1987) theory of counselor development and focuses on activities that facilitate this development.

In the learning component, site supervisors assigned tasks to supervisees that allow them to acquire specific skills and gain knowledge. The observation component not only refers to supervisees observing events in the clinical setting but also providing video and/or audio recordings for the site supervisor to observe. For the comprehending component, supervisees process their observations and actions in order to gain meaning. This process is guided by the supervisor and would include feedback and assigned opportunities for the supervisee to self-reflect. In the knowing component, the supervisee reaches a state of empowerment based on his/her growth in the other three components.
Thompson and Moffett (2010) suggested that the LOCK model be used with the stages of counselor development in mind. In Stoltenberg and Delworth’s (1987) counselor development theory, according to Thompson and Moffett (2010), a supervisee enters the clinical experience in a state of reliance, which is stage one. The supervisee is usually highly motivated, but does not yet possess the skills to be autonomous. The supervisee is heavily reliant on the site supervisor at that time, and lacks the confidence to reflect on his/her learned knowledge from earlier coursework. The trial-and-error phase, stage two, is marked by the supervisee’s efforts to take on more autonomy and his/her consequent self-doubt about his/her own performance. Supervisees in this stage seek affirmation from their site supervisors and may become defensive upon receiving feedback. Site supervisors should be supportive during this stage of counselor development. In stage three, mature, the supervisee feels more confident in his/her skill set, and a high level of motivation returns. As self-confidence develops, the supervisee no longer sees the site supervisor as “infallible” (p. 7). Thompson and Moffett (2010) tied this stage to Bernard’s (1979, 1997) Discrimination Model in which the supervisor takes on the postures of teacher, counselor, and consultant.

Thompson and Moffett (2010) provided suggestions for techniques that mirror those provided by Studer (2005): live observations, behavior modeling from the site supervisor, opportunity for case study, email correspondence between site supervisor and supervisee, audio and video tapes, and role-playing. As discussed with Studer’s (2005) model, such activities could be particularly helpful for acclimating the school counselor-in-training without teaching experience to the school environment.

suggested that Bernard’s (1979, 1997) elements of supervisor postures coincide with the developmental stages, Thompson and Moffett (2010) suggested that these postures are most effective in stage three of Stoltenberg and Delworth’s (1987) theory. Similar to Wood and Rayle’s (2006) model, there are so many elements to the LOCK model that it may be difficult to use. Another criticism of this model is that it pulls heavily from historical literature. Although it is the most recent model discussed, its concepts are not the most modern. Of benefit, Thompson and Moffett (2010) suggested a required in-service for site supervisors, consistent with CACREP Standards (2009), which would include the LOCK model as a framework from which site supervisors can work. The authors suggested that future research explore site supervisors’ perceptions of clinical supervision.

The Utility of School Counseling Supervision Models in Practice

These models have been presented in chronological order, and, with the exception of Thompson and Moffett’s (2010) model, they naturally fall in order of their relevance for site supervisors of school counselors-in-training without prior teaching experience. Despite the existence of several models that specifically address the supervision needs of school counselors and the ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011) recommendation that supervisors possess knowledge of these models, little is known about site supervisors’ awareness of them. Martin and Cannon (2010) stated that supervision philosophies are partially developed from a careful and studied understanding of clinical supervision (p. 1); knowledge of one or more of these models can provide this understanding. While Bernard and Goodyear (2004) acknowledged that an integrationist (p. 100) approach is likely to evolve, they suggested that supervisors assess the individual needs of the supervisee and blend models to meet the needs and preferences for relationships of the individual. This approach is endorsed by ACES Best Practices in


Counselor Supervision (2011). The supervisor’s ability to conduct such an exercise would depend on his/her exposure to these supervision models. In accordance with CACREP (2009) and ACES (2011), formal training for site supervisors should occur. The extent to which it is occurring must be uncovered.

Recent Studies

Studies conducted in the last decade continue to investigate the differences between teachers and non-teachers as school counselors, as well as the issues surrounding site supervisor preparation. Recent literature indicates that small differences exist between school counselors who possess prior teaching experience and those who do not (Bringman & Sang, 2008; Peterson et al., 2004; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Smith et al., 2001). The number of school counselors without teaching experience has risen since states began removing the teaching requirement (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). The issue is no longer whether or not non-teachers can be effective school counselors, but how the clinical experience can most effectively facilitate their transition to the k-12 education setting. In a May 2005 survey of 33 CACREP-accredited school counseling programs, Peterson and Deuschle (2006) found that 73% of students in the 2004-2005 academic year did not have teaching experience. Researchers have devoted more attention to the role of the site supervisor as the presence of non-teachers becomes more prevalent and the importance of clinical experiences becomes more pronounced. Researchers have studied these developments from the perspectives of counselor educators, school counselors-in-training, practicing school counselors, and site supervisors.

Counselor Educators

Smith, Crutchfield, and Culbreth (2001) investigated counselor educators’ perceptions of their state’s teaching requirement for school counseling licensure. The researchers developed a
survey containing open and closed questions that they distributed to the 181 members of the ACES School Counseling Interest Network using the Dillman Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978). This three-tiered mailing method yielded 100 completed surveys from eligible respondents, a 75% response rate. The respondents represented 36 states, 13 of which required teaching experience at that time. Smith et al. (2001) found that 75% of participants did not feel that prior teaching experience was necessary for school counselor effectiveness, despite 79% of the participants having taught at some point in their careers. Of note, 62% of counselor educators in states that required teaching experience for school counseling licensure did not believe that it was necessary. The researchers reported that these results showed a decrease in the perceived importance of teaching experience among counselor educators from levels reported in older literature (e.g., Rochester & Cottingham, 1966, as cited in Smith et al., 2001).

Although studies indicate that differences in skill level between teachers and non-teachers are small (Olsen & Allen, 1993; Baker, 1994), 59% of the counselor educators in the Smith et al. (2001) study felt that additional requirements would be beneficial, and 63% felt as though fieldwork would be an appropriate remedy. While these two findings are not statistically significant, they do provide information on perception trends among counselor educators and foreshadow the continued shift in state licensure requirements that would continue over this decade. Smith et al. (2001) declared the body of research in this area as saturated and specifically do not propose extensive research related to perceptions of the teaching experience requirement (p. 221). Instead, the researchers called for a shift in research toward the concerns of non-teachers in training and in the early stages of their careers.

Smith et al. (2001) disclosed the limitation of a potentially biased sample by using the ACES School Counseling Interest Network. Although counselor educators from CACREP and
non-CACREP programs were equally represented in the Smith et al. (2001) study, only 25% of school counseling programs were CACREP-accredited at that time. Thus, counselor educators from CACREP programs were over-represented in this study. Therefore, this sample of counselor educators may possess more progressive beliefs about non-teachers because of CACREP’s extensive clinical experience requirements (Smith et al., 2001). While Smith et al. provided valuable recommendations for the direction of future research regarding non-teachers, it does not include site supervisors’ perspectives. The researchers suggested that more perspectives and empirical data from the field be incorporated into recommendations for school counselor training (Smith et al., 2001). This incorporation could be accomplished by investigating site supervisors’ perspectives on the needs of teachers versus non-teachers during clinical experiences.

**School Counselors-in-Training**

In a qualitative study exploring school counseling interns’ perceptions of their internship experiences, Peterson, Goodman, Keller, and McCauley (2004) distributed 130 surveys to school counseling interns via counselor educators. While the researchers did not disclose how many interns were provided with the survey, 26 interns, eight of whom had prior k-12 work experience and 18 of whom did not, returned the survey in a sealed envelope. All participants were enrolled in CACREP-accredited programs and were engaged in a 600-hour internship. The researchers analyzed the open-ended survey responses using phenomenological data analysis (Creswell, 1998), which searched for emerging themes among the two types of interns: teachers and non-teachers. The data revealed that both groups faced many challenges in the internship, but these challenges differed between the two groups. The largest themes among the teacher challenges focused on adjusting to an altered work environment and coping with altered relationships with
other educators. Non-teachers experienced difficulties with perceived respect, classroom skills, and knowledge of school culture. Non-teachers experienced a “steep learning curve as they adjusted to the school and teacher cultures, but relied on personal qualities and counselor training as they moved successfully into competence” (Peterson et al., 2004, p. 246). Teachers referenced their teaching coursework and experience more than their personal qualities to help them with their adjustment.

The narratives in the Peterson et al. (2004) study provide valuable insight into the experiences of school counselors-in-training with and without teaching experience that can be used to help shape training practices. Peterson et al. (2004) suggested follow-up studies using quantitative data to confirm these findings. The researchers acknowledged the small (N = 26) and non-diverse sample (predominantly female and 100% Euro-American). A different survey distribution method (e.g., online administration) with a reminder could increase the response rate. The researchers also recommended that counselor educators and site supervisors be made aware of the challenges faced by school counselors-in-training with different professional backgrounds. Peterson et al. did not provide specific recommendations, however, for systematically providing this information to site supervisors. Additionally, the study did not investigate the extent to which site supervisors already understand these differences, nor did the survey instrument ask the participants about their relationship with their site supervisor or the supervisor’s role in their adjustment to the clinical setting. This information would be helpful as counselor educators and site supervisors prepare to help school counselors-in-training make a smoother adjustment to their clinical experiences and future careers.

Better-Fitzhugh (2010) studied nine school counselors-in-training engaged in a clinical experience through surveys and interviews on the most effective strategies employed by their site
supervisors. The nine participants, members of a counseling internship class at a historically black university in the Mid-Atlantic, were in various stages of completing the 700 total hours of practicum and internship. The mixed-methods dissertation utilized surveys, a semi-structured group interview, and a document review to collect data. The researcher adapted the first survey from the Supervisor’s Self-Assessment (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2007) to transform it into a tool for counselors-in-training to evaluate their site supervisors. The researcher developed the second survey to measure intern self-confidence. Both surveys, administered online, contained a mix of Likert-type and open questions. Better-Fitzhugh (2010) quantitative data analysis (descriptive statistics, frequencies, measures of central tendencies) and qualitative data analysis (theme identification) revealed several trends for effective site supervision. The participants cited providing strong leadership, a hands-on approach, and meaningful feedback that allowed supervisees to understand their strengths and weaknesses as site supervisor actions positively associated with their self-confidence.

Important, Better-Fitzhugh (2010) highlighted a major finding that self-confidence is influenced by prior knowledge and experience, but can be enhanced by positive supervision during the internship (p. 2). While not a central focus of the study, two of the participants reflected on their prior teaching experience as a contributing factor to their self-confidence. Better-Fitzhugh recommended that site supervisors consider their supervisees’ prior experiences when developing feedback and assisting with skill development.

In her discussion, Better-Fitzhugh (2010) drew attention to the lack of training opportunities for site supervisors (Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Herlihy et al., 2002; Lambie & Williamson, 2004, Studer, 2005), and examined the ethics behind supervising a clinical experience without training. Additionally, Better-Fitzhugh suggested that counselor educators
provide leadership skill training to site supervisors, training activities that underscore site supervisors' responsibilities, and more direct supervision over clinical experiences. Better-Fitzhugh suggested that future studies explore whether prior teaching experience affects self-confidence, how site supervisors would rate themselves on a self-assessment, and whether receiving training would improve supervision skills.

Better-Fitzhugh (2010) recognized the small sample (N = 9) as a limitation of the study that impacts its generalizability. The amount of on-site hours (which varied from 25 to 560 hours) could have also influenced counselor-in-training confidence. It is not clear from this study whether the participants' site supervisors, for whom they analyzed their performance, had received training in supervision. The perspective of the school counselor-in-training is certainly important, and the analysis of their perceptions of their site supervisors addresses a missing component of the Peterson et al. (2004) study. Further understanding of site supervisors, however, could be gained from a mixed-method study using site supervisors as the participants. Better-Fitzhugh recommended using individual interviews over group interviews for richer qualitative data.

**Practicing School Counselors**

Bringman and Sang (2008) investigated middle school counselors' self-perceived competence (p. 385) levels using teaching experience as a predictor variable. The researchers randomly selected half of the 922 middle school counselors listed in the ASCA directory to participate in this study, resulting in 461 invitations. They received 117 usable surveys, for a 25% response rate. Approximately one-third of the respondents reported having no prior teaching experience. Data were analyzed using multivariate multiple regression analysis. The first regression model revealed a significant relationship (p < .05) between teaching experience
and self-perceived competence in classroom guidance lessons, both alone and in collaboration with a teacher. Both former teachers and non-teachers, however, rated their confidence levels extremely high, with averages above nine out of ten on a ten point scale. For this reason, the authors cautioned readers against drawing widespread conclusions from these results, despite their statistical significance. However, in the second regression model, the researchers found school counseling experience to also be significantly related (p < .05) to self-perceived competence in conducting classroom guidance lessons, both alone and in collaboration with a teacher. When factoring in counseling experience, teaching experience became statistically non-significant.

One conclusion that can be drawn from these results is that beginning school counselors may need more support when conducting classroom guidance lessons, and those who have previously taught may draw upon those experiences in the early years of their school counseling career. Over time, however, school counselors without prior teaching experience gain confidence and self-perceived competence in conducting classroom guidance lessons, which is just one of the many school counseling responsibilities.

Bringman and Sang (2008) disclosed two important limitations to their study. First, responses revealed only a small amount of variance (8%). As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, most of the counselors rated their self-perceived competence extremely high. Second, the authors discussed the complexity of using self-reported competence as a measure. Some counselors may see themselves as being more competent than they actually are, and some counselors who conduct excellent classroom lessons may be less confident or modest. Social desirability, Bringman and Sang admitted, could potentially threaten the validity of the study, a common issue with self-report instruments.
Despite these limitations, the quantitative methodology used in the Bringman and Sang (2008) study is aligned with the suggestion for future research provided by Peterson et al. (2004). This study provides helpful information about how background differences manifest over time. These results are consistent with findings from Baker (1994) and Desmond, West, and Bubenzer (2007) that the benefits of having a teaching background diminished over time with experience and support. However, while the authors suggested that school counselors-in-training be required to conduct classroom guidance lessons as a part of their clinical experiences, they did not mention the role of the site supervisor in those experiences. Many of Bringman and Sang’s (2008) recommendations addressed novice counselors, such as being mentored by a veteran counselor (Desmond et al., 2007). While no clinical experience can completely simulate a future profession, and a learning curve will always exist for both teachers and non-teachers (Peterson et al., 2004), comprehensive clinical experiences can create a smoother transition (Beale & McCay, 2001). For this reason, further research is warranted in the clinical arena, more specifically, examining the individuals overseeing the quality of the experience, the site supervisors.

More recently, a dissertation by Scoles (2011) investigated the differences in self-efficacy of practicing school counselors who had previously taught and those who had not. Using Bandura’s (1986) theory of self-efficacy as a theoretical framework, Scoles used a causal-comparative research design to explore school counselor self-efficacy. Scoles distributed the online survey to 1,335 members of the Ohio School Counselors Association via email. Scoles obtained 129 completed surveys, yielding a 9.7% return rate. Interestingly, 79.8% of the sample had prior teaching experience and 20.2% did not. Scoles employed the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), comprised of several subscales in a Likert-type question format with two additional open questions. Scoles found the reliability of the instrument
to be similar to that of the developers’ findings, with an overall Cronbach’s Alpha of .96 and subscales ranging from .68 to .90. Scoles found that teaching experience was significantly different (p < .05) for the overall self-efficacy. Additionally, Scoles determined that having at least one year of teaching experience served as a predictor of the leadership and assessment subscale as well as overall school counselor self-efficacy. The leadership and assessment subscale refers to perceived ability to adhere to school procedures and act as a school leader.

Administrative support and experience emerged as the major factors influencing self-efficacy. When asked what positively influenced their self-efficacy, both teachers and non-teachers responded that supportive administration was the most influential factor. Participants listed experience as a school counselor as a positive influence, but only non-teachers referenced practicum/internship experiences. Non-teachers did not specifically reference site supervisors as a positive factor (Scoles, 2011).

Similar to Beale (1995), Scoles (2011) concluded that a teaching background does provide a perception of “credibility” (p. 140), especially among administrators. Despite so many changes in the field over the last 15 years, perceived differences that can affect self-efficacy still exist. Scoles’ research gives credence to the continued need for school counselor advocacy in the current decade. Scoles cited sample bias as a limitation to his dissertation because not all school counselors in Ohio subscribe to the Ohio School Counselor Association. School counselors seeking membership to this association may be among the most motivated.

One critique of Scoles’ (2011) study is that, despite ASCA’s efforts to completely separate the professional identity of the school counselor from that of a teacher, he defined school counseling as “a blend of teaching and counseling” (p. 125). Scoles referred to teaching experience as advantageous when delivering information in large groups and stated that it may
provide additional credibility (p. 125) among administrators and teachers. For non-teachers, lack of experience could adversely affect their self-efficacy. Scoles stressed the importance of counselor training, but he suggested that the practicum and internship may not be enough and argued that training should reach beyond the standards set forth by CACREP and ASCA. The researcher proposes that, in addition to the appropriate emphasis placed on counseling skills, counselor education programs address the nuances of the school environment to a greater extent.

While Scoles did not specifically ask the participants about how their clinical experiences helped to prepare them for their positions, only 13% of non-teachers mentioned the practicum/internship as a positive contributor to their self-efficacy. Teachers did not mention the clinical experiences at all as a positive contributor to their self-efficacy. More information is needed on the state of the practicum and internship. It would be particularly beneficial to understand the philosophies of supervision from which site supervisors work and the extent to which site supervisor may be differentiating their approach to meet students' individual needs. While non-teachers encounter a steeper learning curve than teachers (Peterson et al., 2004) that may require additional attention from their site supervisor, teachers may not feel challenged in their clinical experiences and, therefore, did not list them as something of positive impact (Scoles, 2011). Obtaining more information from site supervisors could help to understand this dynamic.

Marino (2011) investigated current school counselors’ perceptions of site supervision effectiveness as part of her dissertation. Through responses to a 33-item, researcher-developed survey, Marino explored school counselors’ self-perceived preparedness and professional identity as well as their reflections on their site supervisors’ effectiveness. Marino was particularly interested in specialization-specific supervision (p. 23), which she defined as supervision conducted by a school counselor with professional experience and supervision
training in the school setting. Marino pulled from literature on supervision models (e.g., Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Thompson & Moffett, 2010) and the ASCA National Model (2005) when developing the instrument. A section of the Specialization-Specific Supervision Questionnaire (SSSQ) asked school counselors to reflect on their experiences with their site supervisor using a seven-point Likert-type scale. While many of the research questions and sub-questions addressed university-level individual and group supervision, the answers to the research questions pertaining to site supervisors are pertinent to this literature review.

Marino (2011) distributed the survey to ASCA members in the southern region. Of the 7,161 potential participants, 555 completed the SSSQ, yielding a 7.8% return rate. Using MANOVA and post hoc ANOVAs, Marino found statistically significant results (p < .0001) revealing that school counselors felt more prepared, had a stronger professional identity, and perceived their site supervisor to have been more effective if they received specialization-specific supervision. Sixteen percent of participants indicated that they were supervised on-site by someone other than a practicing school counselor. Marino concluded that school counselors should be supervised on-site by individuals with a school counseling background. While not this study's central focus, 40% of the participants did not have teaching experience. Marino contended that specialization-specific supervision would be particularly important for supervisees who need to develop classroom management skills and knowledge of school procedures.

While the results of this study were statistically significant, Marino (2011) acknowledged several limitations. Sampling error existed because not all school counselors are members of the ASCA; thus, the sample is not completely representative of the population. The results could also be skewed because school counselors that have strong feelings about supervision may be more
likely to complete the survey. The retrospective reflections the survey required also posed a
limitation. Despite these disclosures, this study further validates the need for supervision training
that specifically targets the school setting. Marino recommended that future studies focus on site
supervisors and their experiences with school counselor training. She also suggested that future
research investigate the potential connections between the site supervisors' teaching experience,
or lack thereof, and their approach to supervision. Optimal supervision would involve matching
supervisors and supervisees by not only specialization, but also by individuals' professional
backgrounds.

Site Supervisors

In her qualitative study, Walter (2009) investigated site supervisors' ego levels by
analyzing site supervisor relationships in all areas of counseling. As part of the theoretical
framework for Walter's study, Loevinger (1976) theory of ego development provided a basis
for understanding an individual's nine steps toward being "integrated" (Hy & Loevinger, 1996,
as cited in Walter, 2009, p. 39). Walter invited 150 school counseling interns who met the
criteria for the target population in central Florida to participate in the study. Of the 150 from
the target population, 96 interns and 58 of their site supervisors participated. Walter asked the
interns and site supervisors to complete the Washington University Completion Test-Form 81
(WUCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996). The interns also completed the Occupational Stress Inventory-
Revised (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998) and the researcher-developed Intern Demographics Form while
the site supervisors completed the researcher-developed Supervisor Experience Questionnaire.
Walter (2009) distributed this survey through the mail using Dillman's (2000) multiple contact
method.
Walter analyzed the survey data using chi-square, ANOVA, MANOVA, and simultaneous multiple regression statistical methods. School counseling dyads demonstrated differences from other counseling dyads. Walter determined that school counseling interns experienced more stress than interns in other counseling areas (p < .01), and they are less likely to participate in ongoing supervision (p < .001). Intern stress levels correlated negatively with satisfaction with their supervision experience (p < .001). Walter chose to use an accessible sample for this study, which she recognized as a limitation to its generalizability.

While site supervision is the partial focus of this study, it is not solely focused on school counselors. Walter (2009) did provide some pertinent conclusions about the intensity of the school-based clinical experience versus that of the traditional counseling office. While many of Walter\'s results yielded statistically non-significant findings, she did conclude that higher levels of site supervisor ego development did not necessarily mean that the supervisor was equipped with the supervision skills to foster ego development in their supervisee. Walter did make the connections between prior work experience, the unique dynamics of the school environment, and specific training that can help site supervisors confidently differentiate their approach based on whether or not the supervisee previously taught in a school. As Peterson et al. (2006) discovered, while non-teachers have the skills to be effective counselors, the internship is more stressful for them than former teachers. While Walter (2009) acknowledged the existence of models that can help school counseling interns acclimate to the school environment and alleviate stress, this study did not provide any indication that such models are widely used in practice. More information about how site supervisors specifically address this issue is needed.

Similarly, Stephens (2008) explored successful practices in site supervision by interviewing and surveying supervisor/supervisee dyads. Specifically, Stephens sought to
identify promising practices to help prepare school counselors-in-training to meet the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) school counseling standards of 2001. In this mixed-method study, Stephens interviewed 10 site supervisors and 10 supervisees and asked them to complete a seven-item questionnaire regarding demographic information. Stephens used an 11-step qualitative theme analysis process to identify successful site supervision practices. Stephens divided these successful practices into elements (three), domains (five), and categories (52). Successful elements of supervision included Nurturing the Supervisory Dyad Dynamics, Engaging in Culturally Proficient Practices, and Developing a Systems Perspective of Schooling (p. 71). These three elements served as components of the five domains: Fostering Professional Identity, Induction into Schooling, Servicing Student Needs, Managing Counseling Programs that are School-Wide, Using Data for Assessment and Decision-Making (p. 71).

Stephens illustrated these findings in a graphic that placed the three elements in the middle and surrounded them with the five domains. This figure represented the theoretical framework for her results.

Of significance for this literature review, the Induction to Schooling domain addressed the needs of school counselors-in-training without teaching experience. Successful practices included those that familiarize the supervisee with the school policies, teacher culture, academic curriculum, and campus resources. Stephens acknowledged that supervisees who possess school experience may need to reframe their approach, consistent with Baker (1994) findings.

Stephens (2008) study provides an example of how themes of successful site supervision practices can be organized. This comprehensive study investigated supervision practices specific to school counseling from the perspectives of the site supervisor and the supervisee. While differentiated supervision for teachers and non-teachers was not the focus of this study,
Stephens’ findings revealed the need for acclimating non-teachers to the school environment as a central theme among site supervisors and supervisees. Stephens recognized that the small sample size limited the generalizability of this study. Future researchers could increase generalizability of the results by distributing the survey component to a larger sample. Additionally, the dyads in this study were all affiliated with the same private university. In a future study, it would be beneficial for site supervisors working with students from a variety of institutions to be included.

DeKruyf’s (2007) dissertation and a published article based on data from the dissertation (DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011) specifically focused on the site supervisor. DeKruyf (2007) explored site supervisor training needs in the Pacific Northwest. Using site supervisor self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) as a measure of the training needs, DeKruyf developed the Site Supervisor Self-Efficacy Survey that included a six-point Likert-type scale. Fifteen school counseling master’s programs contributed 180 names of site supervisors, with 147 responding to the online survey. DeKruyf used the five-step tailored design method to obtain an 82.6% response rate (Dillman, 2007). DeKruyf adapted Dillman’s distribution method for an online survey.

DeKruyf (2007) used descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Fifty-four percent of respondents had received no formal training in site supervision. Of those who did report receiving some supervision training, the hours of training were partially correlated (r = .202) with site supervisor self-efficacy (p = .009). Receiving over 40 hours of supervision training was correlated with the highest self-efficacy scores (five and six). Site supervisors rated themselves with lower self-efficacy regarding knowledge of models. Because of their limited training, site supervisors often reflected on their own previous professional experiences, such as teaching, military supervision, or coursework in administration (DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011).
Training in site supervision accounted for 4.08% of the variance in site supervisor self-efficacy; therefore, these results must be used cautiously. DeKruyf and Pehrsson (2011) proposed that site supervisor training include (a) counselor development, (b) supervision methods and techniques, (c) the supervisory relationship, and (d) models of supervision (p. 323). DeKruyf also recommended training to address how site supervisors can support school counselors-in-training with and without teaching experience as well as qualitative follow-up in a different geographic region.

DeKruyf’s study (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011) provided valuable information that is generalizable to the larger population of school counseling site supervisors. Not only did the survey achieve a strong response rate, but the demographics of the respondents were closely aligned with the ASCA State of the Profession Report (2006, as cited by DeKruyf, 2007). While DeKruyf (2007) recommended further study on differentiated supervision, this study did not provide information on exactly how site supervisors address the differences of teachers and non-teachers. An additional survey with open and closed questions specifically aimed at this information is necessary, as well as a qualitative follow-up.

