

SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE AND EGO DEVELOPMENT OF COUNSELING INTERNS'
SITE SUPERVISORS AND SUPERVISEES' LEVEL OF EGO DEVELOPMENT
AND OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

by

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ABSTRACT

The primary purposes of this study were (a) to investigate the relationship between counseling interns' site supervisors' experience and training in supervision and their own levels of ego development and (b) to investigate the relationship between supervisors' levels of ego development and the ego functioning and occupational stress of their intern-supervisees. The theoretical framework for this investigation included cognitive developmental models of supervision (e.g., Blocher, 1983; Stoltenberg, 1981), ego development (Loevinger, 1976, 1997) and the Person-Environment Fit theory of occupational stress (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974). The findings of this study contribute to an understanding of (a) the levels of ego development and post-degree clinical supervision experiences of internship site supervisors in different areas of counseling specialty; (b) the relationship between social-cognitive developmental levels and levels of perceived occupational stress in counseling interns; and (c) cognitive development theory and counseling supervision.

Ninety-six counseling internship students in three master's level counseling programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation for Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) in Central Florida as well as 58 (73% response rate) of their internship site supervisors participated in the study. The site supervisors completed the *Supervisors Experience Questionnaire* (Walter, 2008) and the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test—Form 81* (WUSCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996). The participating counseling internship students completed a demographics questionnaire, the WUSCT—Form 81, and the *Occupational Stress Inventory – Revised* (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998). The statistical procedures used to analyze the data included chi-square, ANOVA, simultaneous multiple regression, and MANOVA procedures.

The primary research hypotheses for the study were (1) that formal training in supervision and participation in post-graduate clinical supervision would predict supervisor ego development and (2) that supervisor ego development would predict supervisee ego development and occupational stress levels; these were not supported for these data. However, the results identified statistically significant relationships between supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and area of counseling specialty, with school counselor supervisors less likely to have participated in supervision than other supervisors. Additionally, the findings identified a negative correlation between interns' levels of perceived occupational stress and their ego development levels (14.6% of the variance explained), as well as a negative correlation between interns' levels of satisfaction with their internship site supervision and their levels of occupational stress (40% of the variance explained). The data from this investigation suggested that school counseling interns experienced higher levels of occupational stress due to occupational roles and lower levels of personal resources than interns in other counseling tracks, with the track accounting for 25.6% of the variance in the occupational stress levels. Implications for counseling supervisors and counselor educators are presented, along with areas for future investigation.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Fostering the social-cognitive growth of counselors is a primary goal of the supervisor in counselor preparation programs (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Borders, 1998; Bradley & Kottler, 2001). Counselors who score at higher levels of social-cognitive functioning (ego development) are (a) more capable of integrating complex and diverse pieces of information, (b) less judgmental and less prone to rely on stereotypes, (c) more capable of advanced empathy and perspective taking, and (d) more comfortable with unknown and ambiguous situations (Lambie & Sias, 2009). Such qualities aid the counselor in functioning optimally in their work with clients (Blocher, 1983). Additionally, counselors with higher levels of development are more likely to exhibit characteristics associated with personal wellness (Lambie, Smith, & Ieva, in press), which protects against the effects of job stress, a significant issue for counselors (Farber, 1983; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Thus, counselors at higher levels of ego development possess qualities desirable for effective practitioners.

The counseling internship, when compared to other portions of a counselor's preparation program, is the period when the greatest amount of growth occurs (Borders, 1998; Granello, 2002). Developmental counselor-in-training growth is supported and explained by cognitive developmental theory, which asserts that individuals progress in their developmental levels when they engage in experiences which require them to adjust their schema of meaning-making to incorporate new and diverse information (Manners & Durkin, 2002; Piaget, 1955). In the case of the counseling internship, counselors-in-training have the opportunity to experience the real setting in which counseling takes place, and to apply and adjust what they have learned in theory to assimilate and then accommodate the reality of practice. Supervisors play a vital role in

assisting and supporting their supervisees in reflecting upon and integrating newly acquired knowledge (Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998). For this reason, research suggests that counseling experience alone does not support developmental growth and increased counselor effectiveness; rather, growth occurs in counselors-in-training when working with clients and receiving appropriate clinical supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009).