**Summary of Recent Findings**

The research on this topic has continued on a trajectory toward acknowledgement and acceptance of slight differences between teachers and non-teachers as school counselors-in-training. As non-teachers become the more prevalent type of school counseling student (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), training must adapt. Recommendations exist to help close that gap in school system familiarity between teachers and non-teachers. However, as DeKruyf (2007) discovered, site supervisors do not feel confident utilizing supervision models. Better-Fitzhugh (2010) acknowledged the ethical need for site supervising training as demonstrated by the literature.
Questions still remain as to how aware site supervisors are of models to assist non-teachers with the transition to school counseling and to what extent supervision for supervisees is approached differently depending on prior work experience.

**Conclusion/Study Rationale**

Over the last century, the school counseling profession has evolved into one that is standards-based and more closely aligned with the counseling field than the education field. In 45 out of 50 states, teaching experience is no longer required for licensure. This makes the clinical experience, overseen by the site supervisor, the primary means by which non-teachers gain knowledge of school procedures. CACREP *Standards* (2009) and ACES *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision* (2011) recommend that site supervisors receive training in supervision prior to engaging in a supervisory relationship. Several studies acknowledge that this is a challenge (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Nelson & Johnson, 1999). While school counseling supervision models exist (e.g., Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), evidence of their implementation does not. This absence could be problematic for non-teachers who have a steeper learning curve (Peterson et al., 2004) and may possess less self-confidence if their site supervisor has not been properly trained (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010).

For over a decade, researchers have called for further research on site supervision. Specifically, Nelson and Johnson (1999) suggested site supervisors be surveyed to determine how they approach site supervision, the theoretical framework from which they work, and what kind of training is needed. While DeKruyf (2007) attempted to address these issues in her dissertation, the quantitative methodology created more questions about the preparedness of site supervisors and their ability to meet the specific needs of their supervisees. The literature suggests a qualitative methodology to further explore site supervisors’ thoughts on the
supervision process (DeKruyf, 2007; Luke, Ellis, & Bernard, 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Miller and Dollarhide (2006) suggested that qualitative and/or quantitative research be conducted to measure site supervisors’ satisfaction, learning, and growth and their modalities preferred (p. 301). Stephens (2008) cited the benefits of quantitative methodology for this issue but suggested using a larger sample size that could lead to generalizable results. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) recommended a qualitative study that focuses on the site supervisors’ approach, particularly the structure of individual meetings and the use of techniques specific to the needs of non-teachers. Similarly, DeKruyf (2007) recommended additional research on site supervisors that uses a qualitative methodology and specifically investigates the supervision techniques used to meet the needs of teachers and non-teachers.

Based on the literature presented, the profession could benefit from further understanding of current site supervisors, specifically the theoretical framework, if any, from which they work, their preparedness to tackle the responsibility of school counselor training, and the extent to which they tailor their approach based on previous work experiences of the supervisee.
III. Methodology

The recent literature surrounding the topic of site supervision for school counselors-in-training with diverse professional backgrounds guides this methodology. The literature not only indicates a need for further examination of differing site supervisor approaches for former teachers and non-teachers (DeKruyf, 2007), but it recommends that qualitative methodology be used to gain further understanding of this phenomenon (DeKruyf, 2007; Luke, Ellis, & Bernard, 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Quantitative data is also warranted (Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004); therefore, the researcher employed a mixed-method design. This methodology follows the recommendations of Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), Greene (2007), and McMillan (2004).

Statement of Problem

Recent literature provides evidence that school counselors-in-training with and without prior teaching experience face different challenges in the clinical setting (Peterson et al., 2004). Yet, the site supervisors who oversee these individuals during their practicum and internship experiences are often not provided with training (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011). The purpose of this study was to gain understanding of school counseling site supervisors’ approaches to supervision, specifically, the extent to which they tailor their approaches based on the supervisees’ previous work experiences. The supervision models, if any, from which the site supervisors work and their preparedness to train school counselors-in-training was also investigated. Using an explanatory mixed-method design (McMillan, 2004), members of the Virginia School Counselors Association (VSCA) who have served as a site supervisor for a master’s-level school counseling student engaged in a practicum or internship completed a
survey pertaining to their site supervision approach. A sample of those surveyed participated in a follow-up interview.

**Research Questions**

Previous research has left questions regarding how current site supervisors approach supervision. DeKruyf (2007) established that training for site supervisors, while minimal, was positively correlated with supervisor self-efficacy and that knowledge of supervision models and confidence with employing them in practice was low. Yet, the extent to which site supervisors possess knowledge of training techniques that could help them meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from different professional backgrounds remained unclear. Researchers had yet to conduct a detailed investigation on the approaches site supervisors use to facilitate the development of school counselors-in-training with diverse professional backgrounds (DeKruyf, 2007; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Through surveys and follow-up interviews, this study answers the following questions:

1. How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?
2. How prepared are site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?
   a. How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?
   b. To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?
3. What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?
Research Design

Several scholars have recommended that future studies employ a qualitative methodology to further explore the supervision process (DeKruyf, 2007; Luke, Ellis, & Bernard, 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Additionally, Miller and Dollarhide (2006) suggested that qualitative and/or quantitative research be conducted to measure site supervisors’ satisfaction, learning, and growth and their modalities preferred (p. 301). According to McMillan (2004), a mixed-method research design would incorporate the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative research designs. Mixing methods facilitates greater understanding of the phenomena being studied (Greene, 2007). In an explanatory mixed-method design, a quantitative instrument is administered first, followed by a qualitative second phase of the study in which more detailed perspective is gleaned through interviews (McMillan, 2004). Greene (2007) referred to this design as a developmental mixed-method study. Because the two designs would be used sequentially, the second phase may develop out of the first phase, allowing the deepest analysis of a set of constructs (p. 102). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) most accurately labeled it an explanatory sequential design (p. 72). For this study, the mixed-method design not only measured site supervisors’ beliefs and practices regarding supervisees’ diverse professional backgrounds; it allowed site supervisors to provide thorough explanations of their personal philosophy of supervision and the extent to which their approach differs, if at all, for former teachers versus non-teachers. The survey phase provided basic information on site supervisor beliefs and practices for former teachers and non-teachers. The interview phase allowed themes in supervision to emerge and revealed a deeper understanding of the origins of some of the beliefs and practices shared on the survey.
Research Methods/Data Collection

In this mixed-method study, the researcher surveyed a large sample and interviewed a smaller number of volunteer participants. The sequential explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) allowed understanding of the phenomenon, how site supervisors approach school counseling supervisees differently based on prior work experiences, to deepen with each phase of research (Greene, 2007; McMillan, 2004).

Phase I: Survey

The goal of the first phase of this study was to gain preliminary information about site supervisors’ experiences. A survey is an efficient method to gather data from a large number of participants (Fink, 2009). Neuman (2012) stated that it allows researchers to "precisely measure features of social reality" (p. 172). The survey used in this study was researcher-developed and administered online. Consisting of both closed and open questions, the survey provided the opportunity for quantitative and qualitative analysis and forecasted what to expect in the interviews.

Population. The VSCA distributed the survey to all of its members through email. Daniel (2012) called this method "list-based sampling" (p. 190). A screening component, as recommended by Daniel (2012), was implemented to have the sampling frame, VSCA members, more closely emulate the target population, site supervisors in Virginia. VSCA members were initially asked if they had ever served as a school counseling site supervisor to a practicum or internship student. Only those who respond affirmatively were invited to complete the survey. VSCA currently has approximately 800 members (B. F. McLeod, personal communication, January, 2012), which served as a rough estimate for the sampling frame. The number of respondents who have served as a site supervisor ultimately determined the sample.
The population to which this study generalizes is school counselors who have provided supervision to a school counseling student in a practicum or internship. While the number of members who have served as a site supervisor is unknown, it is estimated that it is about half of the 800 members. With an estimated number of 400 eligible respondents, the sample size needed to generalize to the population of Virginia site supervisors was between 150 and 200 respondents. In order to have a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 5, 196 participants were necessary (Creative Research Systems, 2012), assuming that 400 VSCA members have supervised a practicum or internship student.

**Instrument.** Although a portion of the instrument utilized a question set from an existing checklist (Studer, 2006), a single instrument did not exist that had the potential to answer the research questions. The researcher, therefore, developed a survey entitled the “Site Supervision Questionnaire” (SSQ, Appendix A) contained 24 questions, both closed and open. Closed questions utilized dichotomous, multiple choice, and Likert-type scale (McMillan, 2004) responses. The Likert-type responses utilized a semantic differential scale, where adjectives served as “anchors” (McMillan, 2004, p. 160) between a five-number scale. In accordance with Fink’s (2009) recommendations, the researcher placed the easiest questions to answer at the end of the survey. These included demographic and professional history questions. The questions that require the most thought or are the most contentious were placed in the middle or close to the end, but not at the very end. Questions were worded clearly and respectfully, considering the respondents should be veterans in their field.

The survey was field-tested for face validity by a small volunteer sample of school counselors who had served as site supervisors and one professional educational consultant. The researcher received nine responses; two respondents provided written suggestions. The
incorporated suggestions included wording adjustments, adding an additional non-CACREP accredited institution to the list of program options, adding an additional answer option to the list of choices for the number of hours for supervision training, and clarification on how to inform participants of the interview opportunity and make it apparent to them that their survey responses would not be linked to their contact information for the interview. No changes were made to the question content. The revised survey was submitted to the Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) Institutional Review Board (IRB). IRB requested additional changes to clarify and streamline the volunteer recruitment process. Once approved, the survey was submitted to the VSCA Research Committee for approval. VSCA did not request any changes to the instrument and distributed the survey to its members after granting official approval.

Each section of the survey attended to a different research question. Research question #1 was addressed in item 6: ÒWhen supervising a school counseling student, do you work from a philosophy?Ó Respondents indicated ÒyesÓ or Òno.Ó Those who indicate ÒyesÓ were asked to describe their philosophy of school counselor supervision. The open-ended portion of this item allowed the site supervisor to articulate his/her approach, providing insight into his/her understanding of the supervision process.

Research question #2 and its two sub-questions were addressed in survey items 11-16. Item 11 is adapted from StuderÔ (2006) self-rating scale for counseling supervisors based on the 11 standards established by the ACES Supervision Interest Network in 1993. Standard Five, ÒConceptual Knowledge of Supervision Methods and Techniques,Ó and Standard Six, ÒConceptual Knowledge of the Counselor Developmental Process,Ó included 16 items, or sub-points, on StuderÔ rating scale. All 16 standard sub-points were included under item 11 on the SSQ. Items 12 and 13 addressed site supervisorsÔ familiarity of specific models for school
counseling supervision. The models in item 13 came directly from the “Models Related to Site Supervision” section of the literature review. Items 14-16 addressed the respondents’ amount and type of supervision training they had received and their desire for further training.

Items 7-10 addressed research question #3. These researcher-developed items asked the respondents to disclose their beliefs on performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers. While item 11 was designed for site supervisors to self-assess confidence in their abilities (Studer, 2006), the last two sub-items concentrated on tailored supervision based on supervisee experiences. These sub-items also address the “practice” portion of research question #3. Items 2-5 and 17-24 gathered demographic data. After participants submitted their responses, they were asked if they would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview. Directions for how to volunteer followed a debriefing statement.

This survey instrument was web-based. Daniel (2012) and McMillan (2004) cited the financial benefits for using a web-based format, and Fink (2009) cited the ease with which the developer can construct different types of questions. More than 40% of all surveys are currently web-based (Daniel, 2012). The researcher used Survey Monkey (a web-based survey tool) to administer the survey. Survey Monkey permitted questions in multiple formats and provided downloadable data that preserved participant anonymity. While internet security comes with trepidation for sensitive study topics, McMillan (2004) provided further validation for this medium by saying that web-based surveys are “excellent” (p. 199) for administering surveys to technologically savvy populations, such as educators, for non-personal subject matter. As a web-based instrument approved by VCU’s IRB, participants were presented with study information that appeared prior to the start of the survey, and the first question of the survey asked for informed consent (see Appendix A). Respondents were required to click “yes” to give their
formal consent in order to proceed. When participants completed the survey, they were instructed to click "done" and debriefing information appeared (see Appendix A). The researcher coordinated with the VSCA Research Chair and the VSCA President on survey administration.

The researcher distributed, via VSCA email distribution list, a survey invitation (Appendix B) which used brief, precise wording and included the URL link to the survey. The survey invitation preceded a follow-up or reminder email (Appendix C). De Leeuw et al. (2008) presented the follow-up email as a common practice to decrease non-response and non-response bias. The authors cited a response rate meta-analysis (Cook et al., 2000) that found response rates increase with three contacts, but decrease with four or five contacts. VSCA regulations limit the number of contacts to two.

**Phase II: Interviews**

The goal of the second phase of the study was to gain a deeper understanding of the constructs being measured (Creswell, 2007). The second phase of this explanatory sequential design employed the "participant selection model" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 73) in which the researcher used information from the quantitative section to purposefully select participants for the qualitative phase. Interviews allowed participants to expand on their initial responses in a personal and confidential environment.

**Participants.** At the conclusion of the survey, respondents were asked if they would be willing to participate in a follow-up phone interview (see Appendix A). Those who responded affirmatively were asked to click on a link that opened up a new window to a contact information form. This method allowed the survey respondents to provide contact information without their identity being linked to their survey responses. The researcher interviewed a purposeful sample of the respondents from the survey based on the participants' work settings. The goal was to
yield nine to twelve participants, three to four participants per school level (elementary, middle, and high), which would allow for deeper understanding of Virginia site supervisors' experiences and provide further explanation of the research questions. The contact information form also asked participants whether they had previously taught to ensure that both types of professional backgrounds were represented in the sample. These two criteria would have been used for screening purposes in the event of an extremely large number of volunteers. All volunteers that worked in a school setting, 16 out of 17, were contacted to schedule an interview. The home-based counselor was not extended an invitation. A total of 12 interviews were conducted.

**Protocol.** The researcher contacted the self-identified participants at the email addresses they provided to schedule a phone interview. De Leeuw et al. (2008) recommended that a phone interview last 20-30 minutes, with a maximum recommended length of 50 minutes. Although a list of potential interview times were included in the email, the interviews were scheduled based on the participants' availability. Research with human participants must always operate in accordance with ethical guidelines of the research institution and the profession. The VCU IRB approved the potential interview questions, allowing the researcher the ability to adjust the questions depending on the survey responses (Appendix D). The researcher informed the participants of the purpose of the study and the approximate length of the interview through an informational sheet that the researcher emailed to the participant prior to the interview (Appendix E). At the time of the interview, the researcher asked the participants for their consent both before and after pressing the record button on the audio recorder. At the conclusion of the interview, the researcher verbally debriefed the participants and gave them, via email, a debriefing sheet (Appendix F). Confidentiality and anonymity have been, and will continue to
be, maintained. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. The researcher assigned pseudonyms to the participants in the results report.

The sequential explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) allowed for the interview questions to develop based on the survey responses. The researcher drafted anticipated interview questions and later added additional sub-questions based on Phase I data (Appendix D). Analysis of Phase I raised questions about the role of school level in the challenges for non-teachers, how the lack of school experience for non-teachers should be addressed, and the potential advantages for not having teaching experience. Follow-up questions that addressed these issues were added under interview question 8: Do you notice any differences in the supervisees' level of preparedness for the practicum or internship based on their previous professional experiences? Please describe examples. Also, because few Phase I participants indicated having knowledge of supervision models and only two indicated having knowledge of the Peterson-Deuchle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), an additional follow-up question was added to interview question 13 (Are you familiar with any specific school counseling models of supervision?) that asked the interviewees to comment on the value, if any, of receiving training on a model such as this one. The interview questions corresponded to the research questions and asked for more open and detailed responses than the survey. The interview format also provided the opportunity for follow-up questions at the time of the interview if more detailed explanation was needed to address the research questions.

Interview questions 1-6 gathered demographic information. Question 10 addressed research question #1, questions 11-16 addressed research question #2 and its sub-questions, and questions 7-9 addressed research question #3. Question 17 asked for any additional information.
Researcher Positionality

As the sole researcher in this study, it is important to disclose my professional background and the role it plays in this study’s development and findings. I entered graduate school for my master’s degree in Counselor Education in 2000, two years after the teaching requirement was removed for licensure in Virginia. I did not have teaching experience, and I entered the program directly from my undergraduate program where I earned a B.A. in Psychology. I knew I wanted to counsel adolescents, and, after a one-month internship in a high school counseling office, I knew that was where I belonged. Since my final externship (as it was then called) in the spring of 2002, two things have intrigued me, the relationships between supervisors and supervisees and the perceptions of non-teachers’ abilities in school counseling. These interests continued to grow and evolve as I faced the hiring and provisional licensure processes as a non-teacher, and later became a clinical supervisor and adjunct university supervisor. Over the course of my doctoral coursework, my idea for my dissertation evolved into its current form, which allowed me to explore both of my areas of interest and merge my roles as practicing school counselor and educational leader.

My professional journey is pertinent because the researcher’s personal and professional lens has the ability to impact qualitative research. Because this research investigates the performance of two groups of individuals, school counselors-in-training with teaching experience and those without teaching experience, and I am formerly a member of one of those groups and not the other, my position should be acknowledged. Additionally, as a high school counselor, I am more familiar with secondary school counselors’ experiences. Because of these positions, there are times when I utilized follow-up questions to clarify and fully understand others’ experiences, and I remained mindful of my inherent bias as I analyzed data.
Data Analysis

The researcher analyzed the quantitative data (closed questions on the SSQ) using descriptive statistics, including frequencies and measures of central tendencies. In Phase I, the goal was to gain an initial, numeric understanding of site supervisors' beliefs, practices, and training associated with overseeing the development of school counselors-in-training from different professional backgrounds. As discussed in the description of the instrument, each section of the SSQ corresponded to a research question (see Table 1). In addition to documenting frequencies and means for the individual survey questions, trends across participants based on demographic information, particularly the participants' years of experience and professional background, as well as answers to other research questions were analyzed. Variables such as working from a philosophy, confidence level, knowledge of models, beliefs about performance differences among teachers, and having received site supervision training were cross-referenced in order to identify relationships between them and, ultimately, the research questions.

Qualitative data, open questions on the SSQ and answers to interview questions (transcribed by CastingWords), were analyzed for emerging themes. The researcher sent the transcripts to the participants via email, providing the opportunity for member checks. Any additional explanation or clarification given by a participant within a two-week window was included in the analysis. Only one participant provided minor wording clarifications. Prior to analysis, the researcher listened to the audio recording of each interview while reviewing the corresponding transcript. During this first review, the researcher assigned pseudonyms to each participant and recorded initial impressions. In the researcher's three to five subsequent reviews of the transcripts, codes were identified through the protocol described in the next paragraph.
The researcher later grouped the codes together by related topic to form themes. These themes provide the detailed explanation of the findings uncovered in analysis of the SSQ.

The researcher employed a phenomenological approach to data analysis (Creswell, 2007). The purpose of this approach was to gain understanding of multiple participants’ lived experiences of a concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 2007, p. 57). While completely eliminating researcher bias in qualitative analysis is impossible, the researcher minimized it by conducting the member checks and following a coding protocol. Responses were reviewed by interview question. Each point the interview participants made within an interview question was noted as a potential code. Because participants often used different words to describe the same concept, codes in this study are not a word count, but a classification of like points. As like points were identified, consolidated, and tallied, codes emerged. An item became a code when three or more like points were identified, although codes that also included open-ended survey responses, such as supervision philosophies and observed trends among former teachers and non-teachers, included many more. Because there were only 12 interviews, some noteworthy points came from double or single responses. The number of responses that made up each code is denoted in Chapter IV; codes with the higher numbers of responses were considered more prominent. As each code emerged from the transcripts, an operational definition of the code was established, which is described under each code heading in the next chapter. Similar codes, particularly for the larger responses that also included open-end survey data, were grouped into overarching themes. In the final stage of the analysis process, the researcher merged the qualitative themes with the quantitative data and organized the findings into seven categories that represented different aspects of the research questions.
Table 1 identifies the research questions and the corresponding survey/interview items and data analysis method.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Instrument Item</th>
<th>Data Analysis Method</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?</td>
<td>SSQ: 6a, 6b</td>
<td>6a: Frequencies, measures of central tendency</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6b: Qualitative theme analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview: 10, 17</td>
<td>Qualitative theme analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>2) How prepared are current site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?</td>
<td>(see sub-questions below)</td>
<td>Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a) How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?</td>
<td>SSQ: 12-16</td>
<td>Frequencies, measures of central tendencies</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview: 11, 12, 13, 17</td>
<td>Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b) To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?</td>
<td>SSQ: 11</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics, frequencies, measures of central tendencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview: 14, 15, 16, 17</td>
<td>Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?</td>
<td>SSQ: 7-10</td>
<td>7: Frequencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8: Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9: Descriptive statistics, frequencies, measures of central tendencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10: Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview: 7-9, 17</td>
<td>Qualitative theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic items</td>
<td>SSQ: 2-5, 17-24</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics, frequencies, measures of central tendency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Note: SSQ #1 asked for consent)</td>
<td>Frequecies, means, measures of central tendency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview: 1-6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Site Supervision Questionnaire is abbreviated SSQ

These methods for data analysis permitted thorough coverage of the research questions from both numeric and thematic perspectives. In Table 1, item 17 of the interview is italicized under
each research question because it asks “Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about your experience as a site supervisor that might be helpful for the profession?” The responses from this question, in some cases, contributed to deeper understanding of several different research questions, and some participants did not have anything additional to add. The data collected for this study provided information about how site supervisors currently work with school counselors-in-training from diverse backgrounds. Additionally, the training needs of teachers and non-teachers, as perceived by Virginia site supervisors, and the training needs for supervisors themselves were revealed. Results are outlined in Chapter IV.
IV. Findings

Data collection for Phase I and Phase II of the study adhered to the research plan outlined in Chapter III, which was approved by Virginia Commonwealth University’s (VCU) Institutional Review Board (IRB, Appendix G). In Phase I, the Site Supervision Questionnaire (SSQ) was distributed to approximately 800 members of the Virginia School Counselors Association (VSCA) via email by the VSCA President after being approved by the VSCA Research Committee. Only members that had served as a site supervisor for a school counseling intern or practicum student were eligible to complete the survey. While the exact number of eligible participants is unknown, 102 VSCA members agreed to participate in the study and began completing the survey. Of those, 86 completed the survey (84.3%). Because only questions #1 (consent) and #2 (screening) were required, the number of responses per question varied.

**Characteristics of the Sample**

The majority of the respondents worked at the elementary school level (48.7%), followed by high school (26.3%), then middle school (19.7%), all in a public setting. Four respondents were retired, two worked at a university, and one worked at a central office. The majority of respondents were female (96.1%) and identified as being “European American/White” (73.0%). Other respondents who answered the question identified as being “African American/Black” (25.7%) and “Asian American/Pacific Islander” (1.4%), with no respondents indentifying as “Biracial/Multicultural American,” “Hispanic,” “Native American,” “Other.” The survey respondents’ years of school counseling experience ranged from one year to “over 30” years, with a mean of 13.6 years. Seven years was most often indicated (9.0%). Slightly over half of the respondents indicated that they did not have prior teaching experience before becoming a school counselor, referred to as “non-teachers” (54.5%). All respondents indicated they had a master’s
degree in counselor education or a related field, and six respondents indicated they hold a doctorate degree in education or counseling.

The survey respondents had supervised between one and over 30 students, with seven indicating they had supervised 10-15 students and two indicating they had supervised over 30 students. Having one supervisee was the most common number at 18, followed closely by three supervisees at 15. The majority of respondents had supervised practicum students (65), followed by 300-hour internships (57), and 600-hour internships (27). Nine respondents checked other and specified a unique supervisory experience. Of note, two of these respondents indicated a 200-hour internship. Most respondents indicated they had had more than one type of supervisory experience. The largest percentage of participants had supervised only non-teachers (60%), followed by mostly non-teachers and some former teachers (18.8%), a mix of former teachers and non-teachers (15%), mostly former teachers and some non-teachers (5%), and all former teachers (1.3%). These responses demonstrate that most school counselors-in-training do not have a teaching background, similar to Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) finding.

The majority of respondents' last supervisory experience was within the last year, with 59.3% occurring in either 2011 or 2012. All respondents except one indicated the most recent supervisory experience was within the last nine years; one was in 1998 (which was the year the teaching requirement was removed). A variety of supervising universities were represented, with at least two respondents from every institution listed on the survey (see Appendix A). There were 17 responses for other; most notably, five respondents had worked with George Washington University in Washington, D.C., and four respondents had worked with Cambridge College in Chesapeake, Virginia. One respondent supervised an individual from an online program. These
varied responses represent a diversity of experiences among the supervisors and provide richness to the data, making similarities among supervisory experiences more compelling.

Twenty survey respondents indicated that they would be willing to participate in a follow-up phone interview. Of those, 17 completed the contact information page and were, therefore, eligible to participate in the interview. The volunteers were closely split between having prior teaching experience (8) and not having prior teaching experience (9). The majority of the volunteers were elementary school counselors (10), followed by middle school and high school counselors (3 each), and home-based counselor (1). The researcher conducted a total of 12 interviews (9 elementary, 2 middle, and 1 high), with 5 having prior teaching experience and 7 being non-teachers. The interviewees’ years of experience ranged from 6 to 37, with a combined total of 200 years of experience and a mean of 16.6 years. While the interviewees were all female and they were not asked to indicate their ethnicity, this population was geographically diverse, with rural, urban, and suburban schools represented in western, northern, eastern, and central regions of Virginia.

**Results**

The results of this study will be shared according to seven categories: site supervisor training, site supervisor responsibilities, site supervisor philosophies, site supervisor confidence, observed trends in supervisee experiences, performance differences among supervisees, and supervision practices. These categories, which represent research question elements, consist of themes and codes. In some instances, codes may be presented with individual headings. In themes consisting of a smaller numbers of codes, codes are not presented with individual headings.
Many quotations from survey respondents and follow-up interview participants will be presented to illustrate themes. While some overlap may exist between the survey responses and answers to interview questions, there is no way to determine which responses may belong to the same individual because the survey responses were anonymous. The researcher will refer to the survey respondents by assigned numbers and will refer to the interview participants by assigned pseudonyms. The researcher uses the following designations to identify the site supervisors’ work setting and professional background:

- Elementary School = ES
- Middle School/Junior High School = MS
- High School = HS
- Retired = RT
- Former Teacher = FT
- Non-Teacher = NT

Each quotation will be followed by the participant’s respondent number or pseudonym, how the individual responded (survey or interview), and the above designation.

**Site Supervisor Training**

Participants in both Phase I and Phase II were asked about the formal training they had received in site supervision. In Phase I, 62.3% (48 survey respondents) said they had not received any formal training. Nine participants that completed the survey skipped this question. The 29 respondents that indicated they had received training were prompted to characterize the supervision training they received. Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of types of supervision.
Figure 1. Types of Supervision Training. Nearly half (48%) of the participants that answered this question participated in multiple forms of training; these percentages represent all types of training received. Over half of Phase I participants (62.3%) did not receive training and were not asked about training types.

Table 2 provides the number of responses for each type of training and a breakdown of the number of hours survey respondents spent in each type of training.
Table 2

**Type and Amount of Site Supervision Training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Approximate hours of training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training at student's university</td>
<td>3 4 0 6 0 2 4 1 0 0 1 0 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workshop at a state or national conference</td>
<td>2 3 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer or weekend workshop</td>
<td>2 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service</td>
<td>1 3 0 5 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit or module in a master's program course</td>
<td>0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate level course in supervision</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5 4 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answered question</th>
<th>27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skipped question (if presented to them)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most popular type of training is training offered at the supervisee's university (21), followed by in-service (11), followed by workshop at a state or national conference (9) and graduate level course in supervision (9). Of those who responded, nearly half (13) indicated they had attended two or more types of training. Of those who received training, the mean number of hours was 26.6. This mean could be skewed because one university employee who completed the survey indicated a total of 137 plus hours of supervision training. The mode is a three-way tie between 2 hours (5), 4 hours (5), and 16 hours (5). The median was 9 hours. Only eight responses totaled over 16 hours. The four highest number totals included a “plus” because the respondent indicated
one or more training activities being over 45 hours of training. These pluses were not included in the total number when calculating the average.

In Phase II, follow-up interview participants were asked to describe any kind of preparation they had for being a site supervisor. Five participants (41.7%) indicated that they had not received training. A higher percentage of interview participants (58.3%) had received site supervisor training compared to the survey respondents (37.7%). Interview participants were not asked to quantify the number of hours of training they received, but they did describe the nature of the training, with the majority of the participants indicating they only attended one training activity. Training activities included workshop put on by supervising university/university consortium (4); course on counseling supervision (3, one being multiple courses); contact with university supervisor (3); syllabus/supervisor’s manual that contained a contract between student, sites supervisor, and university (2); session at a state conference (1); and practicum/internship orientation session (1). Of the supervision courses, one was a single graduate level course in supervision, one was a course supervising group work, and one was a series of courses as part of an education specialist program.

When asked about the content of these site-supervisor training activities, two interview participants could not recall the training topics. The remaining five participants who had received training and did recall some of the topics listed a variety of supervision-related issues that were addressed. These included how to provide constructive feedback (2), appropriate expectations (2), and information on supervision model components (2), items on which some site supervisors had mentioned wanting more information. Other topics that were mentioned by only a single participant included confidentiality, mentorship, matching the student with the supervisor, theory, different ways to supervise, how to be encouraging, allowing students to have their own
space to work, how to model, how to role-play with students, processing, and what to do if there are problems. One participant recalled receiving a notebook with handouts that she still uses, and two others mentioned getting the opportunity to meet the university supervisor with whom they would be working. The following training descriptions provide more detailed information from three different training methods:

[Topics of the supervision courses for the educational specialist program included,] obviously, confidentiality, mentorship, supervision, good match of student and supervisor as well as the practicum student and the supervision student and a student here at the school. Theory, of course. I think we talked a little bit about some different ways to supervise. Again, the biggest thing was the match between the student and the needs here at the school and what they were looking to get out of it. I believe I had a little bit of a role-play on how to talk with someone about something along the lines of criticism or giving them some constructive feedback.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

Now, this has been a while, so I'm not going to give you super-duper specific things, but I would say the primary focus of [the three-hour training] was the need for us to be not just allowing our students to have a place to work but to be active participants in their supervision. Modeling for them ahead of time what our expectations are, having them role-play ahead of time so that once they are actually there, they feel prepared and they can be more effective. Then, after they, say, have an individual counseling session, or run a group session, or teach a classroom guidance lesson, sitting down and processing what went well, what areas maybe didn't go so well, and how they can improve in those areas. It's hard to without being very interactive and providing feedback and providing practice ahead of time.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

The notebook [from the half-day training] is cool. There was a little handout...A lot of it was expectations of what their experience would entail. What we should do. What we should not do. What to do if there are problems. At the end, they talked about a developmental modelé They did put us in groups, at the end, by schools represented thereé I got to meet [her] university supervisor, although not everyone did.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

In Phase I, the survey asked the participants if they would find more supervision training to be beneficial in fostering skill development in supervisees with diverse professional backgrounds. The majority of respondents, 85.7% (66), indicated that training would be
beneficial. In Phase II, 91.67% (11 out of 12) of the follow-up interview participants felt that receiving more information on models for school counseling supervision would be beneficial.

**Site Supervisor Responsibilities**

One of the goals of this study was to glean more information about how site supervisors understand supervision in schools. In both Phase I and Phase II, the majority of participants felt that accomplishing the tasks and responsibilities associated with the supervisory relationship was their primary concern. The themes that emerged within the set of responsibilities are task-oriented and describe the types of experiences the site supervisors liked to ensure supervisees had during their placement. The school system exposure and feedback themes explain how site supervisors expect supervisees to learn and grow during the clinical experience. The standards theme refers to a set of guidelines and/or tasks to which participants liked to adhere.

**School system exposure.** The majority of participants who commented on their responsibilities focused on providing their supervisee with adequate school system exposure to facilitate their understanding of the school counselors' role. The theme includes a total of 35 references to real-world experience and modeling.

A number of participants, particularly survey respondents, emphasized the importance of providing supervisees with the opportunity to apply their skills in a real-world setting. A total of 22 participants (18 survey, 4 interview) included practical application and/or providing a global experience as a primary responsibility. These participants wanted to ensure that school counseling supervisees gain a full range of experiences and are exposed to all aspects of the job, even those that are not necessarily counseling-related. They felt that the school counseling program cannot always prepare a supervisee for every role they may need to play in a particular school building. The following participants explained their rationale for this type of exposure:
I try to give my interns as much insight and realistic view of what the school counseling field holds. I allow them to get as much hands-on experience as possible.

Respondent #47 (Survey, ES, FT)

There are several aspects of high school counseling not covered in course work. I made it a point to expose the intern/practicum student to those and when possible observe their skills in these situations. Examples would include but are not limited to: parent conferences, student/teacher disagreements, working with teachers at their wits end, and exposure to mountains of record keeping and school protocols.

Respondent #76 (Survey, RT, FT)

I have my expectations... I expect them to learn all different parts of the job and the area in which they're comfortable with... we each have an area that really works best, and that's okay. But to learn how to be comfortable in individual work and small group work, and in consultation with parents, and do parenting groups. It's everything involved, and learning how to work with administrators. It's not just the classroom component. There are many other parts to it, to learn it all.

Sharon (Interview, ES, FT)

Modeling is a method by which participants provide exposure to school counseling in the real world. Modeling, or some form of supervisor observation, was the most frequently mentioned specific task within site supervision. The "modeling" code included references to shadowing and observing the site supervisor and even teachers and other staff members. A total of 13 participants (8 survey, 5 interview) mentioned some variation of this practice, most typically in the context of acclimatizing the supervisee to the school environment, conveying expectations, assisting supervisees who are struggling, or exposing supervisees to school culture:

I believe that my role as a school counseling intern supervisor is to provide the intern with guided exposure and experience. I prefer for all interns to observe me performing a task before they are asked to perform it themselves.

Respondent #20 (Survey, ES, NT)

I model expectations in developing student, parent, and teacher relationships.

Respondent #67 (Survey, MS, FT)

I try to help be the role model for the parts they are having difficulty in and encourage them.

Melissa (Interview, ES, NT)
I encourage them to, like I said, do a lot of observing, and not just of me but of the teachers and other staff members in the building so that they can learn about the culture in the school and schools and how schools work.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

**Feedback.** Participants also viewed providing feedback as an important aspect of supervision that can lead to supervisee growth. A total of 17 participants mentioned the need for supervisee observation and consequent critique as a primary responsibility. The feedback theme encompasses the observation, critique, and competence codes described in the following paragraphs.

Seven survey respondents mentioned supervisee observation as part of their philosophy. While many participants stated that they prefer to begin the practicum and/or internship with students observing and shadowing, this code refers to site supervisors observing their supervisees once they have taken on independent work. Observation is often the task that precedes feedback/evaluation/critique. The following participants describe the conditions for supervisee observation.

My description and philosophy in supervision of the counselor is to observe for interaction with students in terms of (compassion) feelings, (collaboration) ideas & expressions, and (conclusion) acceptance or rejection of each behavior.

Respondent #9 (Survey, MS, FT)

[After observing me, my supervisee] would then facilitate the counseling session with me in the room to observe her, then she would have the opportunity to counsel on her own.

Respondent #45 (Survey, HS, FT)

I observe multiple lessons as the intern does me. I then will check on progress in all areas with unannounced checks.

Respondent #54 (Survey, ES, NT)

Critique refers to evaluating the supervisee, providing constructive criticism of skills, and reflecting on the supervisee’s performance in a one-on-one setting. Ten survey respondents included some form of feedback as an integral part of their philosophy.
I believe that it is my role to observe and provide feedback. When giving feedback, I like to follow the "3 glows and a grow" approach.

Respondent #20 (Survey, ES, NT)

When [my supervisee] got to the point of being alone, we would often talk about her sessions, pointing out ways she worked successfully with students, as well as areas where there could have been improvement. We tried to get at least one hour a week for such discussions.

Respondent #45 (Survey, HS, FT)

A daily dialogue is paramount in assessing strengths and weaknesses as well as determining if extra assistance and guidance is needed.

Respondent #67 (Survey, MS, FT)

The "competence" code refers to participants expressing desire for their supervisees to be able to function appropriately and/or achieve the ability to work independently in the school counseling setting. Rather than listing specific practices that lead to competence as the ultimate goal, five participants (3 survey, 2 interview) simply stated that it was their responsibility to ensure their supervisee can function with increased proficiency upon exiting the clinical experience.

My role in my mind is to help this [the supervisee] leave prepared to work independently.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

I do find that they come in one way, and they go out differently at the end of the semester. They’ve grown, and you can see that. Even though I’ve somehow made them highly skilled, I still look for ways to help them improve and grow beyond where they are.

Barbara (Interview, ES NT)

[My philosophy is] to help the student gain a full range of experiences to achieve competence in the school counseling profession.

Respondent #11 (Survey, ES, NT)

Standards. Five participants (4 survey, 1 interview) described adhering to standards such as the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) National Model (2005) and the VSCA Virginia Professional School Counseling Program Manual (Kaffengerber, Davis, Gilchrist-Banks, & Grothaus, 2008) as a major, if not their only, responsibility for site supervision.
I model, observe, critique, advise, and evaluate to assist the student in obtaining the skills to structure a successful guidance program to meet the needs of their students, school, and community. I promote the ASCA standards for a professional, balanced, and data driven guidance program at the elementary level.

Respondent #19 (Survey, ES, FT)

I took the class on supervision which was offered at [the supervising university]. I use the ASCA model along with the information gleaned from the class to guide me.

Respondent #38 (Survey, ES, FT)

I want to make sure that students are aware of national standards and norms.

Respondent #10 (Survey, HS, NT)

Two other participants mentioned adhering to the specific guidelines of the supervising university’s counselor education program as a part of their philosophies. For example, one survey respondent said the following:

I typically did what the individual college asked me to do as a supervisor of practicum students.

Respondent #69 (Survey, RT, NT)

**Site Supervisor Philosophies**

Site supervisors were asked about their philosophies of site supervision in both Phase I and Phase II. In Phase I, 53.2% of survey respondents indicated that they did not work from a philosophy. Of the 37 respondents who said they did work from a philosophy (46.8%), 29 chose to articulate a philosophy on the survey. In Phase II, 10 of the 12 (83.3%) were able to describe a philosophy of site supervision. Some of these philosophies were more concrete, as described in the previous section, and did not describe an adopted model or individual approach. The themes within this category, "lens" and "differentiation," however, did address these items. Interview participants were also asked to describe what had influenced their philosophy, and these findings are also provided.

**Lens.** The "lens" theme emerged from those responses that focused on how site supervisors exchange information with their supervisees and referenced specific theories or
approaches. These codes tended to be more philosophical and reflective in nature and less task-oriented. In some cases, elements of supervision models were present. This theme is comprised of six codes, with a total of 14 references: developmental (5), collaborative (2), multicultural (2), open (3), genuine (2), and discrimination (1).

The developmental code, for example, contains three references to that lens and also encompasses two codes for co-counseling as a step within a developmental supervision approach, similar to Thompson & Moffett's (2010) description of supervisees' reliance on the site supervisor in Stage 1 of the clinical experience.

I feel it needs to be engaging, an open dialogue. You're there to help support the student, to help encourage the student. But I feel it's a relationship. It's a two-way street. That's what I feel my philosophy is. You're there to help them and they're there to help you.
Kirsten (Interview, MS, FT)

Basically, I have very open, warm communication with the student, so the student feels safe trying new techniques and asking questions.

Respondent #38 (Survey, ES, FT)

The “genuine” code refers the site supervisors’ desire to be themselves with the supervisee and model that approach as a style to work with students in the school.

My philosophy as a site supervisor is I just try to be myself and try to show them who I am. I try to trust that they’re in the profession for the right reasons and that they seem to know that they’re going to do this. So I just give them that be yourself, because if you’re not yourself, people are going to read that real quickly, especially children. The genuine approach theory in counseling is my major, my main point.

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)

Differentiation. The “differentiation” theme incorporates elements of the philosophies that address why site supervisors may assign some tasks or experiences differently. Seven participants (3 survey, 4 interview) mentioned assessing their supervisee’s skill set before proceeding with supervision. These site supervisors chose to internalize a differentiated approach as a part of their philosophy. More information will be provided on this theme later in this chapter.

I look at the background of the intern or the practicum student, what they are interested in learning, what I have found to be the specific needs of the school and the students and [try] to come up with a good match.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

Knowing the areas that our counselors feel like they are missing some growth or some development helps me know what to focus on with any students who I supervise.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Philosophical influence. Interview participants were also asked if there were any academic resources or professional experiences that helped them develop their philosophies. There were a total of 10 responses to this question. While the comments were varied, two types emerged. Most referenced “professional development/collaboration” of some kind and others
Under the umbrella of professional development/collaboration, six codes emerged: professional organizations/leadership teams (3), professional development (2), connection to supervising university (3), workshop in supervision (2), having a mentor in the profession (2), own master’s program/theories learned (2). Below is a sampling of some of the more powerful comments:

I do go to the consortium universities [in this part of the state] they do a site supervisor training every year. I don’t go every year, but I’ve gone twice now. I find it useful. I have read some articles and supervising interns.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

I have a mentor in the profession. I highly recommend to all the students I’ve worked with that they have a mentor, and I have a mentor that I’ve worked with for 27 years that I talk about things with, run ideas by. That would be on the top of my list is having a good mentor.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

I’ve been involved in my professional organization here [locally] for a long time so I have other resources that I can call on and share with people and share with interns we have a lot of collaboration, professional collaboration, that’s very helpful. I’ve been on the board of the [local professional organization] for lots of years, and that involves counselors at every level all across four cities. And it’s really important. Having an opportunity to somehow be connected with the university who sends us their students.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

Under the umbrella of personal traits/experiences, few comments were mentioned more than once. Three individuals referenced their own work experience, and two individuals referred to their life/family experience. One individual referenced her willingness to try new things. Other single responses ranged from “none” to “everything.” For example,

Actually, pretty much my experience and my own kid [have developed my philosophy].

Amy (Interview, MS, NT)

It’s just being willing to learn new things, and know that that always going to happen. It’s always new things to learn, and that not to close your mind just because you have a degree and you don’t need to learn anymore.

Sharon (Interview, ES, NT)
Knowledge of supervision models. Although some participants in Phase I and Phase II referenced models as part of their supervision philosophy, their knowledge of models was low. Survey respondents were asked to indicate their familiarity with models as shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Level of Familiarity with Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1= Not at all</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2= Not much</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3= Slightly familiar</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4= Familiar</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5= Very familiar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest number of respondents (34.2%) indicated that were not at all familiar with school counseling models. The average rating of model familiarity, on a scale of 1-5, was 2.30.

Respondents were also asked to indicate with which models, if any, they were familiar (See Table 4). Because the majority of respondents indicated they did not possess knowledge of site supervision models, most respondents (61.6%) did not answer this question.

Table 4
Knowledge of Specific Models of School Counseling Supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model of Supervision</th>
<th>Response percentage and frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site Supervisors of Professional School Counseling Interns: Suggested Guidelines (Roberts &amp; Morotti, 2001)</td>
<td>42.4% (14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervising School Counselors-in-Training: A Guide for Field Supervisors (Studer, 2005)</td>
<td>30.3% (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals, Roles, Functions, and Systems Model (Wood &amp; Rayle, 2006)</td>
<td>21.2% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson &amp; Deuschle, 2006)</td>
<td>6.1% (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents were most familiar with Roberts and Morotti’s (2001) model, followed by Thompson and Moffett’s (2010) model and Studer’s (2005) model. Site supervisors in this study were least familiar with Peterson and Deuschle’s (2006) model, which focuses on tailoring supervision techniques to school counselors-in-training without prior teaching experience. Only seven respondents indicated that they were familiar with Luke & Bernard’s (2006) model, which adapted Bernard’s (1979, 1997) Discrimination Model to the school counseling field.

Evidence appeared in Phase II that showed that site supervisors may have been presented with information on supervision models at some point during their training, but they are not able to recall specific models names. When asked if she was familiar with any models for school counseling supervision, one participant said, “no,” but had mentioned some components of the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1979, 1997) during the question before:

[The information from the state convention] had something to do with this is the way we deal relate to each other. You know, these are the level that we deal address. You know, I will be mentor, I will be teacher. This is what can expect from me. Every time I have an intern or a practicum student, we sit and talk about it.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

Another participant mentioned the Developmental Model (Thompson & Moffett, 2010) when she described a site supervisor training session she attended, but when asked if she was familiar with any supervision models in the next interview question, she said, “no.” Just before being asked that question, she said the following:

They talked about a developmental model [in the training]. It sounded almost like elementary school kids, middle school kids and college kids or something. It was cute.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)
Even after the researcher probed her and reminded her that she had mentioned it, she said she did not have any knowledge of models. This serves as an example of a site supervisor’s inability to integrate information provided in training into her skill set. When two other participants were asked about models, they said that they may have received information as a part of their site supervision training but could not remember:

That was one of the things, too, that was one of those questions [on the survey] I was like ‘Oh, I'm not sure.’ One of the things maybe I could have read at some point in time, but I didn't remember. Nothing is sticking out in my mind. It might have been something that [the supervising university] provided for me when they did the supervisor handbook or something like that because I think there was something when they do the intern thing. But I probably glanced through it and unfortunately not devoted enough time to really say ‘Oh yeah, I remember they said that.’

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)

I did take a class about two summers ago on site supervision which was very helpful. But because I didn't get a student right away, I didn't implement what I learned so I feel like a lot of that was lost. I believe if I had gotten a student that year I could have implemented those things that I learned as a site supervisor. They probably did [talk about specific models]. But like I said, it's all lost. When I didn't get a student I...It's lost. I lost it because I didn't use what I learned. One thing about my learning, if I don't use it, I lose it.

Jennifer (Interview, ES, NT)

Of the 12 interview participants, 11 said they did not have knowledge of any models for school counseling supervision and, when asked if they thought having that information would be beneficial, answered affirmatively, using words such as ‘probably,’ ‘definitely,’ and ‘absolutely.’

One participant responded that she was familiar with the ASCA National Model (2005) and did not think that having information on any additional models of supervision would be helpful. Another participant felt like having knowledge of models ‘wouldn’t hurt.’ but she didn’t feel it was necessary:

Sure [having knowledge of supervision models] certainly wouldn’t hurt. I feel like I have enough experience that I have a confidence in being a good supervisor. So would I need
it? No. Would it help? Absolutely. It’s one of those things that certainly can’t hurt you. As an experienced person, I wouldn’t need it, if that makes sense.

Sharon (Interview, ES, NT)

Several participants expanded on the value of having knowledge of the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). One participant said having that knowledge would be “excellent.” Others went on to say the following:

I think [information on the Peterson-Deuschle Model] would be very beneficial. It would give us some kind of baseline to work with. I just run on my own thoughts about supervision. I didn’t really have a plan. It would have been beneficial if I had a plan. I think I could have helped my intern better.

Jennifer (Interview, ES, NT)

I think [information on the Peterson-Deuschle Model] would be wonderful. I think that meeting the needs of even those who have prior teaching experience would be important because counseling definitely a different role than a teacher.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Additionally, one participant explained that she did not feel prior teaching experience should be a factor in site supervision preparation:

I would definitely be open to any kind of information that can help me provide a better supervision experience, whether the supervisees have teaching experience or not.

Melissa (Interview, ES, NT)

**Site Supervisor Confidence**

In Phase I, site supervisor confidence was assessed using an adapted version of Studer’s (2006) checklist for the Standards of Counseling Supervision, which were developed by the ACES Supervision Interest Network in 1993. Site supervisors were asked to rate their level of confidence on Standards 5.1-5.9 under Conceptual Knowledge of Supervision Methods and Techniques and Standards 6.1-6.7 under Conceptual Knowledge of the Counselor Developmental Process. Table 5 illustrates response frequencies.
## Table 5
Confidence in Implementing Standards 5 and 6 for Counseling Supervisors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confidence in Implementing Standards</th>
<th>1= Not at all confident to 5= Very confident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am able to do</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perform the supervisor's functions in the role of teacher, counselor, or consultant as appropriate</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interact with the trainee in a manner that facilitates his/her self-exploration and problem solving</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand the trainee's roles and functions in the school setting</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand the supervisor's roles and functions in the school setting</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify the learning needs of the counselor</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarify my role as site supervisor</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negotiate mutual decisions regarding the needed direction of learning experiences for the counselor</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integrate knowledge of supervision with personal style of interpersonal relations</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understanding the developmental nature of supervision</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicit new alternative from trainees for identifying solutions, techniques, and responses to counselee</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjust supervision session content based on the trainee's personal traits, conceptual development, training, and experience</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engage in appropriate supervisory interventions, including role-play, role-reversal, live supervision, etc.</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state the purposes of supervision and explain the procedures being used</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use supervisory methods appropriate to the trainee's level of conceptual development, training, and experience</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use of media aids to enhance learning</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because of the lack of variance in these responses (the majority of averages fell between 4.36 and 4.63), response differences will be discussed in terms of the percent of responses indicating they feel “very confident” in a given standard. Over 50% of respondents indicated that they felt “very confident” in implementing all standards of supervision, with all but two standards having “5” as the most commonly selected response. These two standards were “demonstrate knowledge of various theoretical models of supervision” (23.1% of respondents rated their confidence as a 5) and “use of media aids to enhance learning” (25.6% of respondents rated their confidence as a 5). These two were the only two standards with averages below 4.35, at 3.55 and 3.95, respectively. While still the most popular response, 46.2% of respondents rated their confidence as a 5 for “use supervisory methods appropriate to the trainee’s level of conceptual development, training, and experience.” Three other standards had exactly 50% of respondents rate their confidence as 5 and thus had more varied responses, indicating a slightly lower level of confidence: “state the purposes of supervision and explain the procedures being used,” “engage in appropriate supervisory interventions, including role-play, role-reversal, live supervision, etc.,” and “adjust supervision session content based on the trainee’s personal traits, conceptual development, training, and experience.” Table 6 provides a summary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>(1) %</th>
<th>(4) %</th>
<th>(16) %</th>
<th>(37) %</th>
<th>(20) %</th>
<th>Answered question</th>
<th>Skipped question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>demonstrate knowledge of various theoretical models of supervision</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(20)</td>
<td>(25)</td>
<td>(18)</td>
<td>(35)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answered question</td>
<td>78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skipped question (of those who completed the survey)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Response Categories for Standards with Lower Indicated Confidence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Standard for Counseling Supervision</th>
<th>Percentage and frequency of respondent selecting 5= Very confident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tailoring supervisory methods/techniques to the individual</td>
<td>adjust supervision session content based on the trainee’s personal traits, conceptual development, training, and experience</td>
<td>50.6% (39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>use supervisory methods appropriate to the trainee’s level of conceptual development, training, and experience</td>
<td>46.2% (36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>specific technique/theory/model</td>
<td>engage in appropriate supervisory interventions, including role-play, role-reversal, live supervision, etc.</td>
<td>50.0% (39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>state the purposes of supervision and explain the procedures being used</td>
<td>50.0% (39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>demonstrate knowledge of various theoretical models of supervision</td>
<td>23.1% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>use of media aids to enhance learning</td>
<td>25.6% (48)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excluding the “use of media aids to enhance learning” standard, which is not the major focus of this study, the other five standards fall within one of two categories: “tailoring supervisory methods/techniques to the individual” and “specific technique/theory/model.” While site supervisors in this study were least confident in their ability to “demonstrate knowledge of various theoretical models of supervision,” they were most confident in their ability to “perform the supervisor’s functions in the role of teacher, counselor, or consultant as appropriate” (65.4% of respondents rated their confidence as a 5). This finding is interesting because the roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant are an aspect of the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1979, 1997), which is incorporated into several current models. One reason for this inconsistency is that site supervisors may feel confident with that supervision approach, but that they are less confident with labeling their techniques or matching them with specific model titles or authors, as discussed in the previous section.
When interview participants were asked how prepared they felt the first time they supervised a school counseling student, half (6) said they felt confident, four said they felt not at all prepared, and two gave responses somewhere in the middle such as "okay" or "I felt more confident than I actually was." Participants who expressed confidence said they relied on their previous professional experiences and their strong counseling abilities for preparation.