Counseling supervisors have the task of supporting the personal and professional development of counselors-in training. Supervision, which can be seen as a form of deliberate psychological education (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971), provides the supervisee with the developmentally appropriate levels of challenge and support (Blocher, 1983). A supervisor would, however, need to be functioning at a developmental level higher than his or her supervisee in order to facilitate this growth (Cebik, 1985; Swensen, 1980). Additionally, supervisors who practice ethically and effectively need to have received formal training in supervision (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2005; Association for Counselor Education and Supervision [ACES], 1993). However, research investigating the levels of socio-cognitive (ego) functioning of supervisors and their levels of experience and formal training in supervision is limited (Borders, 1998).

The focus of this study was to investigate the clinical supervision experiences of internship site supervisors of counseling interns and how these experiences affected supervisor ego development. Additionally, this study examined the relationship between supervisors' levels of ego functioning and the ego developmental and occupational stress levels of their supervisees (student-interns). The findings of this study contribute to the counselor education and supervision research literature.

Background of the Study

Counseling supervision has, over the course of the last several decades, emerged as a distinct area of specialty within the profession of counseling (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Borders & Brown, 2005; Dye & Borders, 1990). Experts in the field recognize counseling supervision as a distinct activity, separate from teaching, counseling, and consultation (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Borders, 1987). Supervision may be defined as a process in which a senior member of the profession who is appropriately prepared, licensed, or certified provides regular and consistent instruction, support, feedback, and evaluation to a junior member of the profession (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Lambie & Sias, 2009). The tasks of the supervisory relationship are (a) to facilitate both the professional and personal development of the counselor; (b) to promote the development of the counselor's competencies; (c) to provide gatekeeping for the profession; and (d) to promote accountability in counseling programs and relationships with the public (Bradley & Kottler, 2000). Supervision has received more attention as research has demonstrated the significant role the supervisory process contributes in fostering the development of the psychological attributes within the supervisee that are associated with positive client outcomes, personal wellness, more effective service delivery, and protection against stress and burnout (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Herlihy, Gray, & McCollum, 2002; Lambie, 2007; Lambie & Sias, 2009).

Regardless of the area of specialty in which counselors intend to practice, all counseling preparation programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) require counseling students to participate in a minimum 600 hour, supervised internship after the completion of their practicum experience in which they have weekly interaction, for an average of 1-hour per week, with an appropriately credentialed

site supervisor (CACREP, 2009; Section III G.2). Additionally, counseling interns are required to participate in 1.5 hours of group supervision per week, facilitated by their preparation program. Research suggests that many counselors share the common problem that they are likely to be supervised by non-counseling professionals (i.e., administrators) (Borders & Usher, 1992; Studer, 2005), or other counselors who have had little or no formal training in supervision (Nelson & Johnson, 1999; Nelson, Johnson, & Thorngren, 2000). However, depending on the specialty and work setting of the counselor (i.e., mental health, school counseling), he or she will likely experience variation in terms of the extent and quality of supervision he or she receives after graduation. For example, while mental health counselors must typically complete 2,000 to 3,000 hours of post-master's supervised experience for state licensure (Herlihy et al, 2002), in most jurisdictions, post-master's clinical supervision is not mandated for school counselors (Studer, 2005).

Counselors may also differ in terms of the type of supervision they receive, depending on their work settings. In administrative supervision, for instance, the focus is on planning, program implementation and evaluation; in clinical supervision, the emphasis is on the facilitation of the development of the counselor and the delivery of counseling services (Duncan, 2003).

Additionally, no professional standards exist that address responsibilities for school counselors to seek supervision (Bultsma, 2008). State and national surveys have found significant discrepancies exist between the number of school counselors who desire post-master's clinical supervision and those who receive it (Page, Pietrzak, & Sutton, 2001; Roberts & Borders, 1994; Sutton & Page, 1994). Further, school counselors report dissatisfaction with the supervision they do receive (Davis, 1984) and describe the quality of their supervision as deficient (Bultsma, 2008). Thus, although all counseling students in CACREP accredited programs share program

requirements, the supervision they receive by site supervisors during their internship experience may vary significantly as a function of their work setting and specialty area and in terms of the type of supervision received and the preparation and experience of their supervisor.