I felt confident because I'm a teacher. I mean, that's what I am, you know. So I don't recall any hesitancy.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

I think having, you know, not being fresh out of college and going right into a master's, having some life experience definitely helped me to guide someone else a little bit better. So I wasn't totally wet behind the ears. I felt pretty prepared, if I recall correctly.

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)

Other things that these individuals mentioned as contributing to their feeling prepared during their first supervisory experience were having supervisees in a previous work setting, observing other counselors in their department supervise students (mentioned by both the two middle school counselors who have multiple counselors in the building), staying informed of trends in the school counseling profession, feeling validated by school counseling leaders by being asked to supervise, having a highly skilled supervisee the first time, and receiving clear guidelines from the supervising university. Two of the participants who did not feel prepared separated their strong school counseling skills from supervision skills. They did not feel like work experience alone was enough to prepare them.

I would say [I felt] probably not all that prepared. I mean I'd been doing school counseling for 10 years or so by the time the first time I supervised someone so I felt like I had a good, solid knowledge of what I do--you know, my role, but not necessarily about how to go about supervising someone and helping them to have [meaningful] experiences.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

[I felt] probably not the most prepared, although I'm very comfortable in a counseling setting.
Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

In one case, the individual did not have the CACREP-required school counseling experience and was assigned a supervisee during her first semester as a school counselor by a non-CACREP counseling agency.

I was not as prepared [the first time I supervised a student] as I was this time because that was my first year as a counselor. The person who was supposed to be counselor that year became assistant principal and he was supposed to take that student on and they gave the student to me instead. That was pretty rough. I didn't think it was fair to me or to the student. Because I didn't know what I was doing.

Jennifer (Interview, ES, NT)

One individual clearly connected supervision skills and training. In hindsight, she did not feel that she was prepared now that she had more knowledge of supervision skills:

Probably I felt more prepared than I actually was. I felt like I had a good grasp of what my role in the school was. I felt pretty confident that I could give someone good exposure. As I've learned more about the role of a supervisor, I probably was less prepared than I thought I was.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

When asked about their current level of confidence and what factors contributed to that confidence level, 10 of 12 said they were 'fairly confident,' 'confident,' or 'very confident.' One participant described her confidence level as 'average' and another as 'average to above average.' Five participants attributed their confidence level to their school counseling experience and supervision experience. Other factors that contributed to confidence levels included personal experiences, help from other local counselors, and working with the supervising university for challenging students. Four participants, all non-teachers, mentioned that providing negative feedback was the only area that they felt they still needed to improve upon. For example,

I do feel slightly awkward and uncomfortable giving, I guess, negative feedback, for lack of a better word. Most of the time, I'd say I feel pretty confident and comfortable, but it is challenging to provide feedback to give someone feedback that they're not living up to maybe what they hoped to be or feel like they are.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)
When asked if there was anything they wish they had known prior to entering a supervisory relationship, one of the participants said that providing negative feedback was an area of supervision that she had worked to strengthen:

I wish I would have had at least some conversation and some role-playing about how to help with those that more critical, negative, how to give that kind of feedback. I think it went OK when I did it, but I think I would have felt more confident if I’d had some background with either the professor [at the supervising university] or with other counselors who have done it. That would have been the piece that would have made me feel a little bit more at ease before starting the supervision experiences.

Melissa (Interview, ES, NT)

The two skills most often mentioned as something they wished they had known were having knowledge of models (4 responses) and having some form of increased communication with the supervising university (5 responses).

I think when I was taking your survey, I do remember there were all these different models, and there was a question about these models, and I was, ÒOh, there's these models of supervision?Ó I wish I had known that prior.

Kristen (Interview, ES, FT)

Mostly, you need to know these models. At least have some sort of summary on a few sheets of paper, something that I can handle.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

In hindsight, I wish that I had reached out more to [my struggling student] professor and had a conversation more with her, because I think that that probably would have benefited the student more. I wish that I had a dialogue with the instructors prior to the placements to say ÒWhere would you like to see he or she grow?Ó

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Two participants wanted more information on how to meet their supervisees' needs based on their skill sets, including strategies for differentiation.

I guess, when that person comes on-site the first couple times, just to talk about their goal. Talk about what their interests are, what they know of their strengths and what their weaknesses are, and what they actually want to work on in this setting. To learn what do they actually want to learn, what do they need to learn more of and what do they feel confident in that they don't need to focus on so much in terms of skills? We talk about their philosophical background and their approach to counseling.

Sharon (Interview, ES, NT)
Other single responses included wishing they had known that students would not come prepared with classroom skills or knowledge of school protocol, the amount of work involved with being a supervisor, and what appropriate expectations to have for the student.

**Observed Trends in Supervisee Experiences**

In both Phase I and Phase II, participants were asked to characterize the professional backgrounds of their supervisees. In Phase I, the majority of survey respondents indicated that their supervisees were all non-teachers (60.0%). Figure 2 provides a breakdown of the professional backgrounds reported.

![Figure 2. Supervisees’ professional backgrounds. Eighty respondents answered this question; none reported not knowing their supervisees’ professional backgrounds. These numbers reflect fairly current trends since the mode year of the most recent supervisory relationship was 2012, as described in the introduction of this chapter.](image)

In Phase I, the trend of types of supervisee professional backgrounds resembles an exponential curve toward all non-teachers. The 12 Phase II participants reported slightly different patterns of supervisee backgrounds. The largest number of participants recalled supervising mostly non-teachers (5), followed by all non-teachers (4), half teachers and half non-
teachers (1), and mostly teachers (1). One participant could not recall the professional backgrounds of one of her two interns, but the most recent one did not have teaching experience. No participants recalled having only former teachers as supervisees. The professional backgrounds among the non-teachers were varied. Half of the interview participants had worked with supervisees without any work experience between their undergraduate and graduate programs. Others had been working a few years after college before beginning their master's degree. The professional backgrounds reported included some kind of clinical setting (e.g., grief counselor, social worker, 5), business (4), probation officer (1), and stay-at-home mother (2).

The following quotes provide a sample of the array of supervisee backgrounds mentioned:

Some of [the supervisees] have had teaching experience. The first couple that I had had some teaching experience. But more recently they all are young and with no teaching background.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

One [supervisee] was very, very good. She had had teaching experience and she seemed to have a really good handle on the needs of the students. The other two came straight out of - one came out of business and one came out of a clinical setting, so they had a little bit more difficult time fitting into the school setting.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

Actually, all four of the students that I have supervised have been students who have come directly from their bachelors to their master's with no teaching experience.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Two interview participants (both former teachers) felt that the large presence of non-teachers was associated with the removal of the teaching requirement for Virginia school counseling licensure in 1998. For example,

It does seem that the students that are coming out are a little less, I don't know if the word I should use is prepared. They just need a little bit more help in coming up with ways to work with the students and the teachers and the parents. A little bit more guidance, maybe, is a better way of putting it.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)
Many of the participants, however, did not become school counselors themselves until after the requirement was removed and could not comment on the previous trends. Some reflected on the professional backgrounds of their school counseling colleagues and noted that those who had been in the field longer tended to have teaching experience.

See, everyone that I have worked with has not had that requirement, because I didn't. I finished my undergraduate program in 2000. I have not had any interaction with anyone that has been required. Now, of course, the counselors that were already there prior to me being there, they were all teachers, but not after that.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

Only two of the interview participants who were non-teachers had been a school counselor prior to 1998; they had received their licenses in other states (Maryland and North Carolina) and then moved to Virginia. Three interview participants (all non-teachers) said they had not observed any trends in supervisees' professional backgrounds since the removal of the teaching requirement.

**Performance Differences among Supervisees**

Both survey respondents and follow-up interview participants were asked to indicate any observed differences in "performance" (survey) or "preparedness" (interview) in their supervisees based on their professional backgrounds. For reporting purposes, the term "performance" encompasses both performance and preparedness differences unless otherwise specified.

Phase I respondents, in survey question 9, were asked to rate the observed performance differences between teachers and non-teachers overall and on certain tasks. Table 7 illustrates the results.
Table 7

**Observed Differences between Former Teachers and Non-Teachers on Counseling Tasks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed Difference</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Response count (mean)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers?</td>
<td>22.9% (16)</td>
<td>20.0% (14)</td>
<td>15.7% (11)</td>
<td>28.8% (20)</td>
<td>12.9% (9)</td>
<td>70 (2.91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the classroom setting?</td>
<td>17.4% (12)</td>
<td>15.9% (11)</td>
<td>13.0% (9)</td>
<td>26.1% (18)</td>
<td>27.5% (19)</td>
<td>69 (3.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the small group counseling setting?</td>
<td>31.4% (22)</td>
<td>24.3% (17)</td>
<td>21.4% (15)</td>
<td>12.9% (9)</td>
<td>10.0% (7)</td>
<td>70 (2.49)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the individual counseling setting?</td>
<td>37.1% (26)</td>
<td>21.4% (15)</td>
<td>17.1% (12)</td>
<td>15.7% (11)</td>
<td>8.6% (6)</td>
<td>70 (2.37)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answered question 70

Skipped question (of those that completed the survey) 16

Table 7 shows that the largest observed difference between the performance of former teachers and non-teachers is in the classroom setting with a mean of 3.17. Always for “always” was the mode response for whether site supervisors observe performance differences in the classroom setting. The most commonly selected response in Table 8 was Never for “never” for whether site supervisors observe performance differences in the individual counseling setting with a mean of 2.97.
A cross reference between survey question 9 and survey question 24, which asks participants if they have prior teaching experience reveals some interesting trends, indicated that with all types of supervisees in every counseling setting, former teachers reported greater observed performance differences between teachers and non-teachers. Both groups rated the observed performance differences lower when they had only supervised non-teachers, yet former teachers still reported a higher rating of differences in every counseling setting, perhaps because they compared their supervisee to themselves or possessed preconceived notions that teacher would perform at a higher level. Non-teachers may not possess a frame of reference from which to rate a non-teacher if they have never observed a former teacher. Eight non-teacher respondents chose not the rate their supervisees’ performance differences for that reason, and only one former teacher chose not to respond. These data imply that participants may possess bias or skewed perceptions of their supervisees’ performance based on their own previous professional experience. Additionally, the even numerical distribution of the types of supervisees among non-teachers and former teachers show that, in this study, supervisees do not appear to be matched with supervisors based on the professional background. Table 8 and Figure 3 illustrate the relationship between participants’ professional background and their perceptions of supervisees.

Table 8

*Av**erages *Based on *Supervisee and Supervisor Backgrounds*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Averages of observed performance differences based on a scale of 1=Never and 5=Always</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Classroom</th>
<th>Small Group</th>
<th>Individual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervisee/Supervisor Professional Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisees are all former teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-teacher participant (1):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former teacher participant (0):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This participant stated she did not feel that she could make a comparison because the former teacher was the only supervisee she had.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervisees are mostly former teachers, some non-teachers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-teacher participants (2):</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former teacher participants (2):</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Supervisees are a mix of former teachers and non-teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Former teacher participants (5):</th>
<th>Non-teacher participants (6):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.50 4.20 3.50 3.30 3.20</td>
<td>2.50 3.30 2.57 2.67 2.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Supervisees are mostly non-teachers, some former teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Former teacher participants (7):</th>
<th>Non-teacher participants (23):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.24 4.43 2.57 2.71 2.57</td>
<td>1.88 2.07 1.63 1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eight did not respond</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>one did not respond</em></td>
</tr>
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Overall

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<tr>
<td>Overall non-teacher participants:</td>
<td>2.49 2.56 2.03 1.99</td>
<td>Overall former teacher participants:</td>
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**Figure 3.** Percentages of observed supervisee performance differences based on site supervisor professional background.
The data in Tables 7 and 8 comes from three sources: survey question 8 (Describe the professional trends, if any, you have observed as a result of the removal of the teaching requirement for Virginia school counselor licensure in 1998), survey question 10 (Please describe other performance differences, if any, you have observed between former teachers and non-teachers), and interview question 8 (Do you notice any differences in the supervisee's level of preparedness for the practicum or internship based on their previous professional experiences?). There were 53 responses to survey question 8, 42 responses to survey question 10, and 12 responses to interview question 8. Overlapping codes emerged during the qualitative data analysis process, and these results are presented in eight major themes of observed performance trends among supervisees with diverse professional backgrounds. These themes are as follows: observed performance trends among former teachers, observed performance trends among non-teachers, comfort/confidence level, learning curve, innate abilities, reflection on supervisees' own experiences, professional background differences and school level, and areas for supervisee improvement. Between two and six codes were assigned to each theme to depict the skill set of practicum or internship supervisees. Responses often contained multiple codes. Eleven (9 survey, 2 interview) participants noted that they did not notice any differences between teachers and non-teachers.

**Observed performance trends among former teachers.** Response trends emerged between participants who had prior teaching experiences themselves and those who did not. Those who had been teachers themselves tended to phrase their observations in terms of what non-teachers were lacking, whereas many of the non-teachers tended to phrase their observations in terms of the qualities that both teachers and non-teachers possessed. For example, the majority of former teachers, both from the survey and the interview, made statements such as 'non-
teachers lack classroom management skills. In contrast, non-teacher participants, particularly in the interview, were more likely to state teachers have better classroom management skills. In order to consolidate observations by meaning, trends for both former teacher and non-teacher supervisees were coded in terms of positive attributes. Four codes emerged for observed performance trends among former teachers (classroom skills, school system understanding, comfort/confidence level, and knowledge of developmental and behavior issues). Three interview participants simply stated that having teaching experience can only help supervisees but did not specify aspects that gave them an advantage.

**Classroom skills.** Both survey and interview participants mentioned classroom management and classroom guidance skills as the most pronounced difference between supervisees with and without teaching experience. Like points regarding classroom management and knowledge of how to compose a formal lesson plan were mentioned a total of 35 times (25 survey, 10 interview) either as an area of strength for teachers or an area of weakness for non-teachers. The importance of warm-up activities and intentionality was also stressed; participants explained that teachers come in to the clinical experience with these skills. Three participants also mentioned that former teachers do a better job with incorporating instructional technology and visual aids into their presentations. Some participants viewed classroom management as an imperative piece of experience to gain, with a few maintaining that competence can only be reached through teaching experience. The following quotes represent some of the most passionate responses on this issue:

Students with no teaching background often struggle with classroom guidance and small groups. They lack the leadership and discipline skills to manage a group of children.

Respondent #65 (Survey, RT, FT)

[Non-teachers have a] lack of classroom management skills, lack of basic understanding of how to plan a lesson, lack of foundational knowledge of activities in terms of how they
build upon each other to gain content knowledge, lack of differentiation of activities in
general and then lack of differentiation of activities for students.

Respondent #50 (Survey, MS, FT)

The actual counselors who were teachers, they are better with classroom management.
They're better with doing the classroom guidance portion. They really handle themselves
well on the first day of work because they know school climate and school
cultureÉ Every internship student that has been a teacher is actually, to me, more
competent coming in.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

Some participants expressed that the superviseeÉ ability to plan a lesson with some level of
intentionality puts that individual at an advantage. Former teachers enter the clinical experience
with that ability, whereas non-teachers have to be taught.

I can tell you, the interns IÉve had who were teachersÉ have very good classroom
management skills. Classroom management, I think, to the [non-teacher], they think it
just means keeping the class quiet. The classroom management, in my view, is much
more comprehensive concept. It involves the pacing of the teaching, what IÉm teaching,
how I am engaging the students, all kind of things. The students whoÉve been teachers
before coming, they know that. At least they have some experience with itÉ the ones who
come without teaching experience, thereÉs a real wide variety in their ability to pick that
up.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

[Teachers] are also trained to set an objective for the lesson and look for a specific
outcome, whereas we who have not taught have not really been taught that. It gives them
an advantage, especially since now schools are implementing Standard 7, which is going
to require us to set goals that are tied to achievement.

Respondent #8 (Survey, ES, NT)

School system understanding. Twenty-eight participants (18 survey, 10 interview)
mentioned that former teachers possessing school system knowledge was beneficial in their
preparation for the clinical experience. This subject included references to understanding how a
school operates in Éreal life.É One interview participant explained that real school operations
differ from the ASCA Model (2005), and teachers may have more realistic expectations of the
school setting. Understanding school protocol and ÉunspokenÉ rules can also be an advantage
upon entering the clinical experience.
Those that have a teacher background, the advantage is, like I said, is that they really do know school conduct. They know where things are. They know where to go for certain things. The [former teacher] I had in December, she was wonderful because she knew the type of call that goes to the main office. She just jumped right in. She was able to answer the phone, direct calls. She understood where things go in a school building. I find that all teachers that I have had in the past that come in, they know things that I think people without that background don't know.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

Understanding of the educational system, how an education system is set up, and you know, in our public school setting [non-teachers are] coming in without, I want to say, a global understanding of what they are coming in to. It's a different requirement, a different mindset that's needed in order to know how to effectively address what the students need.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

In general, lack of experience and understanding of "school systems" framework is a hindrance to both the counseling student and school supervisor.

Respondent #6 (Survey, ES, FT)

Included in school system understanding is building rapport with teachers. A large number of participants expressed that former teachers may have an easier time building these relationships in the school building. This experience is not always the result of the supervisees' actions, but rather, site supervisors speculated that teachers perceive non-teachers as not understanding teachers' roles in the school or the obstacles they face. Etiquette on when and how a student can be taken from their class for a counseling session, for example, is one of the more difficult soft skills for a non-teacher to acquire.

Well, the reason I feel so strongly that teaching experience is so important is I have discovered that the best model for working in a school counseling setting is working in a classroom with the teachers. They really need to know that you are their resource and that you are there for them. They tend to follow your suggestions. They tend to follow your advice better if they feel like you've been in the trenches with them, and the program that you are designing for them meet their specific needs. It's not the old fashioned counseling where you sit in your office and see kids anymore. You are out in the building, and participating in activities, and lessons. It's totally changed, your more crisis-oriented so I really feel that the relationships you develop with your teachers is over half of your job.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)
The knowledge of the interns about the dilemmas that teachers face daily is poor. Some had ‘authority’ issues harking back to their own adolescence. Most often their sympathies were with the student. It was often tough for [non-teachers] to be objective when necessary.

Respondent #72 (Survey, RT, FT)

I also think you might have an easier time building rapport with teachers because the teachers might feel like the counselors have a better understanding of where they’re coming from if they have served as teachers before.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

**Comfort/confidence level.** The terms comfort and confidence were used interchangeably in many contexts. Comments about non-teachers being anxious or nervous in certain aspects of the clinical setting are also included in this theme, but are discussed in terms of positive attributes of former teachers. Teaching experience was reported as making supervisees more comfortable or confident and less nervous or anxious in each instance it was mentioned. Contexts include being in the general school setting, speaking in front of large groups or to parents and other staff, and working with children.

**Comfort level with groups of children.** The most frequent comfort reference was concerning classroom comfort and presenting in front of large groups. Fourteen participants (6 survey, 8 interview) stated that former teachers appeared comfortable in the classroom or that non-teachers appeared uncomfortable in classroom, at least initially. Teachers are used to being in front of students on a daily basis, so they already possess large-group presentation skills. They are also accustomed to being with children, although it is the exposure to the same aged children as the clinical experience which participants felt helped supervisees the most. Teaching, however, is not the only way to gain comfort in working with children. Volunteering or parenting can also provide a level of exposure that elevates supervisees’ confidence.

[The non-teacher I supervised] was very uncomfortable with group guidance in a classroom, teaching the classroom guidance lessons. Because she had not had teaching experience, she felt very uncomfortable doing that.
Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

Those that have a teacher background, the advantage is they are comfortable doing presentations because they are really talking to students and getting in front of a group of people every single day. They are more comfortable because they have backgrounds.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

If you are not used to working with children, you are going to be a little anxious and nervous about working with a group of small children.

Jennifer (Interview, ES, NT)

Confidence in the school setting. The school building, in general, may be a source of anxiety or intimidation for a supervisee who has not had teaching experience. The 12 comments (7 survey, 5 interview) included in this code referenced overall confidence or school system/school building confidence. Non-teachers have less, if any, exposure to working with parents or school staff. Participants pointed out that comfort and confidence levels for former teachers tended to be higher when working with these adult populations, which are also school counseling constituents.

I have found that those that weren’t teachers are less confident when they come into a school building. But that is something that can’t be taught on the graduate level. For those teachers who actually came in that had the teaching experience, they had that.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

There is more of a comfort level with staff and parents in interns who have had teaching experience.

Respondent #73 (Survey, ES, FT)

Knowledge of developmental and behavior issues. Thirteen participants (9 survey, 4 individual) felt it is also important for supervisees to understand the developmental issues at each school level as well as the behavioral issues that may ensue. Several stated that direct exposure to children in that school level or age group can help the supervisee gain knowledge of children’s developmental needs. While supervisees can obtain this experience in ways other than teaching, supervisors view it as a disadvantage to have only textbook knowledge of child development.
The other thing that helps, understanding what is normal. You can read in a textbook child development. But really working with that age child, including raising your own children, the more experience you have working with the age group you're targeting, before you start your practicum or internship is a good idea.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

While it is not a primary focus of the traditional school counselor role, participants discussed the advantage teachers have in understanding discipline issues. Even if a school counselor is not the active disciplinarian, it is helpful, according to these participants, to understand behavior issues for counseling purposes and classroom management.

Discipline issues are not handled as effectively with non-teachers.

Respondent #34 (Survey, MS, FT)

Teachers with experience may have a better understanding of discipline issues because of their experience; however, teachers often struggle in that area as well.

Respondent #54 (Survey, ES, NT)

**Observed performance trends among non-teachers.** The theme of observed performance trends among non-teachers is comprised of three codes that represent their positive attributes (strong counseling skills, no risk of role confusion, and optimism) as well as two codes represent phenomena that facilitate their acclimation to the school environment (learning curve and innate abilities). Of note, while classroom management skills and knowledge of school operations were the most commonly observed strengths for former teachers, eight participants (6 survey, 2 interview) simply stated they did not view a lack of these experiences as a detriment. Both teacher and non-teacher participants observed areas of strength for non-teacher supervisees.

**Strong counseling skills.** Strength of counseling skills was the most common directly mentioned advantage for non-teachers. Six participants (3 survey, 3 interview) specifically acknowledged that what non-teachers may lack in classroom experience, they make up for with a solid foundation in individual counseling and group work techniques.
I think that they have a good, solid background in terms of counseling, counseling theories, counseling dynamics, group work but very limited background in terms of classroom guidance.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

I think people who enter the profession without having a teaching background, on average, are better at the individual sessions. Especially when those counselors have always wanted to pursue a career in counseling.

Respondent #11 (Survey, ES, NT)

**No risk of role confusion.** In addition to strong counseling skills, non-teachers do not have to overcome the obstacle of switching from a teacher role to a counseling role. Participants found that non-teachers were able to focus on social/emotional student needs and not be overly focused on the educational aspect of the school experience. Six participants (3 survey, 3 interview) felt that some former teachers had a difficult time with the transition, were more directive, and had to be reminded that counseling was now their primary function.

I think someone who has never been a teacher might have an easier time truly serving as a counselor and not bringing their teacher role into the counseling role. Even though I think there’s some level that they do overlap. It might be easier to establish yourself strictly as a school counselor.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Former teachers tend to have a hard time taking off their teaching hat and putting on their counseling hat. It is a different role from teaching and sometimes counseling students who have teaching experience have a hard time switching gears.

Respondent #29 (Survey, HS, NT)

[As a non-teacher] you’re not stuck still in the mindset of the education piece. That you can focus on the emotional needs and the counseling piece.

Melissa (Interview, ES, NT)

**Optimism.** Seven participants (1 survey, 6 interview) referenced non-teacher optimism.

One participant stated, *Innocence is a beautiful thing,* meaning that not having previous exposure to the school system can help a counseling student enter the clinical experience without
preconceived notions of what the issues are within a school. They have the potential to positively impact students and have not been jaded by any negative experience.

In some ways, maybe not being exposed to the public school setting, I could go in with a very optimistic view, if that makes sense, too, because you can get pretty jaded in a public school setting after a period of time. It’s a system. There’s politics to it. Sometimes there’s line you have to walk.

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)

Further, some participants felt that non-teachers more often bring new ideas, current trends, and information from recent literature to the clinical setting. In addition to being optimistic, non-teachers may suggest innovative approaches to situations that may be atypical for an educator who has not received training for a number of years.

Obviously [non-teachers] bring the current trends. The three that I worked with I learned a lot from. They bring in the current trends and they have a fresh perspective. They have a lot of energy, they have lots of ideas, they’re more current on, possibly, some of the readings and strategies and things that are out there. The kids can really relate to them. So I think there are a lot of advantages [to not having teaching experience].

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

I think the advantages [of not having teaching experience] are new ideas. With my intern, who did not have much of a foundation, she still was able to bring in different ideas. Everyone has a different experience to bring to the table and I think that’s what makes a team work so well is that you have those different experiences you can bring.

Kirsten (Interview, MS, FT)

**Learning curve.** Several participants expressed that non-teachers faced a steeper learning curve than former teachers but that school and classroom knowledge can be gained eventually. Opinions differed as to whether that gap could close during the clinical experience or within the first two years of employment, as licensure regulations imply. Two codes comprise this theme: the ability for classroom skills to be learned and school operations can be learned.

*Classroom skills can be learned.* Nine participants (4 survey, 5 interview) expressed feelings that classroom experiences can be learned, but it is advantageous to have them. While it
is possible for non-teachers to eventually acquire these skills, they must be taught and may not be fully developed until after the internship.

While I have observed some differences in some settings this is usually only short lived. I would say that non-teachers quickly learn behavioral management strategies that allow them to perform just as well as former teachers.

Respondent #20 (Survey, ES, FT)

Within a year, most school counselors are comfortable teaching lessons just like a classroom teacher.

Respondent #48 (Survey, MS, NT)

Classroom management is something that comes with time and all counselors learn as they gain more experience. As you work closely with teachers, and have more time at your school you truly are able to understand the life of a classroom teacher and that helps you be more sensitive to their needs. It does make it a little harder not being a teacher, but it is not impossible.

Respondent #53 (Survey, ES, NT)

School operations can be learned. Eight participants (5 survey, 3 interview) explained that non-teachers face a steeper learning curve for gaining knowledge of school operations.

While working as a teacher or a professional in an office can provide some level of knowledge with protocol and administrative tasks, each school is different, and the majority of understanding must be gleaned on-site. One participant described that learning curve as "slight," and that non-teachers can quickly acquire this knowledge.

I would say there is a slight learning curve with classroom management and understanding the general way the school works. I feel like that's something people learn fairly quickly.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

[For non-teachers] it's almost like being a brand new teacher for the first year. You don't know where things are, you really don't know how to work with parents the way you should. That's the stuff they really can't teach you, but something you have to get the job experience for.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

It seems that non-teachers have to play a little bit of catch up to get used to the school setting and issues unique to schools, but in time one cannot tell which counselors were teachers or non-teachers.
Innate abilities. The innate abilities theme refers to participants’ descriptions of supervisees’ natural giftedness in working with children as well as their individual talent for developing school counseling skills. Participants felt that certain skills and personal attributes cannot be taught. Two codes form this theme: natural ability to work with children and individual personality.

Natural ability to work with children. Participants described the natural talents that some supervisees demonstrate with children. Eight participants (2 survey, 6 interview) felt that these individuals were naturally inclined to be good with kids or developed this skill from non-teaching experience such as child rearing or leading a Girl or Boy Scout troop.

Some people have that skill almost God-given. Some people don’t. The ones that don’t, you can teach that part of it.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

I really feel it depends on the individual intern and comfort level of working with children. You can have other experiences of working with children, besides teaching, which would help with the transition into school counseling.

Respondent #47 (Survey, ES, FT)

Individual personality. Eight participants (2 survey, 6 interview) felt that it depended on the individual as to how quickly they became acclimated to the school environment. Participants shared stories of non-teachers who struggled and others who adapted well. Others felt as though it may not be teaching experience that creates or hinders a smooth transition but rather the individuals’ personalities.

[The former teacher I supervised] was absolutely wonderful. I think it was also his whole mentality is just a caring person. But because he was a guy the whole brotherhood and knowing how to with our male populations but having a softer side of [him] to work with female populations, he was just great. I can honestly say it may or may not have anything to do with him being a teacher.

Amy (Interview, MS, NT)
I believe it depends totally on the individual. I have worked with a number of students where teaching experience was not a hindrance [Not having teaching experience should not keep someone from the position.]

Respondent #56 (Survey, HS, FT)

There are some non-teachers who can handle it better and some who simply can't.

Respondent #50 (Survey, MS, FT)

**Reflection on supervisors’ own experiences.** The majority of interview participants (8) and some survey respondents (7) made reference to their own experiences of transition, for a total of 15 references. As previously stated, many of the supervisors' observations and beliefs regarding supervisees' previous professional experiences and performance in the clinical experience is closely tied to their own paths into the profession. Former teachers felt their teaching background was a great resource for them in several capacities. For example,

I have teaching experience and coming from a teaching family and background. I have found it extremely important when working with faculties, especially when designing behavior plans and going into the classroom it helps for counselors to have a teaching background.

Respondent #62 (Survey, ES, FT)

As a former teacher, I am biased toward the value of a school counselor having the experience of classroom teaching. This comes in to play when a student is complaining about a teacher's methods to his or her counselor, as well as when the counseling intern has to teach classroom guidance lessons.

Respondent #45 (Survey, HS, FT)

As a parent, long time former teacher, student, and now a counselor, I feel I have the ability to see all sides of an issue and place myself in everyone's shoes. I can relate to all parties.

Respondent #56 (Survey, HS, FT)

Many non-teachers did not feel their lack of teaching experience put them at a disadvantage and, in some instances, not having a teaching background was believed to be an advantage.

The teacher background can only add to it, but I don't see it as a necessity. Here I am. That's be weird if I said to you, Well you know, you really need to be a teacher before you do this. Because I wasn't, and I do well. I know I do well at my work.

Sharon (Interview, ES, NT)
As a school counselor without teacher experience, we are able to come into the profession looking through a different lens that is not clouded by teacher expectations.

Respondent #7 (Survey, HS, NT)

I’m glad I never had teaching experience because our role with kids is completely different and I don’t want it to be skewed.

Amy (Interview, MS, NT)

In a few instances, non-teachers did acknowledge some of the same disadvantages that former teachers mentioned but also reiterated their ability to learn those skills over time. For example,

The main issues I’ve had are not having training in classroom management and lesson plan development, as well as not having been exposed to some standard teaching philosophies that are referenced in schools. I have put in effort to learn these things on my own and from colleagues.

Respondent #63 (Survey, MS, NT)

Some survey respondents were very passionate and emphatic about their point of view, particularly when expressing the disadvantages for supervisees not having teaching experience. Some respondents who did not have teaching experience seemed to present their observations and beliefs in a more defensive tone. The comments in the interview, however, were more diplomatic in nature and less emphatic about one viewpoint over another. The interview participants, in general, more readily recognized the advantages of different professional backgrounds.

**Professional background differences and school level.** A theme emerged from the survey data regarding the importance of teaching experience with the elementary school level in particular. Some of the more passionate responses in favor of supervisees that have prior teaching experience came from elementary teachers. For example,

I think there are few professionals who make an effective transition into school counseling, and particularly elementary school counseling, never having taught. I won’t say it can’t be done but I do notice those without any teaching experience are at a great disadvantage in the classroom during lessons and in collaboration with colleagues.

Respondent #70 (Survey, ES, FT)
In order for find out more information about this relationship, a sub-question about whether having school exposure is more beneficial at different school levels (e.g., elementary, middle, high) was added to interview question 8. Several interview participants felt that because more classroom guidance is conducted in elementary schools, weaknesses in instructional skills would be more noticeable at the elementary level. One participant reported that elementary counselors are viewed as part of the instructional staff at an elementary school. Another stated that she felt like 90% of her job at the elementary school was being in the classroom, which she viewed as a distinct difference from middle and high school levels. One participant stated there was more crisis management and work with teachers at the elementary level and that teaching experience would help with those tasks. The following quote summarizes many of the sentiments participants shared regarding the benefits of teaching experience in the elementary setting:

In elementary counseling, school counseling in Virginia, and it depends on each school system, but one of the components is being able to teach classroom guidance. And if a person has not had any teaching background, they haven't had any classes in knowing how to put a lesson plan together, in general, how to do classroom management... Because [elementary counselors are] seen as part of the instructional staff. We're not seen or looked upon as part of the administrative staff. So we're considered a teacher. It's not like you're a counselor who does teaching, you are a counselor who is a teacher.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

One high school level participant acknowledged that the absence of classroom skills is also noticed at the middle and high school levels, and one elementary level participant felt that teaching experience may be even more important at the high school level because building rapport with adolescents may be more difficult without it.

One alternative explanation for the trend of elementary counselors feeling that teaching experience is so valuable is that elementary counselors are typically the only counselor in the building. Those elementary counselors with teaching experience may be operating on perceptions based on the skills supervisees possess, but they do not have direct contact with
veteran non-teachers. Participants at other levels mentioned that they have worked with non-teachers who appear to do well, but elementary counselors often do not have that opportunity.

**Areas for supervisee improvement.** In addition to participants’ observations and beliefs about the influence of professional backgrounds on supervisee preparedness for the clinical experience described earlier in this section, some participants provided anecdotes pertaining to how certain prior work experiences, or absence of, can negatively impact a supervisees’ performance. These examples, for both teachers and non-teachers, present issues that the supervisors felt should be addressed, either by themselves or university curriculum, in order for the supervisees to achieve competence. These items were mentioned once or twice and were included in the themes above.

One participant mentioned that some former teachers may wish to leave the classroom and may not join the school counseling profession for the right reasons.

I have seen former teachers looking for a way out of the classroom and they are just as poor as a school counselor as they were a poor teacher.

Respondent #69 (Survey, RT, FT)

Multiple participants worked with teachers who struggled with being too directive in individual counseling sessions or group work.

[A former teacher] was very directive in a lot of things that we did, when we did individual counseling, and that’s one of the things that I told her she really needed to work on. Telling students everything that they needed to do. I saw that as a problem for her.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

I do see a negative effect in group counseling from former teachers, as they tend to be more directive and activity oriented. It is harder for former teachers to adapt to letting the group counseling process work in itself.

Respondent #48 (Survey, MS, NT)

One participant worked with a former probation officer who struggled with her tone and needed to work on an appropriate demeanor when working with middle school students:
The intern we had with the probation background came at our students with that probation mode, and that was the kind of thing where we had to say a few times. Even some of our harder students might be needing you to take that face off. That part of it needed to be addressed. We did have to go about that in different ways, and sometimes get with the kids a bit more [after the interaction with the supervisee] just to kind of make sure that they were not on edge.

Amy (Interview, MS, NT)

Coming from the clinical setting also provided some obstacles, according to two participants.

One survey respondent commented that supervisees from the clinical setting do not focus on the larger scope of the job and need to be mindful that we are school counselors and not LPCs [Licensed Professional Counselors] in an agency setting. Additionally, students directly from an undergraduate program may struggle with appropriate rapport-building tactics, especially at the high school level, according to one interview participant. Two participants mentioned that having to stop and teach classroom skills distracts from the purpose of the internship and perfecting individual counseling skills.

It is an extremely time consuming part of the supervision, is to not so much re-teach, but to teach them things that they need as they’re coming in things that I feel like they should be coming to me with.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

Non-teachers must be taught (by the supervisor) classroom management, how to write and present lesson plans and utilize in-school educational resources. These activities take time away from direct counseling supervision.

Respondent #6 (Survey, ES, FT)

Two interview participants commented on professionalism differences between teachers and non-teachers and stated that basic items such as appropriate attire need to be covered with non-teachers. Lastly, one participant explained that if non-teachers are not enthusiastic about working with children, it can affect their performance. These examples segue into the final results section on supervision practices, which provides site supervisor insight into how school counselors-in-training can achieve competence despite differences in prior professional experiences.
Supervision Practices

Two themes emerged regarding supervision practices. Much of these data come from interview question 9 where interview participants were asked to describe how, if at all, they differentiate their approach to site supervision based on the supervisees’ prior professional experiences. In addition, some components of other survey and interview questions that referenced suggested supervision practices are incorporated into this section. Participants, primarily those from Phase II, addressed supervision practices in terms of what is within their control and what may need to be addressed by the larger counselor education system. Accordingly, the two themes for supervision practices are direct supervision techniques and system-wide practices for addressing school experience deficits.

**Direct supervision techniques.** In Phase II, interview participants were asked to describe how, if at all, they differentiate their approach to site supervision based on the supervisees’ prior professional experiences. For the participants who did differentiate, the interviewer asked what specifically they do differently. This section assesses this study’s primary purpose of investigating the current methods by which site supervisors address supervisees’ professional differences and resulting preparedness levels.

Overall, slightly over half of the 12 interview participants (2 former teachers, 5 non-teachers) said they do not assign tasks to supervisees differently based on prior work experiences. Some have only worked with non-teachers, so they have not had the opportunity to work with someone with a teaching background; others deliberately chose not to differentiate. Two in particular (one former teacher and one non-teacher), believed in assigning supervisees tasks according to the responsibilities of being a school counselor.

I assign them tasks based on my job, not on their professional background. It's like, "OK, I'm going to throw you into the pond and you're going to swim." Yes they will
teach classroom guidance and I will be there, but then after awhile I won't be. Just like they would be doing a student teaching job. If it's something that they don't know about, then I'm going to teach them. I'm not just overseeing what they're coming with. I'm actively involved.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

I actually treat every single one of them the exact same way. I don't differentiate between any experiences that they've had in the past. When they come into the building, I treat them all as though they don't know what I do. They don't. Even the teachers don't. The teachers have a perception of what we do as school counselors, but a lot of times, 99 percent of the time, it's wrong. I treat them all the exact same way.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

Both of these participants choose not to differentiate their approaches based on prior work experiences, but for different reasons. Linda, a former teacher, felt it is more effective to use a “sink or swim” method whereas Theresa, a non-teacher, chose not to differentiate as a way to help teacher supervisees overcome incorrect perceptions of the school counselor role. Both view the supervisee with a background different from their own as having the deficit, yet they both believe in using a homogeneous approach to supervision.

In the interview, those who did differentiate based on previous work experiences were more often teachers (3 former teachers, 2 non-teachers). In fact, three out of the five former teachers differentiated their approach in some way. Most felt it was important to “hone in on” classroom skills and offer more shadowing opportunities. Specific objectives/tasks that participants strove to cover with non-teachers included assessing needs/goals at the start of the clinical experience, observing teachers, assigning more classroom lessons (including letting the supervisee use existing lesson plans to start), introducing classroom management and teaching techniques, monitoring non-teachers more closely, shadowing longer before assigning independent tasks, building confidence, helping the supervisee develop appropriate tone and demeanor, providing additional feedback, spending more time providing basic school information, discussing dress code and other professionalism items, and introducing them to
school culture through full, immediate immersion. These techniques are varied; some participants mentioned using only one and others mentioned that they use several. For that reason, these techniques were not coded; instead, the above is a comprehensive list of the techniques mentioned. The following examples provide details for some of the listed strategies:

If they haven't had any classroom experience I try to get my interns into the classroom watching teachers, um, so that they get a better feel for different teachers and the strategies they use to manage their classrooms.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

I kind of size up if the person needs...if it's clear that they don't have a basic understanding of some of their basic professional responsibilities, or a clear understanding of how the school works, I'll spend more time on just letting them shadow me and going over the basics—then, sit down with them at the end of the day and process some of what they saw, and help explain why I did things the way I did or why a teacher did something the way they did. Also, making sure that I introduce them to administration, secretaries, custodians, bus drivers just so that if they don't have a clear understanding of the different roles that people play and how those are integrated, maybe that becomes more clear through observation.

Libby (Interview, ES, NT)

Some of the stuff I also do is a lot of, "Hey, this is what you should wear. We're on time to classes." I don't know, sort of office management kind of stuff to make sure they're on the right track. I know I had a student who would come in and carry her coffee mug around, and I said, "You know, that doesn't look very professional. Why don't you drink your coffee when you're in the office, and then, when you're not, just wait until you get back." Another one had sunglasses on her head like a headband— I've done that, but I wouldn't do it at work. I can't even remember addressing it with the teachers. They already know.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT) continued to elaborate on specific classroom skills she teaches to her supervisees without teaching experience. She works with them on how to open a classroom guidance lesson:

I usually have them come up with a way of getting the kids' attention and then teaching them to wait until things are quiet before you give an instruction. I usually teach them when you give an instruction, find out from one of the students what you said. "OK, so what are we doing," that kind of thing. There's a variety of little techniques like that that I encourage them to do. Then, initially, when I'm watching them, I'll compliment them when they do it. "I liked how you did that. You waited. And then you had to wait. That's
OK." I think that's hard for new teachers to wait until they're quiet before you start talking.

She teaches supervisees how to implement breakout group activities and engage all the students in the class:

One of the things we do in our school when you ask a question is to have them turn to the person next to them and offer some ideas and then pair up with, maybe, four people pair up and exchange those ideas and then get feedback from the whole group, as opposed to just having one volunteer put their hand up and answer the question. We teach them that technique, because it's involving more children and everybody has to think. You don't have to rely on that smart person in the back to come up with all the answers. I think, without knowing the kids, we all adore the smart person who knows all the answers, but you don't want that person to be answering all the questions. That's another piece I point out to them. Who are you calling on, and how are you dividing that up, and off what basis? The ones who have been teachers already know that kind of stuff.

She also covered how to differentiate a lesson plan to meet the needs of all learners in the classroom:

The other piece is I teach them how to take a task and make it at least three different levels. You have the average level that most of the kids will do. You have a higher level where your kids who can go the extra mile can be challenged. Then you have a level that is just getting out the basic facts for your students who have difficulty with this kind of work. You know, teaching to all learners.

Barbara, in particular, was extremely forthcoming and detailed in her descriptions of how to acclimate a non-teacher to the school and classroom environment. Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT) also provided several examples of classroom skills she finds important. She stressed the importance of student buy-in:

I'm elementary school, like I said, 90 percent of what I can do is classroom guidance. I'm really looking to make sure that they've got those capabilities and skills that they need to hone in on. That would be my first priority with my interns because otherwise the kids can eat you up alive. I tell them it's like being on a stage. You have to have their attention. You have to have their buy-in to what you're doing or else they will bolt. You'll lose it quickly. It's very hard to get it back once it's lost.

She described how she eases non-teachers into the classroom:

Some of them I'll start off with giving them my lesson plans. I model it for them and then I let them try to do it on their own. I'll watch it and then I try to step away, so they can not
feel like I'm breathing over their neck. Whether or not they can form their own lessons at that point in time, I think, comes with a little bit more experience. Almost by the time that's done the semester is over, unfortunately.

For Barbara and Jasmine, classroom skills require the most attention for the non-teacher.

Another participant described a different approach:

The [non-teacher] intern did a little bit more individual one-on-one counseling because she'd had a lot of experience with that. The other two [who were former teachers], I planted more in the classroom with some group guidance and with testing.

Frances (Interview, ES, FT)

Frances' approach was to assign tasks according to the supervisees' areas of strength. The non-teacher, she disclosed, had a school psychology background, so she did not emphasize testing with her because of her extensive experience in that area. However, she purposefully did not place her in the classroom more often. She gives supervisees a little bit more leeway depending on their prior professional experiences. As to whether clinical experiences have the potential to remedy the absence of prior school system knowledge, one participant stated:

It really has to do with the internship supervisor. It depends on what that internship supervisor's goal for the intern is. We're in the classroom, they're walking with me to the library. They're walking with me to the main office. It just takes a really good supervisor to have them walk around and do everything with them. It really just depends on who the supervisor is.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

Participants that treat all supervisees the same regardless of previous work experience listed some supervision techniques that they feel are beneficial for all students. These included being connected at the hip with the supervisee while they shadow; continuously talking with the supervisee and processing the observed activities; providing handouts, guidebooks, and curriculum books containing school information; including them in conversations with various staff members within the building (e.g., observing supervisor's conversation with the custodian about how tables should be set up for a program); explaining all staff members' roles and
responsibilities; and immersing the supervisee in on-the-job experiences that include tight spots.

Of course they absolutely follow me around the building—my interactions, my personal interactions of what I have to do talking with teachers, making my rounds to pick up information about citizens of the month. Real practical things.

   Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

I let them jump in feet first with their eyes wide open to everything that I do and all the components of it—on-the-job training is the best way, is just to come in.

   Sharon (Interview, ES, NT)

I don't think I really change to accommodate. I think I just need to make sure that they know, when they are in the school, their role is now school counseling and taking care of these kids and doing what needs to be done with and for this student body.

   Amy (Interview, MS, NT)

Kirsten (Interview, MS, FT) felt particularly strong about providing continuous processing with her supervisees instead of waiting for a designated time.

I know everyone approaches their supervision differently. We definitely talk as we went. We would have a student in and the [supervisee] would be in there, and we would talk about it. "How did that go, what did you think?" We would go to a team meeting and we would talk about that team meeting afterwards... instead of waiting until the end of the week, or the end of the day. We would still do that, but I just thought it was better to talk as we went. Mainly because my own supervising experience, that's what my supervisors did and I felt that was very beneficial for me. It's an open forum for both because it's not just her learning from me. It's me learning from her because maybe she can bring new ideas for me.

Kirsten emphasized mutual sharing of information. She had only one intern, so the process was still new for her. She expressed gratitude for the experience and did not profess to have all the answers, and, in fact, wanted feedback on her own performance. With only one intern, she had not yet developed a pattern of differentiation, but she felt that, based on what she had observed with other supervisees assigned to counselors at her school, her department did not assign tasks differently based on previous work experience. However, some supervisees were more comfortable volunteering for additional independent tasks sooner than others. This difference
relates to the "innate ability" theme in the previous section. Some individuals, regardless of their professional background, acquire the skills required for school counseling at a faster rate than others. An overall common theme, from both those who differentiate and those who do not, is to give supervisees "actual work" instead of "busy work" and expose all students, regardless of their prior experiences, with all aspects of the job.

**System-wide practices for addressing school experience deficits.** As a part of interview question 8, participants were asked how they feel the lack of teaching experience that some survey participants acknowledged should be addressed. While some pointed to direct supervision techniques, many responses pointed to items outside the supervisory relationship and addressed what the larger counselor education system can do to prepare supervisees. Unsolicited participant commentary from the survey and other interview questions regarding counselor education programs are included in this theme as well. For example,

Unfortunately, graduate school counseling programs do not appear to address these shortcomings [of understanding the "school systems" framework and classroom management] in preparing their students.

Respondent #6 (Survey, ES, FT)

The most popular suggestion for how to address the deficit skills for non-teachers (mentioned by four interview participants) is for the university to include a full course on classroom skills as a part of the curriculum. A participant explained that this type of course could address such items as

classroom management skills and learning how to address the students. There are different models that teachers learn; something like the Tessa Model and Blooms Taxonomy. Things that I would have never heard of had I not gone to the public school setting. But it teaches them good classroom management skills. The idea of walking around the classroom, addressing children by their names, learning differentiation and things like that, definitely that would be a bonus…that would probably be something that they could take even prior to or at the same time that they're going into the elementary setting for their internships and stuff.

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)
Other suggestions call for more information on classroom management to be incorporated into the university coursework and for the teaching requirement to be reinstated. Each of these suggestions was mentioned by two people, one survey respondent and one interview participant.

I think that they could do more in terms of embedding that in the coursework in the college, doing a better job about teaching about classroom management and having the students, maybe, even do mock or practice lessons with their peers just to get them more comfortable in front of the classroom and groups of students.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

I think school counselors should be required to have teaching experience. In my opinion counselors are much weaker in the school setting than they were before 1998.

Respondent #71 (Survey, ES, FT)

Additional suggestions for university mandates were mentioned only one time: work with a classroom teacher for a semester as an instructional assistant, workshop at the university, exposure to certain aspects of the school counselor role, and increase the amount of time in the practicum and internship.

Six interview participants also expressed that they would like more interaction from the university supervisor, including more frequent visits to the school site, clear expectations, and consistent communication.

I think that it's really valuable, some of the [university] supervisors are more involved in terms of coming out to the school, and seeing the intern, in the school setting… university supervisors, I should say, don't come out and actually see them… In terms of helping students have a well-rounded experience. I think it's beneficial for them to come and observe.

Tracy (Interview, ES, FT)

I think that there should be probably a little bit more feedback. I would say from the university supervisor. You know, there's not enough timing, and everybody's busy. But making sure that I have, you know, if there's someone that I have a gut feeling that maybe they're just not into this, or maybe this just isn't for them. Being able to have a little bit more consistent communication with a university supervisor.

Jasmine (Interview, ES, FT)
It used to be that the university supervisor would come to my site and meet with a student and I. Then would come another time and observe a lesson, and sometimes come a final time but that was less likely to happen. Pretty much now I never see them. When that first started happening, I actually said something. Well, I questioned it. I just said that I was surprised by that. The first thing to go was the watching the classroom lesson, and the next thing to go, was having any face-to-face with the person.

Barbara (Interview, ES, NT)

Participants also mentioned supervisee assignment practices. One supervisor mentioned that she was assigned a supervisee almost every semester and needed a break, and two mentioned they had been trained and ready but were not assigned a supervisee when they wanted one. One participant pointed to her school division’s supervisee assignment practices:

[My school division] really only [asks] the counselors who have had the teaching background [to be a supervisor], because you have to know how to write a lesson. How to write differentiated activities. How to build upon that lesson for the next lesson. A counselor who never had that experience, you can learn that over time, but you have to be able to know what all of those things mean.

Kirsten (Interview, MS, FT)

This practice suggests a lack of faith on the part of school counseling leaders that classroom skills can be learned in a clinical experience or during a provisional licensure period. It perpetuates the assumption that only school counselors with teaching experience could successfully impart classroom skill information to future school counselors. The data illustrated in Table 9, however, demonstrate that this practice must not be widespread because supervisees in this study are equally assigned to supervisors with and without teaching experience.

Participants also suggested actions the school counselors-in-training can take in order to prepare for the school counseling role. These suggestions included substitute teaching, working with a similar age child through volunteer experiences, raising children, and getting a mentor in the profession to work with throughout their career. Counselor education programs can convey these suggestions to school counselors-in-training as they enter the program. No system-wide suggestions were made for effectively transitioning former teachers into the school counseling
role. Of note, three survey respondents (all middle or high school counselors) mentioned that the universities we doing a great job preparing students. For example,

I have noticed these students are just as prepared as I was. The counselor prep programs are doing a wonderful job of preparing them.

Respondent #24 (Survey, HS, FT)

It is noteworthy that this respondent was a former teacher because this response is inconsistent with some larger themes within these data. Conversely, one interview participant states:

I don’t know that [knowledge of school operations] can actually be addressed in a graduate program. There are so many things about being a school counselor that you actually have to experience the first day on the job.