Supervision is the catalyst which facilitates the growth process within counselors (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Developmental models of supervision (e.g., Blocher, 1983; Stoltenberg, 1981; Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998) posit that during effective supervision, the supervisor provides an environment which is appropriately structured to provide an optimal mismatch between situational demands and the resources of the supervisee. Blocher (1983) and Stoltenberg (1981) both asserted that this optimal level of dissonance between challenge and support stimulates cognitive growth. Thus, supervision can essentially be seen as a form of deliberate psychological education (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971) that uses the environment, specific content, and the supervisor-supervisee relationship to “systematically change the psychological functioning” (Blocher, 1981, p. 28) of the supervisee.

According to cognitive developmental theory (e.g., Kohlberg, 1981; Loevinger, 1976; Piaget, 1955), for growth to occur, the environment must provide sufficient dissonance; however, the individual must also have the resources to adapt effectively to the experience. Appropriate counseling supervision, which includes the optimal balance of support to challenge, sufficient time for self-reflection, and the deliberate focus on the development and growth of the supervisee (Blocher, 1983), should provide the necessary environment for the supervisee to make the accommodations for the stresses of his or her new role and identity. On the other hand, without the intentional focus on supervisee development, time for reflection, and sufficient support, counseling interns exposed to the highly disequilibrating experience of internship, especially if the actual job differs greatly from initial expectations, may not be able to

successfully adapt to their new situations through accommodation and thus regress (Manners & Durkin, 2002). In terms of developmental theory, these individuals would be seen as assimilating but not accommodating. Supervisors who themselves had limited or inadequate experiences as supervisees when they were new to the profession may be ill equipped to deliver appropriate supervision to their supervisees (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). These supervisors may not have the relevant knowledge or skills relating to the structuring of the supervisory environment and relationship.

Given the significant role supervision plays in terms of the personal, professional, and skill development of the supervisee, the discrepancy in the levels of engagement in post-master's supervision between school counselors and counselors in other areas of specialty (i.e., mental health or marriage and family therapy) may have far-reaching effects. Research has shown that school counselors' level of ego functioning is somewhat lower than that of mental health and community counselors (Diambra, 1997). Granello (2002) ($N = 205$) found that school counselors regressed slightly in terms of their cognitive growth after their internship experience, whereas counselors in the other areas of specialty (community mental health, clinical mental health, rehabilitation, and marriage and family counseling) developed cognitively in accordance with proposed models. Supervision is the primary catalyst for the development of the counselor (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009), and it is thus both understandable and likely that deficient supervision would result in sub-optimal supervisee development, and ultimately, in the delivery of less effective counseling services.

An additional benefit of supervision includes decreased feelings of role ambiguity, role stress, and isolation on the part of the supervisee (Coady, Kent, & Davis, 1990; Collings & Murray, 1999; Culbreth, Scarborough, Banks-Johnson, & Solomon, 2005; Herlihy et al, 2002;

Lambie & Sias, 2009; Ross, Altmaier, & Russell, 1989, Russel, Altmaier, & Van Velzen, 1987). School counselors, compared to counselors practicing in other areas of specialty, are particularly susceptible to experiencing these feelings (Butler & Constantine, 2006; Brott & Myers, 1999; Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Culbreth et al, 2005; Kendrick, Chandler, & Hatcher, 1994; Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Lieberman, 2004; Olsen & Dilley 1988, Sears & Navin, 1983). Thus, especially after considering the multitude of student-client issues with which school counselors are confronted (e.g., child abuse, suicide, bullying, large caseloads, etc.), supervision is a particularly vital process for assisting the school counselor in coping with job related stress. Maslach and colleagues (2001) asserted that a strong body of research evidence links a lack of social support to burnout, a response to stressors in the workplace. These authors added that lack of support from supervisors is even more detrimental than a lack of support from coworkers. Further, a lack of supervision may result in lower levels of ego development and coping skills (Lambie, 2007), which in turn magnifies the effects of the considerable job stress school counselors in particular already experience.