Theresa (Interview, HS, NT)

This comment emphasizes the importance of the clinical experience and the site supervisor’s role in the supervisees’s skill development. Two interview participants chose to end their interview by stating how rewarding they find the experience of supervision. One shared the following:

I’ve been very happy with the students that I’ve received from numerous colleges here locally, and even the students that come in to do their...what is the thing before their practicum...observation... It gives me really a sense of being helpful. You know, us counselors like that feeling, that you can see whatever their direction, whatever they want to do, whether it ends up in school setting or not, that's good... And when I see, you know, they get a job as a school counselor, that just makes me smile. That makes me very happy.

Linda (Interview, ES, FT)

While site supervision is a great deal of work for a school counselor, no participants remarked that they would not want to take on this role again in the future.

**Synthesis of Findings**

The findings in the results section provide information on a number of topics affecting the supervisory relationship in the school counseling clinical experience. When cross referencing several quantitative items, trends revealed some overarching phenomena within the school counseling profession.
Training and Philosophy

The researcher linked survey responses for whether or not participants had received formal training ("yes" or "no") to survey responses for whether the participants worked from a philosophy ("yes" or "no"). Of those who answered both questions, two-thirds of the 27 survey respondents (18) who said they had received training also said they worked from a philosophy of supervision. Conversely, only one-third of the 45 survey respondents (15) who said they had not received training also said they worked from a philosophy of supervision. This demonstrates a strong link between receiving training and developing and working from a philosophy, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Relationship between supervision training and working from a philosophy.

Training and Confidence

As mentioned in the results section, site supervisor confidence is measured in the study by an adapted version of Standards 5 and 6 of Studer's (2006) checklist for the Standards of Counseling Supervision. The researcher cross-referenced the individual confidence averages with whether or not the survey respondent received training. Individual confidence averages, as measured by the adapted checklist, ranged from 3.06 to 5.00, on a scale of 1 to 5. Of those that
indicated they had received training, the average was 4.65; however, the average for those who had not received training was 4.23. In relation to the lack of variance for the individual confidence averages, the difference for those who had training versus those who had not is noteworthy. This difference could also be related to years of experience; those who have received training had an average of 15.6 years whereas those who have not reported an average of 12.4 years.

**Training and Model Knowledge**

The differences between survey respondents who received training and those who had not were even more pronounced when examining the respondents' knowledge of models. While the overall average rating for knowledge of models (2.30) was lower than the overall average level of confidence (4.40), those who had received some training rated their knowledge of models as an average of 3.04 whereas those without training rated it as an average of 1.86. While Phase II did reveal that even those who had received training had some problems with recall (which may account for the lower numbers in specific model identification), those who had received training clearly possessed greater model knowledge.

**Confidence and Model Knowledge**

A relationship also exists between confidence and being familiar with models of school counseling supervision. Those who rated their familiarity with models as higher also tended to have higher overall confidence levels. While some participants felt confident without possessing model knowledge (e.g., two participants rated their average confidence level as 5 and rated their familiarity with models as 1), when grouping responses based on model familiarity ratings, steady increase in confidence occurred, as illustrated in Figure 5.
Although a relationship does exist, it is, again, important to note that confidence ratings were very high across participants (4.40 overall) and model knowledge was low across participants (2.30 overall). The average confidence level for a participant with little to no familiarity with any models of school counseling supervision was 4.25.

**Confidence and Philosophy**

Additionally, whether an individual chose to work from a philosophy appears to be related not only to supervision training but also to confidence level. The average individual confidence level for a survey respondent who does not work from a philosophy was 4.27 whereas the average individual confidence level for a survey respondent who indicated they do work from a philosophy was 4.54. Working from a philosophy could be a function of training, which also increases confidence.

**Confidence and Site Supervisor Professional Background**
Slight confidence differences also existed between participants who are former teachers and those who are non-teachers. The average individual confidence level was 4.36 for non-teachers and 4.44 for former teachers. This small difference of .08 could be explained by the difference in years of experience between non-teachers (12.2) and former teachers (15.5), which is likely a function of the change in licensure practices in 1998. While these data cannot determine causation, one may expect that school counselors with more years of experience may possess slightly more confidence in supervision skills.

**Training and Beliefs**

Trends emerged between whether a participant reported receiving training and how they scored the observed differences between supervisees with and without training experience. Participants who had not received training rated the overall observed difference as slightly lower (2.86) than those who had received training (3.04). These numbers, however, hover near the average for observed difference, which was 2.91 out of 5. In general, beliefs regarding the overall difference between teachers and non-teachers were moderate (close to the mid-point of 3), but those who received training seemed to have average ratings hovering closer to the mid-point than those without training, as illustrated in Figure 6.
Figure 6. Observed differences between teachers and non-teachers based on supervisor training.

The participants' own professional backgrounds do not appear to be a factor in this comparison because no differences based on training and respondents' prior work experience appear to exist. The numbers of former teachers and non-teachers reported receiving or not receiving training in site supervision are proportionate; former teachers made up 46% of the both "training" and the "no training" groups.

Philosophy, Beliefs, Practices, and Training

As mentioned in the results section, seven participants across Phase I and Phase II identified differentiation as a primary component of their philosophies. These individuals felt it was important to consider the supervisees' professional background in their supervision approach. For Phase II participants, the three who included differentiation in their philosophy had received training and indicated that they differentiated their approach to supervision based on the supervisees' prior work experiences. All three acknowledged a learning curve difference between former teachers and non-teachers in the clinical setting. The four participants from Phase I had fewer similarities. Two of the survey respondents who reported the strongest beliefs
about non-teachers were in this group, both in open response and in the observed difference score. Respondent #71 believed that school counselors should be required to have teaching experience, and Respondent #44 believed non-teachers lack skills in every area and possess “book smarts” but little else. Neither of these participants had received training. The other two survey respondents expressed more moderate beliefs, both in terms of open response and observed difference score; one had received training and the other had not. The one who received training also incorporated “a developmental approach” into her philosophy. Based on this information, it seems that philosophy does reflect the participants’ beliefs, whether strong or moderate. All of these participants, both Phase I and Phase II, who had received training reported more moderate beliefs that included the non-teachers’ ability to acquire classroom skills. One explanation for this trend is that the information provided in training may shape beliefs and philosophy whereas those who have not received training may develop beliefs and philosophy based on their personal experiences.

Beliefs, Practices, and Site Supervisor Professional Background

One of the most prominent participant characteristics is their previous professional background and whether the participants themselves were teachers or non-teachers. This factor has acted as a covariate within the findings related to site supervisor beliefs and practices. As described in the results section and illustrated in Figure 4, trends emerged between the participants’ professional backgrounds and their beliefs regarding differences between teachers and non-teachers on different skills. The largest observed differences were related to classroom skills, yet participants who were former teachers were more critical of these skills than participants who had not been teachers. In Phase II, former teachers rarely acknowledged any benefit for non-teachers or any hindrance associated with teaching experience.
Phase II of the study also addressed site supervisors’ specific practices employed to help supervisees develop school counseling skills and whether they differentiated their approach based on their supervisees’ prior professional experiences. While the responses were generally divided, former teachers were slightly more likely to differentiate than non-teachers, most often concentrating on the absent classroom skills. Former teachers were, ironically, more bothered by the need to ‘teach’ classroom skills to school counselors-in-training and often made system-wide suggestions for how to have non-teacher supervisees arrive on the site of the clinical experience with these skills already in place. Participants without a teaching background were less likely to identify a deficiency, and may, therefore, not feel that supervisees without teaching experience need special treatment.

**Synthesis**

The relationships described in this section are summarized in Figure 7. Training is the variable related to all other quantifiable variables: working from a philosophy, possessing knowledge of models, having higher confidence, and having moderate beliefs about non-teachers’ abilities. Some of these other variables are also related to each other, as described in the paragraphs above. Participants’ professional background and years of experience served as covariates that may affect some of these relationships in indirect ways as previously explained. The qualitative results from Phase II supported the quantitative results from Phase I.
Figure 7. Relationships among variables. Training, as the primary independent variable, is represented in blue; other variables (confidence, philosophy, model knowledge, and beliefs) are represented in yellow, the covariates (professional experience and supervisor professional background) are represented in orange, and practice, as the dependent variable, is represented in pink. Practice is influenced by the other variables.

These data suggest that receiving site supervision training is related to some obvious elements such as knowledge of models and confidence but also to some less obvious elements such as whether a site supervisor works from a philosophy of supervision. These findings provide additional evidence that site supervision training leads to intentional supervision practices that could benefit school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds.
V. Discussion and Conclusion

Summary

These data have revealed several themes within the dynamics of site supervision. This study analyzed site supervisors’ training, philosophies, confidence, beliefs, and practices. Previous research left questions regarding how current site supervisors approach supervision. The extent to which site supervisors possess knowledge of training techniques that could help them meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from different professional backgrounds was unclear up to this point. This detailed investigation of site supervisors’ approaches to facilitate the development of school counselors-in-training with diverse professional backgrounds attempts to answer the following questions:

1) How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?

2) How prepared are site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?
   a. How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?
   b. To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?

3) What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?

The following paragraphs elaborate on the extent to which the research questions above have been answered.

Research Question #1

The first research question, “How do site supervisors understand supervision in schools?” assesses the site supervisors’ understanding of their role as articulated by a philosophy. Over half
of participants in Phase I, survey respondents, said they did not work from a philosophy of supervision when overseeing a clinical experience. Not everyone that indicated they worked from a philosophy described that philosophy. Only one-third (33.7%) of survey completers were able or willing to articulate a supervision philosophy. Interestingly, a higher percentage of site supervisors indicated they worked from a philosophy in the interview (83.3%) than on the questionnaire (46.8%). One reason for this finding could be that those who volunteered for the follow-up interview felt more confident about their supervision skills, which will be discussed in the next section. Another explanation is that they were more likely to attempt to describe one to please the interviewer, as described in the limitations.

The themes that emerged from the 39 total philosophies reported revealed that most site supervisors think of their philosophy of supervision in terms of tasks that need to be completed, particularly among those who had not received training. There were a total of 62 references to codes falling under the "responsibility" theme which contrast the 14 references fell under "lens" and 7 references under "differentiation." According to Martin and Cannon (2010), a supervision philosophy reflects an understanding of supervision from training and practice that drives the clinical experience. These data reveal that there may be some confusion in the field concerning the components of formal supervision philosophies. Three respondents said they did not work from a philosophy; however, one of those three did proceed to describe an approach similar to some other counselors' appropriate philosophies. It is possible that some participants may not have understood the meaning of a "philosophy of site supervision."

For over a decade, researchers have been calling for site supervisors to be surveyed to determine how they approach site supervision and the theoretical framework from which they work (Nelson & Johnson, 1999). According to the ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision
(2011), site supervisors should be able to articulate a philosophy of supervision as a result of training. In this study, interview participants who worked from a philosophy were able to describe elements that influenced them. Some of them reflected on formal training, and others reflected on less formal influences such as having a mentor in the profession. Detailed information regarding site supervisors' level of supervision training provided further insight into the participants' ability to articulate a philosophy of site supervision that meets the criteria Martin and Cannon (2010) describe.

In answering research question #1, it appears that most site supervisors understand school counseling supervision in terms of a list of tasks that must be completed. Some participants shared an intentional approach utilizing models and differentiation; however, others were more concrete in their understanding and listed responsibilities from the course syllabus as their philosophy.

**Research Question #2**

The second research question has several components, including the level of preparedness site supervisors feel they have for supervising a clinical experience. Specifically, "How prepared are site supervisors to meet the needs of school counselors-in-training from diverse professional backgrounds?" This question is answered by two sub-questions: "How much and what kind of training have these individuals received?" and "To what extent do site supervisors feel confident in their ability to meet the needs of former teachers and non-teachers?"

ACES Best Practices in Clinical Supervision (2011) and CACREP Standards (2009) indicated that training for site supervisors should take place. It is recommended that site supervisors possess knowledge of supervision models (ACES, 2011) and work from a model as they supervise (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). The majority of survey respondents in Phase I of
the study (62.3%) indicated they had not received any formal training in site supervision. This finding is consistent with recent literature that indicates training for site supervisors is limited (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011; Marino, 2011; Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Studer, 2005). In contrast, the majority of interview participants in Phase II (58.3%) indicated they had received training. One explanation for this difference is that those who felt more comfortable discussing items on the survey, such as training, were more likely to volunteer for the interview. Training held at the supervising university was the most popular method of training received in both Phase I and II. The duration of this kind of training typically ranged from one hour to two business days, with some lasting three or more days. Interview participants who discussed the workshop format responded favorably, although one participant commented that it was too much information in a short period of time. Knowledge of site supervision models, particularly the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), emerged as an area in which Phase II participants wished to learn more information. Interviewees mentioned that this study brought specific models to their attention, and some had not realized previously that models for site supervision existed.

As indicated in the results section, five interview participants shared the training topics they remembered; two of these five participants recalled site supervision models as a training topic. Additionally, no participants mentioned having been given information on site supervision philosophies or how to develop one. ACES *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision* (2011) stipulated that site supervisors should be able to articulate a philosophy. As described in Chapter IV, participants who received training were one-third more likely to work from a philosophy and more likely to be able to articulate that philosophy. Receiving training was also linked to familiarity of supervision models, evidence of which was often reflected in the philosophies.
Participant confidence was measured by an adapted version of Studer's (2006) standards checklist. The majority of respondents rated themselves as "very confident" in most aspects of supervision, with scores between 4 and 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=Not at all confident; 5=Very confident). Respondents scored themselves slightly lower on tailoring their approach to supervision to the individual supervisee and utilizing specific techniques and models. Phase II participants were asked what factors contributed to their confidence, and many said their professional experiences and personal qualities helped them feel confident. In Chapter IV, training was shown to be linked to survey respondents' overall confidence rating. The average confidence rating was higher for those who had received some form of supervision training. While familiarity of supervision models was also linked with training and confidence, the vast majority of participants felt confident about their supervision skills without having knowledge of models.

In answering research question #2, it is clear that most site supervisors are not formally prepared, but professional experience and contact with the supervising university can give them the confidence to meet Studer's (2006) adapted list of standards. Training may help site supervisors develop greater understanding of the supervision process, which gives them the knowledge base and confidence to articulate their thoughts on appropriate supervision approaches.

Research Question #3

The third research question, "What are the beliefs and practices of site supervisors with respect to supervision of former teachers and school counselors-in-training without teaching experience?" also contains multiple elements. In order to analyze site supervisors' practices when supervising non-teachers, it is important to investigate their beliefs about non-teachers'
performance and preparedness. If the majority of participants felt that differences did not exist between former teachers and non-teachers, then there would be little need for differentiation based on prior work experience. However, this was not the case. As expected, the largest performance/preparedness differences between former teachers and non-teachers were noted as classroom skills in both Phase I and II, supporting Bundy and Studer's (2011) claims.

While survey respondents acknowledged more observed performance differences in the classroom setting based on the supervisees' professional backgrounds, participants in Phase I and II largely indicated that non-teachers do not possess deficits in counseling skills (individual or small group). In fact, the absence of a "classroom mindset" could be to their advantage. Some participants, particularly elementary counselors from a teaching background, possessed strong beliefs regarding the disadvantages for non-teachers and perceived supervisees not entering the clinical experience with school system knowledge as a system-wide problem. However, in accordance with previous literature (e.g., Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004), many participants acknowledged non-teachers' abilities to learn school system operations during on-the-job-training, whether those skills fully develop during the clinical experience or continue to develop into their first years as a working school counselor. These findings support the Peterson et al. (2004) finding that school counselors-in-training without teaching experience encounter more difficulties in the clinical settings and face a steeper learning curve than their peers who have previously taught.

With 60% of participants having only supervised non-teachers, this study confirms Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) finding that the majority of school counselors-in-training do not have a teaching background. There are also data from this study to support the literature that former teachers, in addition to having strong classroom skills, may possess some negative
practices that need to be addressed in training (Baker, 1944; Bundy & Studer, 2011; Stephens, 2008). For example, multiple participants reference former teachers struggling with their transition from a teacher role to a counselor role in the school setting.

As explained in Chapter IV, site supervisors’ beliefs about former teachers and non-teachers may be based on a combination of their personal experiences and their training. Phase I participants who were former teachers without training reported observing the most differences in the classroom setting. Phase II participants elaborated, in great detail, on the differences they observed between former teachers and non-teachers in the clinical setting. In general, interview participants who had teaching experience themselves felt that non-teachers possessed deficits in classroom skills and school knowledge and demonstrated strengths in counseling skills. They felt supervisees acquired classroom skills and school operations knowledge at different rates. Some interview participants who did not have teaching experience themselves did not notice a difference between teachers and non-teachers, and many noted personality differences played more of a role in performance than professional background. Non-teacher participants felt that school experience was helpful but not necessary and acknowledged the learning curve for non-teachers. Phase II participants who were former teachers or who were non-teachers and had received training tended to differentiate their approach based on the supervisees’ prior work experience. Three interview participants who had received training incorporated differentiation into their supervision philosophy.

In response to research question #3, site supervisors possessed differing beliefs about non-teacher supervisees’ performance in the clinical setting. Overall, site supervisors believed that non-teachers need assistance in developing classroom skills; however, site supervisors may possess bias toward former teachers or non-teachers based on their own professional
backgrounds. Beliefs were also linked to training, and those who had received training expressed more moderate beliefs than those, particularly former teachers, who did not. These beliefs were related to practice in that those who either received training or viewed non-teachers as possessing a deficit chose to differentiate more often than those who did not believe prominent differences existed between teachers and non-teachers.

**Discussion**

Over a decade after the regulation change in Virginia that allowed non-teachers to pursue school counseling careers, no known research focused exclusively on the differences site supervisors observe when training school counselors from different professional backgrounds and the extent to which they employ a tailored supervision approach in the clinical setting. While site supervisor training has been an area of interest in several recent articles (e.g., Dollarhide & Miller, 2006), its relationship to supervision philosophies and technique differentiation has not been previously addressed. This study investigated those items using a mixed-method research design shaped by suggestions from recent literature (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; DeKruyf, 2007; Luke et al., 2011; Miller & Dollarhide, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006; Stephens, 2008). This study of differentiated site supervision based on school counselors-in-training’s prior work experiences answered questions of what site supervisors think about supervision, the role training can play in developing site supervisor confidence and philosophical orientation, and the beliefs and practices site supervisors employ when supervising former teachers and non-teachers.

The relationships between variables discussed in Chapter IV hold significant meaning for practice. The mixed-method design of the study allowed the phenomena associated with site supervision to be broken into parts and placed back together in a logical way. While the focus of this study was site supervisor practices with non-teachers, the study also identified the influence
of training on multiple aspects of site supervision (see Figure 7). More importantly, the findings are able to provide some understanding of the existing dynamics in the absence of training. Site supervisor training, or the absence thereof, provided some understanding of supervisors' confidence level and the types of philosophies from which they work, if they work from one at all. While recall of training topics appeared to be a problem and not every site supervisor who received training worked from a refined philosophy, site supervisors who had received training were more likely to articulate a philosophy that described an approach to supervision and not merely a list of responsibilities. Essentially, those who had received training had a better understanding of supervisee needs and the models and techniques available to help meet their needs. These findings support the earlier studies of DeKruyf (2007) and Better-Fitzhugh (2010).

This study differs from other recent literature by linking training to site supervisors' beliefs and practices regarding school counselors-in-training with and without teaching experience.

While relationships between variables do not determine causation, these findings reveal plausible explanations for how training affects practice. Figure 8 illustrates the relationship between the variables associated with training.
Figure 8. Training-driven variable relationships. Training, in blue, represents the starting point of effective supervision, and practice, in pink, represents the culmination of training material, including models, which can help site supervisors develop a philosophy and confidence, which influence beliefs. Covariates (professional experience and supervisor professional background), in orange, are present, but play a less prominent role. All other variables (model familiarity, confidence, philosophy, and beliefs) are in yellow.

While training is related to all of these variables, Figure 8 displays the variables in logical order. As described in the sections above, training is related to all of the other variables in this study. Logically, training most directly affects knowledge of models, confidence, and philosophy. Philosophy, by its definition, is a statement of beliefs that drive practice (Martin & Cannon, 2010). When training was not present, participants were less likely to possess knowledge of models or a philosophy of supervision, and they may have felt less confident. Without training, beliefs are not driven by information provided in training but rather by personal experiences and belief systems that are related to the participants’ own experiences. For those without training, the covariates drive the beliefs and ultimately the practice. See Figure 9.

Figure 9. Variable relationships without training. Variables (beliefs and philosophy) are in yellow, covariates (professional experience and supervisor professional background) are in orange, and the outcome (practice) is in pink. In the absence of training, the covariates alone influence beliefs; philosophy becomes a description of tasks.
Without training, instead of philosophy driving practice, the philosophy is more likely to be a summary of what the site supervisor does, rather than a description of the approach. The following quote from a retired survey respondent supports this notion:

I typically did what the individual college asked me to do as a supervisor of practicum students. Naturally, in the school counselor training there was no supervision course. Definitely needed.

Respondent #46 (Survey, RT, FT)

While some participants who had received training still described a task-oriented, concrete philosophy, there were only two references to an intentional approach among those who had not received training. Without training, supervisors’ beliefs were often tied to personal bias toward the supervisee based on professional background. Both those who received training and those who had not may choose to differentiate their approach, but for different reasons. Participants who have not received training may employ differentiated strategies based on a biased belief system where greater differences between teachers and non-teachers exist. This tendency has the potential to translate into a perceived lack of support by the school counselor-in-training.

Supervision training could make the difference between whether non-teachers are approached by their site supervisors with support or skepticism.

Further explanation is needed on the role of the participant professional background covariate. As discussed in Chapter IV, an unexpected relationship emerged between site supervisors, their own professional backgrounds, and the backgrounds of their supervisees. While literature exists that explores the differences between teachers and non-teachers (e.g., Bringman & Sang, 2008; Peterson et al., 2004), site supervisors’ beliefs and potential biases regarding these students and differences in practice, if any, have not been the focus of investigation. Based on survey and interview responses, it is possible to characterize the
elements of the relationships between supervisors and supervisees based on each individual’s prior work experience, as shown in Figure 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Non-teacher supervisor</th>
<th>Former teacher supervisor</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-teacher supervisee</td>
<td>Supervision begins with shadowing, but the supervisor may not recognize the need for intensive classroom training. Classroom skills are a part of the clinical experience, but they are not the focus. The focus is on perfecting counseling skills.</td>
<td>The supervisor teaches the supervisee classroom skills through modeling and gradually allows him/her to address the classroom independently. Counseling skills are a part of the clinical experience, but the focus is on closing the experience gap.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former teacher supervisee</td>
<td>The supervisor allows the supervisee to shine in the classroom. The supervisor may need to address issues with the role transition such as a vocal tone or issues with being too directive. Counseling skills continue to develop.</td>
<td>The supervisor allows the supervisee to shine in the classroom. Counseling skills continue to develop; however, issues with role transition may not be evident to the supervisor. The supervisee may be able to work independently more quickly than a non-teacher.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*Figure 10. Supervisor-supervisee relationships based on professional experience.*

These dynamics illustrate mutually respectful relationships between those with like backgrounds. In contrast, the relationships between those with opposite backgrounds can be challenging for both parties, but in positive ways. Classroom skills are important, particularly for elementary counselors, and site supervisors with teaching experience could, theoretically, provide the most thorough coaching. Developing counseling skills is, of course, an important goal of the clinical experience. While non-teachers’ strong counseling abilities have been acknowledged throughout the study, former teachers have been noted as struggling with role transition and may need feedback on their demeanor in small group or individual counseling settings. As mentioned by Studer and Bundy (2011), site supervisors without teaching experience possess a counseling orientation and may quickly identify areas for improvement for former teachers. Training has the ability to inform non-teacher site supervisors of new ways to cultivate classroom skills and inform former teacher site supervisors of literature that supports the
potential for school counselors-in-training without teaching experience, especially within a supportive environment. While the data have shown that training is related to more moderate beliefs regarding the performance differences between teachers and non-teachers, former teachers and non-teachers may still benefit from their supervisors’ specialized expertise.

Site supervisors, regardless of professional background, employ a variety of techniques to foster growth in their supervisees. Better-Fitzhugh (2010) recommended that site supervisors consider their supervisees’ prior experiences when developing feedback and assisting with skills development. Phase II of this study revealed a variety of practices among supervisors. Some felt that a full, immediate immersion, otherwise known as “sink or swim” (which is not supported by Roberts and Morotti’s (2001) model), was the most appropriate method for acclimating non-teachers. Others systematically de-sensitized non-teachers to the school and classroom environment. Those that preferred a more gradual acclimation tended to have their supervisees shadow longer and observed them more closely. Participants also mentioned encouraging their supervisee to observe other teachers and staff members and working with them on vocal tone and demeanor as a way for them to gain perspective and better relate to their prospective colleagues. All of these elements are present in Peterson and Deuschle’s (2006) model. This model provides a framework from which to highlight the key findings of this study as they relate to best practices for differentiating site supervision based on supervisees’ professional backgrounds.

This study reiterates the pertinence of the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). Only two survey respondents and no interview participants possessed knowledge of this model prior to the study, yet all five components of the Peterson-Deuschle Model appeared in responses regarding current site supervision. However, no single participant implemented the model in its entirety. This model operates under the
assumption that a partnership exists between the site supervisor and the supervising university, and that partnership must be fully formed in order to achieve full implementation.

The “information” component of the model, for example, falls predominantly on the shoulders of the university supervisor. Although virtually every interview participant mentioned some degree of imparting information on school protocol, “information,” as Peterson and Deuschle (2006) use it, refers to the university supervisor providing literature on the unique needs and abilities of the non-teacher to the site supervisors (e.g., Olson & Allen, 1993; Quarto, 1999). This information would explain the obstacles faced by both former teachers and non-teachers (e.g., Peterson et al., 2004) and describing the extent to which the university curriculum has attempted to “fill gaps in professional experience” (p. 270). Many comments on the preparedness differences between teachers and non-teachers stemmed from a lack of knowledge in this area. While several participants unknowingly echoed Peterson and Deuschle’s elements acknowledging learning curves and non-teacher advantages, participants had to learn these elements through observation and experience; none mentioned literature supporting the potential success of non-teachers.