The results of engagement in effective clinical supervision as a professional counselor have implications that go beyond the effects on the counselor alone. Most mental health professionals will eventually go on to supervise others that are new to the profession (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009), and these supervisors' understanding and practice of supervision will likely be limited to the experiences they themselves received (Bultsma, 2008). Thus, counselors who received deficient supervision as new professionals, or, as the case may be, none at all, will be ill-prepared to provide adequate supervision and support to others, thus perpetuating this dysfunctional cycle. Compounding the problem of inadequate personal experience in supervision is the issue that most master's level counselors do not have formal training in supervision

(Nelson & Johnson, 1999; Nelson et al, 2000). Additionally, developmental theories suggest that supervisors should be functioning at a developmental level that is at least one stage higher than their supervisees in order to be able to facilitate growth in the supervisee (Cebik, 1985; Manners & Durkin, 2002; Swensen, 1980). If a counseling supervisor's own supervision experience did not provide the opportunity for optimal development (Stoltenberg, 1981) in which there was an appropriate balance of challenge and support (Blocher, 1981), it seems unlikely this supervisor would be able to provide a different experience when supervising others. Borders (1998) asserted that investigating the connection between supervisors' levels of development and supervision experience and supervisee outcomes may be the key to the advancement of the application of developmental models of counselor supervision.

Statement of the Problem

Few studies have attempted to ascertain and describe the level of engagement in post-master's clinical supervision on the part of professional counselors. Borders and Usher (1992) conducted a national survey of 357 National Certified Counselors (NCC) to assess the frequency and desire for post-graduate supervision practices among counselors in various work settings. Their results indicated that 32.1% of practicing counselors were receiving no supervision in their current counseling positions and 34% reported receiving supervision once a month. These authors found that school counselors were the least likely counseling professionals to be receiving supervision. However, this study did not investigate what type of supervision (i.e., administrative or clinical) was received, but rather described the reasons counselors sought supervision, the format of the supervision (e.g. group or individual), and the credentials of the supervisor. Other state and national surveys that have investigated supervision practices of

professional school counselors (Page et al, 2001; Roberts & Borders, 1994; Sutton & Page, 1994) have assessed current engagement in supervision at the time of the actual survey; however, in most studies, prior post-graduate supervision experience was not described. A multitude of theoretical and position statements which lament the status of supervision for school counselors exist in the literature (e.g., Dollarhide & Miller, 2006; Roberts & Morotti, 2001), and there is a strong basis to assume that discrepancies between optimal and actual practice of supervision exist. However, there is not a clear picture as to the current status as well as the cumulative post-graduate supervision experience of professional counselors in different specialties.

Research is also lacking which may shed light on how the supervision experience and training of supervisors affects their own levels of ego development and, further, how their levels of ego functioning may relate to the developmental levels of their supervisees. The theoretical framework of ego development (Loevinger, 1976) has been applied to research involving counselors because “high levels of conceptual and ego development are the desired outcomes of counselor training and supervised clinical experiences” (Borders, 1998, p. 334). Thus far, research in the area of ego development in counseling students has focused on students’ counseling-related cognitions (Borders, 1989; Borders, Fong, & Niemeyer, 1986), students’ counseling ability (Borders & Fong, 1989; Callanan, 1986; McIntyre, 1985; Zinn, 1995), students’ levels of wellness and psychological distress (Lambie et al, in press), and changes in students’ ego levels as a result of training and experience (Diambra, 1997; Fong & Borders, 1996; Peace, 1998; Watt, Robinson, & Lupton-Smith, 2002). Studies have not provided descriptive information about the ego functioning levels of counseling internship site supervisors nor the impact of these levels on student outcomes (Borders, 1998).

Purpose and Implications of the Study

Information regarding the effects of supervisor participation in post-graduate supervision on the supervisor's developmental level may help to explain research findings of varying levels of ego development of intern-supervisees. Further, this study investigated the relationship between internship site supervisors' engagement in post-graduate supervision and their intern-supervisees' levels of ego development and job stress. Specifically, this study was primarily concerned with investigating the following questions that address the gaps identified in the research:

1. To what extent have counseling supervisors in different areas of counseling specialties participated in post-graduate clinical supervision themselves? What kinds of formal training experiences have supervisors received? What are internship site supervisors' levels of ego functioning?
2. What is the relationship between supervisors' participation in post-graduate supervision to his or her level of ego development?
3. What is the relationship between a supervisor's ego development level to the ego development level and perceived job stress of his or her supervisee?

Many authors have called for counselor education programs to provide professional training and development in supervision techniques to practicing school counselors, increasing the pool of trained school counselor supervisors (Herlihy et al, 2002; Roberts & Morotti, 2001). Additionally, Hoffman (1994) referred to the lack of formal training for counseling supervisors in general as the counseling profession's "dirty little secret" (p. 25). ACES (1993) stated that "supervisors should have had training in supervision prior to initiating their roles as supervisors" (Section 2.01). ACA (2005), in the *Code of Ethics*, supported this requirement by maintaining

that supervisors should be adequately prepared in supervision. Results from this study thus serve to add support to existing ethical standards for supervision as well as support toward efforts to advocate for required formal training in clinical supervision for all internship supervisors.

In summary, information from this study serves to (a) clarify the need for supervision training and professional development for internship site supervisors by examining supervisors' experiences and the relationship of these experiences to their levels of ego functioning, and (b) deepen the understanding of the connections between supervisory experience and supervisor ego functioning and supervisee development and job stress. Findings of significant correlations between supervisory experience and supervisee development and job stress may provide motivation for practicing supervisors to participate in professional development and training in supervision. The findings of this study also have additional implications for counselor educators and supervisors. Information on the status of engagement in supervision on the part of their site supervisors as well as information on the effects of this engagement on supervisor development and the ego development and job stress levels of their supervisees may be useful in counselor educators' roles as advocates for and providers of formal training in supervision. Finally, data from this investigation aid counselor educators in their gatekeeping function and provide support for necessary programmatic revision (i.e., new requirements for internship site supervisors).

Definitions of Terms

CACREP program: A master's degree program in counselor preparation which is accredited by the Council on Counseling and Related Education Programs.

Ego Development: a “holistic construct representing the fundamental structural unity of personality organization” (Manner & Durkin, 2002, p. 542), which “incorporates cognitive, moral, self, interpersonal, and character development” (Lambie & Sias, in press).

Occupational Stress: A discrepancy between a worker’s perceived demands stemming from the workplace and the worker’s perceived ability to cope (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974), which may contribute to burnout and/or attrition (Maslach et al, 2001).

Intern: A school, mental health, or marriage and family counseling student who is participating in the internship portion of graduate training.

Internship: A minimum 600 hour clinical experience in which counseling students, under the supervision of a site supervisor and in conjunction with a master’s level course at their university, participate in a range of professional duties in a counseling setting. Student-interns also receive group supervision for a minimum of 1.5 hours per week under the supervision of a university faculty member. This experience occurs at the end of students’ graduate training program and takes place over the course of one or two academic semesters.

Post-graduate Supervision Experience: the amount of time a current site supervisor has spent in supervision as a supervisee while practicing as a professional counselor after graduating from a master’s program as well as the amount of formal training in supervision a site supervisor has received. “Experience” also includes the quality of the supervisors’ clinical supervision, as perceived by the supervisor.

Site Supervisors: The senior professional at the site of the internship who is directly responsible for the professional development and ethical service delivery of the counseling intern practicing in his or her setting.

Clinical Supervision: a process in which a senior member of the profession who is appropriately prepared, licensed, or certified provides regular and consistent instruction, support, feedback, and evaluation to a junior member of the profession. The tasks of this relationship are (a) to facilitate both the professional and personal development of the counselor; (b) to promote the development of the counselor's competencies; and (c) to promote accountability in counseling programs and relationships with the public (Bradley & Kottler, 2001).