For the “immersion” component, Peterson and Deuschle (2006) suggested that school counselors-in-training who have not had previous teaching experience spend as much time in a school as possible. They suggested that this exposure should start before the practicum and internship, including observing and assisting classroom teachers. These activities can sensitize non-teachers to school and teacher cultures. The interview participants in this study suggested similar activities. While supervisees’ activities prior to the clinical experience are not within the site supervisor’s control, they were mentioned as a system-wide need during Phase II interviews.
The observation component refers not only to the modeling that participants commonly mentioned but also to observing school culture in a method Peterson and Deuschle (2006) liken to an anthropology project in order to uncover the unspoken protocol within the school. Learning the culture among school employees can help counselors-in-training build credibility among teachers, administrators, and other counselors. Peterson and Deuschle mentioned that veteran school counselors, in particular, may have less tolerance for interpersonal errors (p. 272). Some specific instances of this problem emerged from the data. Several participants mentioned the need to address certain actions, such as carrying coffee to a classroom lesson, that can go against school culture and affect the supervisee’s credibility. The responsibility of learning these implicit rules should be shared by the site supervisor, the supervisee, and the supervising institution.

The structure component refers to the framework university supervisors provide to site supervisors that can help them lead productive face-to-face supervision meetings. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) suggested that it is beneficial for non-teachers to have a site supervisor who is attuned to their steep personal and professional learning curves (p. 275). The findings from this study suggest that site supervisors may observe non-teachers as performing at a lower level rather than simply being in need of a few additional exercises to close the gap in experience. The call for further training was found in the current study, especially concerning constructive criticism and implementing models. Further training can assist site supervisors in leading intentional, purposeful supervision meetings. Additionally, Peterson and Deuschle described the importance of university supervisors making more than brief and superficial visits to the sites (p. 274) and providing site supervisors with clear expectations. While most interview participants in this study appeared to receive a syllabus or some other list of requirements or contract, several
interview participants mentioned receiving fewer interactions with the university supervisor than they would have liked.

The “awareness” component addresses two areas that participants in this study felt were primary advantages for teachers over non-teachers: child development and classroom skills. Several participants mentioned that any experience with children that provides the supervisee comfort with a specific age group can help them apply their knowledge from coursework, which is often not sufficient. It is most helpful if this practice comes as a separate, preparatory experience prior to the clinical experience. With regards to classroom skills, several participants in this study felt that coursework on classroom management and developing lesson plans should be provided for school counselors-in-training prior to their first clinical experience. However, Peterson and Deuschle (2006) concluded that the first instruction on classroom skills should not occur until after a school counselor-in-training enters the clinical experience. They explained that “a theoretical course alone focusing on this area is too abstract to have an impact” (p. 278).

Counselor education programs implementing early immersion requirements could provide school counselors-in-training with the field experience necessary to embrace classroom skill instruction earlier in the program. Participants in this study also suggested that supervisees could gain classroom lesson skills in a workshop format. Likewise, Peterson and Deuschle recommended “miniworkshops” (p. 278) for developing lesson plans that run in conjunction with the clinical experience. Both the site supervisor and university supervisor observing the supervisee in the classroom setting and providing feedback was important to participants. Participants in this study appeared to be actively observing their supervisees in the classroom but expressed concerns that the university supervisor does not always observe. Peterson and Deuschle found vocal tone to be particularly important, including the tone and demeanor with which a school counselor-in-
training makes an announcement at a faculty meeting. While participants in this study did not mention vocal tone specifically, they did mention intimidation and confusion about the school environment as an obstacle to supervisee autonomy. Peterson and Deuschle suggested the site and/or university supervisor work with the supervisee to build "teacher-style poise and delivery" (p. 279). Similar to the "immersion" component, vocal tone is not a component over which the site supervisor has complete control, and participants in this study echoed this suggestion as another system-wide suggestion.

Many of Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) suggestions extended beyond the relationship between the site supervisor and the supervisee, introducing larger needs and suggestions for the university supervisor and the counselor education program. While intentional supervision is a central theme for the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), many of the recommendations include early school system exposure in the beginning of the counselor education program. Participant responses also reflected this focus. However, the practicum and internship courses and the clinical experiences are designed to provide the CACREP-mandated immersion. Site supervisors appeared to have mixed opinions about who was responsible for shortening the skills gap between the teacher and non-teacher. Closing the gap, in the eyes of some participants, was not something that occurs until well into initial employment. Findings from these data support earlier findings that this gap will, indeed, close (Baker, 1994; Olson & Allen, 1993; Peterson et al., 2004). These findings, combined with the literature, provide evidence that the school counselor-in-training's acclimation to the school environment is a continuum that must be fostered by not only the site supervisor but the counselor education program, the initial employment site, and professional development.
Limitations

Sampling is the most prominent limitation to this study. When using a professional organization’s membership as the sampling frame, such as VSCA members, some level of systematic error results (Daniel, 2012). This error occurs because those who are members of the professional organization with current contact information may be more likely to have sought out professional development for site supervision and, therefore, may not be completely representative of the target population (site supervisors in Virginia). Scoles’ (2011) dissertation presented a similar obstacle. Many site supervisors in Virginia may not be members of VSCA or may have inaccurate email addresses listed in their profiles. When eligible elements of the target population are missed by the sampling choice, it is called “undercoverage bias” (Daniel, 2012, p. 28). The number of respondents from the VSCA database who were qualified to complete the survey (i.e., have served as a site supervisor) was unknown. Eligible respondents may have been only a fraction of the sampling frame. Daniel (2012) referred to this issue as “overcoverage bias” (p. 28). While the screening question at the beginning of the survey minimized this bias, the extent to which the survey data is generalizable to a larger population is limited.

Maintaining respondent confidentiality while also asking for interview volunteers presented an additional obstacle to the number of volunteers. In order to disconnect the survey responses from the volunteer information, participants needed to carefully read directions and make two additional clicks before reaching the contact information page in a separate window. Those who took those steps to volunteer for the follow-up interview and respond to the email inviting them to sign up for an interview time possessed a certain level of motivation to provide feedback. For this reason, convenience sampling is typically the weakest form of sampling and
threatens the validity of the study (McMillan, 2004). For example, those who volunteered for an interview may have been more passionate about site supervision. Those who felt less confident about their performance as a site supervisor may have chosen not to participate. This tendency leads to response bias (Daniel, 2012).

As is the case with several recent studies on this topic (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010; Peterson et al., 2004; Stephens, 2008) sample size is a limitation that affects generalizability. The approximate overall response rate for the survey was 21.5% based on an estimate of 400 eligible respondents. As mentioned above, there is no way to accurately estimate how many of the approximately 800 ASCA members served as a site supervisor. Using 400 as an estimate with the 86 completed surveys, the response rate is lower than some studies (e.g., DeKruyf, 2007) and higher than others (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010). The interview portion of this study, however, had a larger sample size and included a larger geographic area than some other studies. Several studies (e.g., Better-Fitzhugh, 2010) used only participants from one institution. Conducting interviews by phone allowed for a geographically representative interview population. With twelve individual interviews, this mixed-method study produced richer data than some solely quantitative studies (e.g., DeKruyf, 2007) and qualitative studies gathering responses from open-ended survey questions alone (e.g., Peterson et al., 2004). It should also be acknowledged that qualitative data is not generalizable, but the multitude of case examples provided and themes that emerged provide new and detailed information for the school counseling field.

Several logistical issues related to web-based survey administration could also have affected the response rate. While responding to a web-based survey is much more convenient than a mailed survey, access and computer literacy present potential limitations (Fink, 2009; McMillan, 2007). Many school counselors provided their professional email addresses for the
VSCA database, and internet safety technology may have prevented some potential respondents from viewing the survey. While technology competencies are required for school counselor licensure and McMillan (2004) indicates that education professionals usually do not face literacy issues, navigating the steps of internet safety filters or firewalls may have been too complex. For participants who did begin the web-based survey, they were permitted to exit the survey at any time. While 102 individuals started the survey, only 86 completed the survey. Only the consent question and the screening question were mandatory; eight participants who completed the survey left a significant number of questions blank.

There has been a recent trend in limiting the number of online contacts for survey responses both with the VCU IRB and the VSCA. VSCA limits the number of contacts to two, which may also have led to a decreased response rate. Additionally, in the initial survey distribution, the prospective participant had to click a link in order to view the introductory, IRB-approved wording within a Microsoft Word document rather than it being embedding into the body of the email as initially proposed. This led to an additional click to reach the survey, which may have deterred busy counselors from completing the survey. Prospective participants’ computers being incompatible with Microsoft Word may have also been an unforeseen obstacle. Further, the wording for the reminder email, while it did go out at the scheduled time and was embedded into the text, appeared beneath the initial invitation for another study. This may have made the follow-up invitation less obvious to those who would have been qualified and interested. While a relatively low number of responses from the reminder was anticipated, only five responses were submitted after the reminder was distributed.

Time of year may also have been a deterrent for some potential participants. Because of state testing and other large tasks that culminate in May for Virginia school counselors, the
researcher hoped to distribute the survey by the last week of April. Other VSCA business that was conducted online delayed the survey distribution by two weeks, and the initial invitation was distributed during the second week of May. Many eligible respondents may not have been able to participate because of the busy time of year. This timing also delayed the start of the interview process, and some interviews were not scheduled until the last week of school. One elementary counselor was already on summer vacation during the time of her interview. Only one out of three high school counselors who volunteered for the interview actually scheduled an interview time, most likely because the end of the school year is an extremely busy time with impending graduation. The time of year could be another reason why more elementary counselors volunteered for and followed through with the interview, and were, therefore, more prevalent in the interview sample. This overrepresentation is an additional limitation. The elementary school counselors’ perspective dominates the findings of this study. As the results indicate, many participants felt that the differences between teachers and non-teachers are more prominent among elementary setting, largely because more of the counseling curriculum is delivered in the classroom. This may have compelled more elementary counselors to want to participate in the study.

While phone interviews provided the researcher the flexibility to reach a larger and diverse (both in geography and institutions) interview population, the interview format came with some limitations. De Leeuw et al. (2008) acknowledged that phone interviews do not permit the researcher to interpret visual cues. While the interview participants were very forthcoming with sharing information, some interviews were brief at 17-18 minutes (2-3 minutes under the target 20-30-minute interview timeframe). Two interviews, however, greatly exceeded this timeframe, and one exceeded the 50-minute maximum. While some participants provided more
examples in the longer interviews, there did not appear to be a large difference in the depth of answers with the shorter interviews; some participants were more concise than others.

Threats to validity such as social desirability (McMillan, 2004) and pleasing the interviewer (McMillan, 2004) may have affected responses. Site supervisors may not have wanted to admit they felt under-prepared to do a job that they have been doing for quite some time; thus, they may have given a more socially desirable response, particularly when rating themselves on Studer’s (2006) adapted scale. Interview participants may also have been more likely to attempt to describe a philosophy in the interview than on the survey. This tendency is an example of pleasing the interviewer. Additionally, stronger language was used on the survey to describe some of the beliefs regarding the observed trends and performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the practicum or internship than in the interview. One reason for this could be that the participants did not know if the interviewer was a practicing school counselor or whether the interviewer was a former teacher or non-teacher. Participants may have wanted to please, or at least not offend, the interviewer and may have used more diplomatic language when expressing their beliefs about school counselors-in-training and their possession or lack of skills as related to the professional backgrounds. At the conclusion of the study, the interviewer disclosed her professional background to those who inquired.

Similar to Marino’s (2011) study, this study required some participants to use retroactive reflections on their experiences with some supervisees and supervision training that were several years in the past. While most participants did not seem to have trouble recalling the professional backgrounds of and experiences with their supervisees, they did seem to reflect on the most recent supervisory relationship most readily. Some interview participants struggled when recalling training topics and had a particularly difficult time recalling titles and components of
models. This difficulty may have affected the researcher's ability to glean a comprehensive list of topics routinely covered in site supervision training but may point to a larger issue of the methods used for school counselor training and the ability for site supervisors to utilize that information in practice.

Despite these limitations, the results of this study revealed trends in the school counseling profession that should not be ignored. The follow section provides recommendations for practice and future research.

Implications

Recommendations

Recommendations for school counselors-in-training. Several interview participants felt that school counselors-in-training should address their lack of school experience by finding ways to gain school system exposure prior to the practicum and internship. Some recommendations included volunteering, specifically in the classroom, and working as a teacher's assistant. These experiences would provide the school counselor-in-training with not only the opportunity to observe instructional techniques from a teacher but also gain insight into teacher culture. Knowledge of classroom skills, school system operations, and teacher culture were the most frequently mentioned benefits of prior teaching experience. Gaining this knowledge through early school system immersion, consistent with Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) recommendations, can help school counselors-in-training enter the clinical setting with experiences that have the potential to facilitate their acclimation to the school environment.

As mentioned in Chapter IV, two interview participants recommended that novice school counselors work with a mentor in the profession. This suggestion is consistent with one of Bringman and Sang's (2008) recommendations for non-teachers entering the field. Walter (2009)
discovered that school counseling interns experienced more stress than interns in other counseling fields, yet they were less likely to engage in ongoing supervision. Ongoing supervision is a common practice in other counseling fields, and that type of ongoing support, whether or not it is formally called mentorship or supervision, could assist both former teachers and non-teachers with developing weaker skills beyond the clinical experience and into their first years as a working school counselor.

**Recommendations for site supervisors.** Site supervisors may wish to take advantage of training opportunities for site supervision. At least one participant recalled being offered training but could not attend. While site supervision is a commitment in itself, it may seem overwhelming to spend personal time participating in training. Training is offered in many different time frames, as observed from the survey, ranging from 1 to 45 hours. Training should provide the information and structure that Peterson and Deuschle (2006) championed in their article as well as the most recent literature on school counselors-in-training as it exists today. Non-teachers are now the predominant type of supervisee and, with supportive supervision, have the ability to function as proficiently as former teachers.

While the findings of this study provide evidence that many of Peterson and Deuschle’s (2006) recommendations for preparing non-teachers are present in today’s site supervision practices, site supervisors could benefit from additional training and information on practices to facilitate growth in their supervisees. Peterson and Deuschle suggested assessing supervisees’ skills throughout the clinical experience. Although CACREP programs already have an assessment component in place, it may be helpful for site supervisors to rate non-teachers on areas of school and classroom knowledge when they first arrive. A few participants explained that they liked to “size up” entering supervisees to find out what their needs were, but perhaps a
more formal assessment based on the immersion, awareness, and observation components of the Peterson-Deuschle Model could provide a detailed framework for intentional site supervision.

**Recommendations for school counseling supervisors.** School counseling supervisors, particularly those at the central office level, also play an important role in the supervision process. It is often these individuals who are placing the school counselors-in-training with their prospective site supervisor. Because the clinical experience is related to non-teacher self-efficacy when they become a school counselor (Scoles, 2011), finding an appropriate fit between the supervisor and the supervisee can be essential. Marino (2011) concluded that optimal supervision would involve matching supervisors and supervisees by site supervisor’s professional background. While taking professional background into consideration is warranted, the findings of this study suggest that matching a supervisee with a supervisor of the opposite professional background for at least one of the two clinical experience may help the school counselor-in-training develop skills in the areas they need growth.

Other considerations pertain to site supervisor training and placement. School counseling supervisors should encourage school counselors who regularly supervise clinical experiences to receive training and provide them with the opportunities to keep this training current. In-service was one of the more popular methods of training identified in this study. When possible, schools should place supervisees with site supervisors who have received training but be mindful to not place supervisees with the same site supervisors every year. As one interview participant mentioned, these individuals also need some time off to focus on their own professional growth. When a school counselor does receive training, particularly for the first time, it is important to give that individual a supervisee as soon as possible, preferably within the next year. Potential site supervisors may start to lose the information they learned if they do not apply it in a timely
manner. This timing would require a school division to keep records of which school counselors are not only eligible to receive a supervisee according to CACREP standards but also to document who has had site supervision training and when and how often they are assigned a supervisee.

**Recommendations for counselor educators.** Several participants recommended that counselor education programs incorporate a course on classroom skills into the school counseling curriculum. Additionally, Peterson and Deuschle (2006) suggested that counselor education programs encourage non-teachers to gain early school system exposure. A course such as the one proposed by Bundy and Studer (2011) that provides a combination of online materials, face-to-face activities, and school site exposure would help to acclimate the school counselor-in-training to the school setting prior to the practicum or internship. For students who have had such course work, site supervisors should adjust their approach.

If a course is not an option, Peterson and Deuschle (2006) suggested several assignments the university supervisor could include in the practicum or internship course that could facilitate the non-teacher’s acclimation to the school environment. For example, they suggested assigning a paper on the school’s culture that would help counselors-in-training identify the unspoken protocol within their site. Partnering with the site supervisor and conveying the expectations of the assignment could help ensure that the site supervisor provides the supervisee with opportunities to observe the culture, for example, observing lunch, faculty meetings, and/or teacher instruction.

The need for additional site supervision training opportunities is one of the larger themes from recent studies that is echoed in this study. While national and state professional organizations such as ACES and VSCA are capable of providing training opportunities, the
majority of impactful training experiences participants discussed in this study were led by universities. Training the supervisors who will work with a university’s students is the only way to ensure any kind of uniformity of information that the supervisors receive. Thus, the responsibility for training the site supervisor falls largely on the supervising institution. DeKruyf and Pehrsson (2011) proposed that site supervisor training include (a) counselor development, (b) supervision methods and techniques, (c) the supervisory relationship, and (d) models of supervision (p. 323). The findings for this study support this list of topics. Specific requests included role-playing while providing feedback, knowing more about the status of today’s school counselor-in-training, the appropriate expectations site supervisors should have for their supervisees, and how to facilitate their growth (i.e., how to implement a model that meets the student’s needs and the supervisor’s philosophy). Perhaps shorter workshops that include model outlines would help with recall and provide the information on models encouraged by ACES (2011) and CACREP (2009).

Additionally, the format in which this training is provided is important. Workshops held by the supervising institution or university consortium were the most common form of training cited in both Phase I and Phase II. However, topic recall, particularly with models, emerged as an obstacle. One participant who regularly reflected on the information she received had received a notebook containing pertinent information. Another participant suggested that training sessions provide the information on just a few sheets of paper so it would be more manageable in a supervision situation. A handout in a format that the supervisor could share with the supervisee was mentioned as being useful and effective. Information on models should be bulleted or consolidated into a chart format. An executive summary of Studer’s (2006) Supervising the School Counselor Trainee: Guidelines for Practice may be a good place to start. However, one
criticism of Studer’s (2006) book is that many school counselor-specific models were published in the same year or after this book; a sampling of the models discussed in this study are more current and relevant for today’s site supervisor. Information on too many models may become overwhelming; counselor educators may wish to select models that align with their own department philosophies. Selecting models that are specific to school counselor site supervision would be ideal. Consideration for including the Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006) should be given as it is the only model focusing on the specific needs of the non-teacher, which is now the majority of school counselors-in-training. As this study revealed, only two participants were familiar with this model. For busy school counselors, being able to reference a concise file or slim binder on supervision information with ready-to-go handouts may be the quickest way for supervisors to be able to internalize the information and provide themselves with a quick review prior to entering each supervisory relationship.

Counselor educators who oversee clinical placements may wish to maintain an open dialogue with the school counseling supervisor or other individual at the school division who matches the site supervisors with the supervisees. Conveying the placement expectations as described for school counseling supervisors, as well as adhering to those guidelines themselves when matching supervisors and supervisee in smaller school divisions that do not have a division-level individual making the placements, is an important part of the supervision process.

Lastly, counselor educators, particularly those serving as university supervisors, may wish to increase their presence at the supervision site. Several participants, particularly interview participants, mentioned wanting increased contact with the university supervisors and mentioned that they may not see them face-to-face. In addition to site supervisor orientation and being
provided with a copy of the course syllabus, which participants noted as being helpful, having at least one face-to-face visit is important for site supervisors to be able to compare notes on the student’s progress, feel supported, and feel that their approach to supervision is validated. One participant mentioned that the institution with which she often worked had cut back on site visits. While another participant mentioned the value of having practicing school counselors serve as university instructors, those university supervisors’ ability to conduct site visits may be limited. In an era where institutions are expected to do more with fewer resources, this recommendation and others for counselor educators may be difficult to implement.

**Recommendations for professional and accrediting organizations.** An area for improvement that emerged from the literature was that CACREP *Standards* (2009) and the ASCA *National Model* (2005) did not provide specific recommendations or mandates regarding the duration, timing, or content of site supervisor training. While “didactic” training should occur (ACES, 2011), this study’s results confirmed that training may not exist or is minimal (Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Herlihy et al., 2002; Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Studer, 2005). Training may occur as an optional workshop or, in some cases, the course syllabi act as the method by which expectations are communicated. These data provide evidence that training is linked to site supervisor confidence in at least two ACES standards, as determined by Studer’s (2006) adapted checklist. Training is also linked to knowledge of supervision models and site supervisors choosing to work from a philosophy of supervision, both of which are recommended by ACES *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision* (2011). Based on these findings, it is recommended that ASCA specifically address expectations and the ethical obligation to receive training prior to supervising a school counselor-in-training. Further, it is recommended that CACREP include specific expectations for site supervisor training in its next *Standards* revision.
While it is important for requirements to allow for professional interpretation within counselor education departments, providing a list of competencies that resemble those in the ACES *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision* (2011) may provide the guidance needed for departments to align their practices.

State-level ACES and ASCA organizations may wish to lead new training initiatives. Not only would it be helpful for these organizations to lead workshops, which would alleviate the supervising institutions from carrying all of the training responsibility, but they could initiate an online learning community that could serve as a state-wide support system for site supervisors. Such a community could consist of live chatting as well as articles and web resources that could supplement face-to-face training or increase training access to busy school counselors who are not able to attend events because of scheduling issues.

**Recommendations for state-level government.** State government may also seek to include supervision training for site supervisors as a mandated component for the clinical experiences required for licensure. Recent literature has linked supervision training to site supervisor self-efficacy (DeKruyf, 2007) and site supervisor performance to school counselor self-efficacy (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010). This study connects supervision training to site supervisor confidence and use of a philosophy, which can affect site supervisors’ beliefs and differentiated practices that Peterson and Deuschle (2006) recommend. A state mandate requiring supervision training prior to overseeing a clinical experience has the potential to influence self-efficacy and performance of both site supervisors and future school counselors.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

The broader themes revealed in this study answer the research questions and also give way to new questions for future research. While not a focus of this study, relationships emerged
between the professional backgrounds of the participants (site supervisors) and the school counselors-in-training (supervisees). It appears that participants who possess a teaching background may be biased against supervisees that do not possess teaching experience. Future research could include a regression analysis using professional background as a predictor of judgments on school counselor performance. A comparison study observing how former teacher and non-teacher supervisors would score student performance on various tasks, with one group of supervisees disclosing their professional backgrounds and one group not disclosing that information, would be beneficial. An analysis of school counselors’ professional identities related to their prior work experience and how those identities translate into practice would also provide insight into their counseling and supervision methods.

This study also generated questions on differences in site supervisors’ perceptions of supervisee performance and/or supervisor confidence based on accreditation status of the supervising universities. Several Phase I participants worked previously with institutions that are not CACREP-accredited. While Phase II participants were not asked to address the accreditation status of their supervising institutions, it may be beneficial to the profession to reanalyze these data looking for trends in accreditation status.

The perspectives of middle and high school counselors were underrepresented in this study, largely because of the time of year the survey was administered as indicated in the limitation section. While the large amount of classroom guidance present in elementary counseling makes performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers more pronounced and, thus, makes this study more compelling for elementary counselors, administering the survey earlier in the school year to a larger sample may increase the number of middle and high school survey respondents and interview volunteers. School level diversity
among participants would make the results generalizable to school counselors across the K-12 setting.

Lastly, Studer’s (2006) checklist proved to be an important tool in this study for determining site supervisor confidence on ACES Standards 5 and 6. In order to further validate the importance of site supervisor training, a more comprehensive investigation of site supervisor confidence levels is warranted. Converting the entire Studer checklist into a confidence assessment and distributing it to VSCA members may provide additional information as to the preparedness of site supervisors to guide supervisees, both former teachers and non-teachers, through their journey to competence.

In order to increase generalizability for a future study, it may be beneficial to send out a revised survey to a national audience, such as ASCA members. A larger sample size would provide more reliable data and allow for more advanced statistical analysis.

**Final Summary**

Several aspects of school counselor site supervision have been unclear until now. In their 2011 *Best Practices in Clinical Supervision* document, ACES conceded, as mentioned in Chapter II, that “there are, however, many aspects of supervision that have not been investigated or investigated adequately” (p. 1). This study of school counselor training attempted to remedy this shortcoming. Stakeholders can now understand that over half of Virginia site supervisors participating in this study do not work from a supervision philosophy and have not received any formal training. While the participants feel confident about their ability to supervise, they feel less confident about possessing knowledge of models, and most would like more information on models that will help them learn ways to meet the needs of their supervisees, particularly non-teachers. Differences between former teachers and non-teachers are still observed in the clinical
setting among school counselors-in-training, and many participants felt on-the-job training is the best way to acquire that knowledge. Some participants, however, expressed feelings of irritation with non-teachers who did not come to the clinical experience with classroom skills firmly intact. They expressed concerns about them being able to achieve student and teacher “buy-in.” Some participants, while fewer, expressed concerns about former teachers being able to transition their approach away from being more “directive” to one that is more counseling-oriented. Some interview participants were readily able to discuss in detail the methods by which they address these issues by assigning tasks according to points of weakness. Some participants did not want to differentiate, and others did not possess the information needed to assign tasks in an intentional way. The recommendations provided in this chapter attempt to address this gap from a variety of perspectives. While some questions still remain, this study has been successful in providing the profession with further understanding of current site supervisors, the philosophies from which they work, their preparedness to tackle the responsibility of school counselor training, and the extent to which they tailor their approach based on previous work experiences of the supervisee.
References


Appendix A

Site Supervision Questionnaire

RESEARCH SUBJECT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

TITLE: School Counselor Training
VCU IRB NO.: HM 14325

PURPOSE OF STUDY:
This mixed-method study is designed to gain further understanding school counseling site supervisors' experiences overseeing practicum and/or internship students. You have been asked to participate in the survey portion of this study because you are a member of the Virginia School Counselors Association and have potentially served as a site supervisor of a school counseling practicum or internship student.