Theoretical Rationale

Supervised Experience as an Indicator of Developmental Level in Site Supervisors

The importance of the supervised experience to the overall development of counselors has been well documented in the literature. For example, Fong, Borders, Ethington, and Pitts (1997) found that it was not until after counselors' -in-training supervised fieldwork experiences that students' ($N = 43$) cognitive self appraisal increased. These authors found cognitive self appraisal to remain constant until their supervised internship experience, suggesting that the internship provided an experience rich in dissonance, requiring assimilation and adaptation (growth). Lovell (1999) found that the amount of supervised clinical experience was the most important predictor of counseling interns' ($N = 83$) cognitive developmental level. Additionally, Levy (2004) found that counselors ($N = 85$) grew in terms of major psychosocial attributes at a greater rate during their supervised internship than at other times during their preparation programs. Granello (2002) found that students in counseling programs exhibit a positive trend in

their cognitive development in a predictable manner, with the greatest jumps in their development taking place during their supervised internship experience. Bernard and Goodyear (2004) concluded that there is “very little evidence that experience alone leads to developmental gains. Yet the changes observed within supervisees under supervision are promising” (p. 111). This line of research would suggest that practicing professionals with more supervised experience would be likely to score at higher developmental levels. Indeed, Diambra (1997) suggested that school counselors’ lack of adequate supervision and mentoring from experienced counselors may explain his findings that NCCs in schools had lower ego development scores than counselors in other work settings.

Although Loevinger (1976) described the adult ego level as stable and highly resistant to change efforts, Manners, Durkin, and Nesdale (2004) found that significant increases in ego development stages among adults can be facilitated. These authors described a framework for interventions which includes structuring the environment to include an appropriate level of structural disequilibrium, which results in initial dissonance and ultimate accommodative adaptation within the learner. Thus, for counselors to develop optimally, a supervisor would need to structure the supervision environment one to two stages higher than the supervisee’s level of ego maturity (Lambie & Sias, 2009). Lambie and Sias (2009) developed a supervisory model specifically designed to promote school counseling interns’ ego development; these authors also constructed a similar model to support the development of substance abuse counselors-in-training (Sias & Lambie, 2008). A problem arises, however, when the supervisor is functioning at a developmental level that is equivalent to or even lower than the level of the supervisee. A supervisor would only be capable of providing a supervisory environment that reflects his or her own developmental stage, and not necessarily the one the supervisee would require for stage

growth (Swensen, 1980). In this manner, supervisors' experience in post-graduate supervision can impact their developmental levels, and, subsequently, their development can impact their ability to facilitate developmental growth in their supervisees. Additionally, developmental theory would suggest that lower levels of ego development would result in a decreased ability to cope with occupational stress as well as a tendency to perceive higher levels of stress and become more easily overwhelmed by stress variables (Steinwald, 1994). Research additionally suggests that stressful events can result in a regression in terms of ego functioning. For example, Lanning, Colucci, and Edwards (2007) demonstrated how the events of September 11, 2001 resulted in a decline in ego development scores in 24 undergraduate students in a public university in the United States. These findings point to the possible dynamic of ego development levels and levels of perceived stress.

Ego Development

Loevinger's (1976) model of ego development is based on an amalgamation of many different prior models of development (e.g., Kohlberg, 1981; Piaget, 1955). All developmental theories embrace the concept that individuals progress through a series of qualitatively unique and distinct stages that are hierarchically arranged in terms of complexity levels (Chagnon & Russell, 1995). Movement through the developmental stages is facilitated when the individual encounters an appropriate level of stimulus that encourages modification of existing cognitive schema and an integration, or assimilation of new information (Blocher, 1981). In other words, the individual goes through a process of assimilating and accommodating new information, resulting in an adaptation of mental schema. While Piaget's (1955) theory of development focused on the cognitive realm, and Kohlberg's (1981) theory described moral development,

Loevinger's ego development theory is more holistic, encompassing the realms of cognition, self and interpersonal perception, character development, and moral reasoning (Manners & Durkin, 2000).