This consent form applies only to the survey portion of this study. While all survey respondents will be invited to participate in the interview portion of this study, your participation in the survey in no way commits you to participate in a follow-up interview. If you are interested in participating in a follow-up phone interview, you will be able to indicate this at the conclusion of the survey, but that response will not be connected to your survey responses.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND YOUR INVOLVEMENT:
If you decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to acknowledge your consent after you have read the consent information and been provided the opportunity to have all of your questions answered.

During the survey, you will be asked a number of questions about your experiences with school counseling supervision. This survey is comprised of closed and open questions and will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS:
No more than minimal risk is associated with participation in this study.

BENEFITS TO YOU AND OTHERS:
You may not get any direct benefit from this study, but, the information we learn from people in this study may help school counseling leaders better understand site supervisors' beliefs, practices, and needs.

COSTS:
There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time you will spend on the survey.

CONFIDENTIALITY:
Your responses will be completely confidential and your email address will not be associated with your survey responses. You may stop taking the survey at any time. Data is being collected only for research purposes. Data will be kept in a locked drawer or on a password protected
computer and will be destroyed upon the completion of this study. Access to all data will be limited to study personnel.

While direct quotes may become a part of the final study, your responses will not be connected to you in any way.

Findings from this study may be presented at meetings or published in papers, but your name will not ever be used in these presentations or papers.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL:
Your participation in this study is not required. If you choose to participate, you may stop at any time without any penalty. You may choose not to answer particular questions that are asked on the survey.

Thank you in advance for taking the time to complete the Site Supervision Questionnaire.

QUESTIONS:
In the future, you may have questions about your participation in this study. If you have any questions, complaints, or concerns about the research, contact:

Office for Research:
Virginia Commonwealth University
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 113
P.O. Box 980568
Richmond, VA 23298
Telephone: 8048272157

Primary Investigator:
Jonathan Becker, J.D., Ph.D.
School of Education
Virginia Commonwealth University
Telephone: 8048272655
Email: jbecker@vcu.edu

Student:
Rachel S. Loving, Ph.D. Candidate
Educational Leadership
Virginia Commonwealth University
Telephone: 8043989107
Email: savagerd@vcu.edu

CONSENT:
I have been given the chance to read this consent document. I understand the information about this study. Questions that I wanted to ask about this study have been answered. My willingness to participate is indicated below.
1. I agree to participate in the survey portion of this research study. (required)

☐ Yes
☐ No

Please respond to the following questions. Your responses will be anonymous. You may exit the survey at any time by clicking "exit this survey" in the top right corner. Please click the "done" button at the end of the survey to submit your responses.

2. Have you ever been assigned as a site supervisor for a school counseling student in a practicum and/or internship? (required)

☐ Yes
☐ No

3. Approximately how many students have you supervised in your school counseling career? (Check all that apply; please note that the hour requirements may be different depending on the accreditation status of the supervising university.)

   Number of students
   100-hour practicum:
   300-hour internship:
   600-hour internship:
   Other:

   If other, please describe the type of on-site experience:

4. Please estimate the year of your most recent site supervisor assignment?

5. What university has your work been affiliated with? (check all that apply)

☐ College of William & Mary
☐ Eastern Mennonite University
☐ Hampton University
☐ James Madison University
☐ Liberty University
☐ Longwood University
☐ Lynchburg College
☐ Marymount University
☐ Norfolk State University
☐ Old Dominion University
☐ Radford University
☐ Regent University
☐ University of Virginia
☐ Virginia Commonwealth University
☐ Virginia Polytechnic Institution and State University (Virginia Tech)
6. When supervising a school counseling student, do you work from a philosophy of supervision?

☐ Yes
☐ No

If you indicated yes, please describe your philosophy of school counselor supervision:

7. How would you characterize the professional backgrounds of the school counseling students you have supervised? (Note: In this survey, school counseling students without prior teaching experience are referred to as non-teachers.)

☐ All former teachers
☐ Mostly former teachers, but some non-teachers
☐ A mix of former teachers and non-teachers
☐ Mostly non-teachers, but some former teachers
☐ All non-teachers
☐ I do not know their professional backgrounds

8. Please describe the professional trends, if any, you have observed as a result of the removal of the teaching requirement for Virginia school counselor licensure in 1998 (School counselors without prior teaching experience may now enter the profession with provisional licensure and have their first two years of work in a school count as their two years of experience in education):

9. Please answer the questions on this page using the following scale: 1=Never and 5=Always

Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers?

1 2 3 4 5

Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the classroom guidance setting?

1 2 3 4 5

Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the small group counseling setting?

1 2 3 4 5

Do you observe performance differences between former teachers and non-teachers in the individual counseling setting?

1 2 3 4 5
10. Please describe other performance differences, if any, you have observed between former teachers and non-teachers.

11. Please indicate your level of confidence using the follow scale: 1=Not at all confident and 5=Very confident

I am able to:

- state the purposes of supervision and explain the procedures being used
- negotiate mutual decisions regarding the needed direction of learning experiences for the counselor
- engage in appropriate supervisory interventions, including role-play, role-reversal live supervision, etc.
- perform the supervisor’s functions in the role of teacher, counselor, or consultant as appropriate
- elicit new alternatives from trainees for identifying solutions, techniques, and responses to counselees
- integrate knowledge of supervision with personal style of interpersonal relations
- clarify my role as a site supervisor
- use media aids to enhance learning
- interact with the trainee in a manner that facilitates his/her self-exploration and problem solving
- understand the developmental nature of supervision
- demonstrate knowledge of various theoretical models of supervision
- understand the trainee’s roles and functions in the school setting
understand the supervisor’s roles and functions in the school setting
1  2  3  4  5

identify the learning needs of the counselor
1  2  3  4  5

adjust supervision session content based on the trainee’s personal traits, conceptual development, training, and experience
1  2  3  4  5

use supervisory methods appropriate to the trainee’s level of conceptual development, training, and experience
1  2  3  4  5

12. Please indicate your familiarity with models (sets of techniques and guidelines) for school counseling supervision using the follow scale: 1=Not at all and 5=Very much
1  2  3  4  5

13. Please indicate which, if any, of the supervision models below you are familiar with (check all that apply).

☐ Site Supervisors of Professional School Counseling Interns: Suggested Guidelines (Roberts & Morotti, 2001)
☐ Goals, Roles, Functions, and Systems Model (Wood & Rayle, 2006)
☐ The Peterson-Deuschle Model for Preparing Nonteachers (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006)
☐ The Developmental Model of Counselor Training (Thompson & Moffett, 2010)
☐ Other

If other, please specify:

14. Have you received formal training to be a site supervisor?

☐ Yes
☐ No

15. If you have received training, how would you characterize the supervision training you have received? (check all the apply) [This question was only presented to those who answered ḕyes ḕ to question 14.]

Approximate hours of training
Training at student’s university
Workshop at a state or national conference
Summer or weekend workshop
In-service
Unit or module in a master’s program course
Graduate level course in supervision
Other

You may provide a description of training above (optional):

16. Would you find more supervision training to be beneficial in fostering skill development in supervisees with diverse professional backgrounds?

☐ Yes
☐ No

17. Please list your professional degrees (e.g., B.A. in Psychology, M.Ed. in Counselor Education):

18. Are you currently employed as a school counselor?

☐ Yes
☐ No, retired
☐ No, student
☐ No, counselor educator
☐ No, other

If other, please specify:

19. If you work in a school, is it public or private?

☐ Public
☐ Private
☐ I do not work in a school

20. What is your current work setting?

☐ Elementary school
☐ Middle school
☐ High school
☐ University
☐ None
☐ Other

If other, please specify:

21. What is your gender?
22. Please indicate your race/ethnicity (optional):

☐ African American/Black
☐ Asian American/Pacific Islander
☐ Biracial/Multiracial American
☐ European American/White
☐ Hispanic
☐ Native American
☐ Other

If other, please specify:

23. How many years of school counseling experience do you have? 

24. Did you have teaching experience prior to becoming a school counselor?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Please click "done" to submit your responses.

[DONE]

[After participants click done, this message pops up:]

Thank you for completing the Site Supervisor Questionnaire! Your participation in a follow-up interview would be very much appreciated. Please follow the directions at the end of this message to schedule an interview.

Debriefing

Your survey responses are anonymous and cannot be linked to you personally. The purpose of this study is to gain information about the experiences of site supervisors as they supervise practicum and internship students with and without prior teaching experience. Additionally, this questionnaire provides information site supervisors' training needs. Your responses will help the profession gain understanding of the beliefs, practices, and needs of site supervisors.

Interview Information

If you would like to participate in an interview, please click "done" at the bottom of this page to express interest. This will open a new window that will allow you to provide your contact information while keeping your responses to this survey anonymous. Interviews will be
conducted via phone at your convenience. With your permission, your conversation will be on speaker phone and your interview will be audio recorded so that it can be reviewed at a later time. Your identity will remain confidential. The interview will last approximately 20-30 minutes. Your participation in the interview will allow for further understanding of the beliefs, practices, and needs of site supervisors. Your willingness to continue to be a part of this study would be much appreciated. Thank you for considering this opportunity. If you do not wish to participate in a follow up interview, simply click the \texttt{DONE} in the top left corner.

[\texttt{DONE}]

[Those who click \texttt{DONE} link will see the following message]

Are you willing to participate in a follow-up phone interview?

- Yes
- No

[Those that click \texttt{yes} are guided to the next page]

Thank you for your willingness to participate in a follow-up interview. Please provide your contact and professional information below. Your responses will not be connected to your survey responses.

Name:
Phone number:
Email address:
School setting (elementary, middle, and high):
Did you have teaching experience prior to becoming a school counselor (Yes or No):

Based on the number of volunteers, you may be randomly selected to participate in an interview. Those selected will be provided with consent information prior to the interview. Thank you again!

[\texttt{DONE}]
Appendix B

Invitation Email

Dear School Counselor,

This email contains a link to an online survey. This survey is designed to gain further understanding of the experiences of school counseling site supervisors who oversee (or have overseen) practicum and/or internship students. If you have ever served in the capacity of site supervisor (meaning a university has asked you to supervise a school counseling student at a school site), your input would be extremely important in understanding the techniques you use to assist future counselors and any needs you have or wish to express with respect to site supervisor training. Please click the link below to access the online survey.

As a member of the Virginia School Counselor Association (VSCA), your professional experiences are valued. If you are interested, there will also be an opportunity for you to participate in a follow-up phone interview. Completing the survey will in no way obligate you to participate in an interview. All survey responses will be confidential and you will be able to exit the survey at any time. If you wish to participate in an interview, instructions on how to indicate that will appear at the end of the survey.

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/SSQVCU

Thank you in advance for completing this survey. The profession can benefit from learning about your experiences and opinions regarding site supervision.

Sincerely,

Rachel S. Loving, M.Ed. (savagerd@vcu.edu)
Doctoral Student, Virginia Commonwealth University

Jonathan Becker, Ph.D. (jbecker@vcu.edu)
Assistant Professor/Primary Investigator, Virginia Commonwealth University
Dear School Counselor,

Last week, you received an email containing the link to an online survey. This survey is designed to gain further understanding of the experiences of school counseling site supervisors who oversee (or have overseen) practicum and/or internship students. If you have ever served in the capacity of site supervisor (meaning a university has asked you to supervise a school counseling student at a school site), your participation would be greatly appreciated. Please click the link below to access the online survey.

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/SSQVCU

As a member of the Virginia School Counselor Association (VSCA), your professional experiences are valued. Thank you in advance for completing this survey. The profession can benefit from learning about your experiences and opinions regarding site supervision.

Sincerely,

Rachel S. Loving, M.Ed. (savagerd@vcu.edu)
Doctoral Student, Virginia Commonwealth University

Jonathan Becker, Ph.D. (jbecker@vcu.edu)
Assistant Professor/Primary Investigator, Virginia Commonwealth University
Appendix D

Site Supervisor Interview Questions

[Instructions for the interviewee/Protocol]

Thank you for letting me interview you for this study. I am going to ask you some questions about your professional background and your experiences as a site supervisor. In a moment I am going to turn on an audio record and begin recording our conversation. In order to do that, I need to put you on speaker phone. The interview is going to be transcribed, and I will send you copy so that you may confirm its contents. Your confidentiality will be maintained, and you will be referred to by a pseudonym in the study. You may ask me to stop recording at any time. This interview should last approximately 20-30 minutes. Before we begin, I need to get your verbal consent to participate in this study. Have you been given the chance to read the consent document that you received via email? [wait for response] Do you understand the information that has been given to you regarding this study? [wait for response] Do you have any questions about this study? [wait for response] Do you give your consent to participate in the interview portion of this study? [wait for response] May I go ahead and put you on speaker phone? [wait for response] Okay, I am going to press record now.

[On tape]

Again, thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of school counseling site supervisors and allowing me to record our conversation. I am going to ask you a series of questions about your professional background and your experiences as a site supervisor. I may ask follow up questions occasionally. Because your survey responses were not linked to you personally, you will be asked a few questions you may have already answered. Before we begin, do you have any questions? [wait for response] For the record, do you give your verbal consent to participate in this study? [wait for response] Okay, let’s begin.

1. What is your current work setting?

2. Please list your professional degrees, for example, Bachelor’s in Psychology and Master’s in Counselor Education.

3. How many years of school counseling experience do you have?

4. Please tell me about your professional journey into the school counseling profession. What were your professional experiences prior to entering this field?

5. What was the licensure process like when you became a school counselor?
6. You have been asked to participate in this interview because you have served as a site supervisor for a school counseling practicum or internship student. How many students have you supervised in your school counseling career? Were they practicum or internship students?

7. How would you describe the professional backgrounds of the students you have supervised?
   a. Were there more former teachers or non-teachers?
   b. Have you noticed any trends in students' professional backgrounds since the removal of the teaching requirement for VA licensure in 1998?

8. Do you notice any differences in the supervisees' level of preparedness for the practicum or internship based on their previous professional experiences? Please describe examples.
   a. Do you think these differences, if any, are more pronounced in different school levels, for example, elementary, middle, or high school?
   b. Many counselors noted some disadvantages for school counseling students without teaching experience. With the removal of the teaching experience requirement, this group is on the rise and most survey respondents indicated they have only supervised non-teachers. How should the lack of knowledge of school operations and school culture be addressed?
   c. There were many comments about the disadvantages for teachers and non-teachers. How would you describe any advantages each group has as counseling students?

9. Please describe how, if at all, you differentiate your approach to site supervision based on your supervisees' prior professional experiences.
   a. What specifically do you do differently?
   b. Do you assign supervisees different tasks based on their professional backgrounds?

10. How would you describe your philosophy of site supervision? Are there any academic resources or professional experiences that have helped you develop your philosophy?

11. Please describe any kind of preparation you had for being a site supervisor.
12. If you have received formal training, please briefly describe the topics discussed at your training session.

13. Are you familiar with any specific school counseling models of supervision?
   
   a. If so, do you employ these when working with supervisees?
   
   b. Do you feel that having knowledge of supervision models is helpful (or would be helpful)?
   
   c. Counselors indicated that they were very confident in almost every area of supervision indicated in the survey, but they were less confident about implementing models. Of those that had some familiarity with school counseling models, only two were familiar with the Peterson & Deuschle Model for Preparing Non-Teachers. Based on some of the results I have shared with you, how would you describe the value, if any, of receiving information and training on a model like this one that provides suggestions on how to differentiate supervision approaches to meet the unique needs of the non-teacher?

14. How prepared did you feel the first time you supervised a practicum or internship student?

15. Describe your level of confidence in being able to facilitate your supervisees' development? What factor(s) contribute to this?

16. Is there anything you had wished you had known prior to entering into a supervisory relationship?

17. Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about your experience as a site supervisor that might be helpful for the profession?

[Concluding remarks]

Thank you for your thoughtful responses during this interview. I am now going to turn off the audio recorder. I am going to provide you with a debriefing sheet that explains this study in detail. To summarize, the survey you completed and your interview are a part of my doctoral study of site supervisors and the extent to which they differentiate their approach to supervision based on the previous professional experiences of their supervisees. Research indicates that school counseling students with and out teaching experience have different needs. This dissertation will allow me to analyze this from the perspective of the site supervisor and make suggestions for site supervisor training.
Appendix E

Participant Information Sheet

RESEARCH SUBJECT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM
TITLE: School Counselor Training: Differentiated Site Supervision Based on Prior Work Experiences
VCU IRB NO.: HM 14325

PURPOSE OF STUDY:
The purpose of my mixed-method study is to gain an understanding of the experiences of site supervisors, and examine the themes of school counseling students’ professional backgrounds (e.g., whether or not they have prior teaching experience) from the site supervisors’ prospective. You have been asked to participate in a phone interview because you have served as a site supervisor of a school counseling practicum or internship student and indicated at the conclusion of the survey that you would be willing to be interviewed. If you decide to participate in the interview phase of this study, you will be asked, at the beginning of the interview, to verbally indicate that you have been informed about what will happen during the interview. Please contact the study staff if you have questions or do not understand any part of this form.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND YOUR INVOLVEMENT:
If you decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to acknowledge your consent after you have read the consent information and been provided the opportunity to have all of your questions answered.

During the phone interview, you will be asked a number of questions about your experiences with school counseling supervision. Because this is a distance interview, the interview can take place in the setting of your choice. Each interview will last approximately 20-30 minutes. Approximately 9-12 site supervisors will be interviewed for this study.

RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS:
No more than minimal risk is associated with participation in this study.

BENEFITS TO YOU AND OTHERS:
You may not get any direct benefit from this study, but, the information we learn from people in this study may help school counseling leaders better understand site supervisors’ beliefs, practices, and needs.

COSTS:
There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time you will spend in the interview.

CONFIDENTIALITY:
In order to document your comments during the interview accurately, our phone conversation will be on speaker and an audio recording device will be used to record our conversation. The interviewer will be the only person in the room. Data is being collected only for research purposes. All personally identifiable information, including the recorded interviews, will be kept in a locked drawer or on a password protected computer and will be destroyed upon the completion of this study. This informed consent form will be kept indefinitely. Access to all data will be limited to study personnel. A data and safety monitoring plan is established. While direct quotes may become a part of the final study, your individual identity will not be revealed at any point. A pseudonym will be assigned so that your identity will remain confidential.

Findings from this study may be presented at meetings or published in papers, but your name will not ever be used in these presentations or papers.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL:
Your participation in this interview is not required. If you choose to participate, you may stop at any time without any penalty. You may choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study.

QUESTIONS:
In the future, you may have questions about your participation in this study. If you have any questions, complaints, or concerns about the research, contact:

Office for Research: Virginia Commonwealth University
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 113
P.O. Box 980568
Richmond, VA 23298
Telephone: 804-827-2157

Primary Investigator: Jonathan Becker, J.D., Ph.D.
School of Education
Virginia Commonwealth University
Telephone: 804-827-2655
Email: jbecker@vcu.edu

Student: Rachel S. Loving, Ph.D.
Candidate: Educational Leadership
Virginia Commonwealth University
Telephone: 804-398-9107
Email: savagerd@vcu.edu

CONSENT:
Prior to the start of your phone interview, you will be asked if you have been given the chance to read this consent document, if you understand the information about this study, and if all the questions that you have about this study have been answered. Lastly, you be asked to give your verbal consent to participate in the interview portion of this study.
Appendix F

Interview Debriefing Sheet

Dear School Counselor,

Thank you so much for participating in the interview phase of this study. As you learned from completing the survey, the purpose of this study is to gain information about the experiences of site supervisors as they supervise practicum and internship students with and without prior teaching experience. Additionally, this study explores how site supervisors understand supervision and aims to identify site supervisors’ training needs, if any.

As of 2005, 73% of school counseling students in CACREP accredited programs did not have teaching experience (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). While school counselors without teaching experience have been shown to be effective, the practicum and internship play a large role in their preparedness for the school setting (Beale & McCay, 2001). Research has linked positive supervision techniques to higher school counseling intern confidence (Better-Fitzhugh, 2010). Research also indicates that few opportunities for site supervisor training exist and that site supervisors may not be aware of models that can help them meet the needs of school counselors-in-training (DeKruyf, 2007; DeKruyf & Pehersson, 2011), especially those without teaching experience. Your responses will help the profession gain understanding of the beliefs, practices, and needs of site supervisors.

In a few weeks, you will receive a transcript of our conversation. If you have any corrections or comments to make about the interview, please notify me with two weeks so that I can make any adjustments to the transcript. Thank you again for your time at this busy time of year.

Sincerely,

Rachel S. Loving, M.Ed. (savagerd@vcu.edu)
Doctoral Student, Virginia Commonwealth University

Jonathan Becker, Ph.D. (jbecker@vcu.edu)
Assistant Professor/Primary Investigator, Virginia Commonwealth University
DATE: April 16, 2012

TO: Jonathan D. Becker, JD, PhD
School of Education, Educational Leadership
Box 842020

FROM: Lisa M. Abrams, PhD
Chairperson, VCU IRB Panel B
Box 980568

RE: VCU IRB #: HM14325
Title: School Counselor Training: Differentiated Site Supervision Based on Prior Work Experiences

On April 16, 2012, the following research study was approved by expedited review according to 45 CFR 46.110 Categories 6 and 7. The approval reflects the revisions received in the Office of Research Subjects Protection on April 11, 2012. This approval includes the following items reviewed by this Panel:

RESEARCH APPLICATION/PROPOSAL: None

PROTOCOL (Research Plan): School Counselor Training: Differentiated Site Supervision Based on Prior Work Experiences, received 4/11/12, version 3
- VCU IRB Study Personnel Roster, received 3/21/12, version 1
- Site Supervision Questionnaire, received 4/11/12, version 2
- Contact Information for Phone Interview, received 4/11/12, version 2
- Protocol for Interview Participants, received 4/11/12, version 2

CONSENT/ASSENT (attached):
- Site Supervision Questionnaire: Survey Information and Consent, received 4/11/12, version 2, 2 pages
- Consent Form for Interview Volunteers, received 4/11/12, version 2, 2 pages
- Waiver of Documentation of Consent for Online Survey and Phone Interviews: One of the conditions set forth in 45 CFR 46 117(e)(2), for waiver of documentation of consent has been met and the IRB Panel has waived documentation of consent.

ADDITIONAL DOCUMENTS (attached):
- Invitation Email, received 4/11/12, version 2
- Final Message to Survey Participants, received 4/11/12, version 2
- Follow-Up Email, received 3/21/12, version 1
- Survey Disqualification Message, received 3/21/12, version 1
- Debriefing Sheet for Interview Participants, received 3/21/12, version 1

This approval expires on March 31, 2013. Federal Regulations/VCU Policy and Procedures require continuing review prior to continuation of approval past that date. Continuing Review report forms will be mailed to you prior to the scheduled review.

(Continued...)
The Primary Reviewer assigned to your research study is Lisa Abrams, PhD. If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Abrams at labrams@vcu.edu and 827-2627; or you may contact Jennifer Rice, IRB Coordinator, VCU Office of Research Subjects Protection, at irbpanelb@vcu.edu and 828-3992.

**Conditions of Approval:**

In order to comply with federal regulations, industry standards, and the terms of this approval, the investigator must (as applicable):

1. Conduct the research as described in and required by the Protocol.

2. Obtain informed consent from all subjects without coercion or undue influence, and provide the potential subject sufficient opportunity to consider whether or not to participate (unless Waiver of Consent is specifically approved or research is exempt).

3. Document informed consent using only the most recently dated consent form bearing the VCU IRB “APPROVED” stamp (unless Waiver of Consent is specifically approved).

4. Provide non-English speaking patients with a translation of the approved Consent Form in the research participant's first language. The Panel must approve the translated version.

5. Obtain prior approval from VCU IRB before implementing any changes whatsoever in the approved protocol or consent form, unless such changes are necessary to protect the safety of human research participants (e.g., permanent/temporary change of PI, addition of performance/collaborative sites, request to include newly incarcerated participants or participants that are wards of the state, addition/deletion of participant groups, etc.). Any departure from these approved documents must be reported to the VCU IRB immediately as an Unanticipated Problem (see #7).

6. Monitor all problems (anticipated and unanticipated) associated with risk to research participants or others.

7. Report Unanticipated Problems (UPs), including protocol deviations, following the VCU IRB requirements and timelines detailed in VCU IRB WPP VIII-7:

8. Obtain prior approval from the VCU IRB before use of any advertisement or other material for recruitment of research participants.

9. Promptly report and/or respond to all inquiries by the VCU IRB concerning the conduct of the approved research when so requested.

10. All protocols that administer acute medical treatment to human research participants must have an emergency preparedness plan. Please refer to VCU guidance on http://www.research.vcu.edu/irb/guidance.htm.

11. The VCU IRBs operate under the regulatory authorities as described within:
   a) U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Title 45 CFR 46, Subparts A, B, C, and D (for all research, regardless of source of funding) and related guidance documents.
   b) U.S. Food and Drug Administration Chapter 1 of Title 21 CFR 50 and 56 (for FDA regulated research only) and related guidance documents.
   c) Commonwealth of Virginia Code of Virginia 32.1 Chapter 5.1 Human Research (for all research).
Vita

Rachel Savage Loving was born on February 6, 1978 in Hampton, Virginia, and is an American citizen. She graduated from Collegiate School, Richmond, Virginia in 1996. She received her Bachelor of Arts in Psychology from Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Virginia in 2000 and her Master of Education in Counselor Education from Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia in 2002. During graduate school, she worked as a research assistant for the Metropolitan Educational Research Consortium (MERC) at Virginia Commonwealth University. She subsequently worked as a school counselor for ten years, serving in the roles of guidance director and site supervisor for internship and practicum students. Additionally, she has served as an adjunct instructor in the Counselor Education Department at Virginia Commonwealth University teaching counseling techniques and practicum courses to masters-level school counselors-in-training.