Fundamental to Loevinger's (1976) theory are the nine ego levels, which are hierarchical and sequential and represent a progression toward greater self and interpersonal awareness, cognitive and conceptual complexity, flexibility, personal autonomy, comfort with ambiguity, and personal responsibility (Lambie, 2007; Manners & Durkin, 2000). These levels include: (a) pre-social/symbiotic, (b) Impulse, (c) Self-Protection, (d) Conformist, (e) Self-Aware, (f) Conscientious, (g) Individualistic, (h) Autonomous, and (i) Integrated. (See Table 1 for elaboration). Each of the levels is more complex than the one preceding it and each level can be described by specific structures and behaviors. Loevinger's model offers a sound theoretical base for counselor supervision theories (Lambie & Sias, 2009; Sias & Lambie, 2008) and research involving counselor development (Borders, 1998; Fong et al., 1997) because of the considerable empirical support for the construct and measure (Manners & Durkin, 2002), its holistic, comprehensive quality, and its relationship to qualities essential for counselors (Lambie & Sias, 2009).

Table 1: Ego Development Stages and Features

Level	Code	Main Features
Pre-social/Symbiotic	E1	Preverbal; exclusive gratification of immediate needs
Impulsive	E2	No sense of psychological causation; dependent; dichotomous (i.e., good/bad; nice/mean); demanding; concerned with bodily feelings; sexual and aggressive
Self-Protective	E3	Hedonistic; exploitive; externalizes blame; wary; complaining; concerned with staying out of trouble
Conformist	E4	Conventional; moralistic; stereotyped; conceptually simple; 'black and white' thinking
Self-Aware	E5	Increased appreciations of multiple possibilities, explanations, or alternatives; emerging awareness of inner feelings of self and others; concerned with God, death, relationships, health
Conscientious	E6	Reflective; responsible; empathetic; conceptual complexity; self critical; self-evaluated standards; able to see broad perspectives; concerned with values achievement
Individualistic	E7	Heightened sense of individuality; tolerant of self and others; appreciation of inner conflicts and personal paradoxes; values relationships over achievement; rich ability to express self
Autonomous	E8	High tolerance for ambiguity; respectful of autonomy of self and others; cherishes individuality; appreciates conflict as an expression of the multifaceted nature of life; relationships are seen as interdependent; concerned with self-actualization
Integrated	E9	Best described as Maslow's self-actualizing person; this level is attained by very few individuals

Taken with adaptation from Hy and Loewinger (1996) and Manners and Durkin (2000)

Occupational Stress: Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory

Research from a variety of occupational settings suggests that the interaction between the perceived demands of the workplace and one's personal abilities may best explain job-related stress (Ryska, 2002). Most theories of occupational stress (i.e., Lazarus, 1966) recognize that individuals are motivated to attain certain goals or to fulfill needs or wants which they value. An individual's well-being is seen to be compromised and a stress reaction ensues when the individual is prevented from attaining goals or when the level of incongruence between the individual and his or her environment exceeds that individual's ability to cope (Ryska, 2002). Thus, stress is conceptualized as an interaction between a person and his or her environment.

The person-environment (P-E) fit theory (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974) is an approach to the study of occupational stress in which stress is conceptualized as occurring when a lack of congruence arises between a worker and the work environment (Edwards, 1996). The theory states that stress can arise in two ways: (a) as a result of a misfit between the values of a person and the ability of the environment to fulfill those values and (b) as a result of a misfit between the abilities of a person and the demands of the work environment (Edwards, 1996). Ryska (2002) summarized P-E fit theory:

The theory of P-E fit is based on the major premise that occupational stress is generated largely from a misalignment between an individual's attributes (e.g., job skills, behavioral styles, valued goals) and the characteristics of the work environment (e.g., resources, demands, opportunities). The degree of congruence, or fit, between the individual and the work setting may be manifested in the following two ways. First, P-E fit reflects the extent to which relevant characteristics of the work environment meet the needs of the individual. Second, the notion of fit reflects the degree to which an individual's abilities

meet the requirements of the job. Hence, the occupational setting may be perceived as stressful in that it does not provide the individual with resources needed to achieve his or her motives or the individual's abilities are inadequate to satisfy the job demands required to supply the resources. (p.197)

Research suggests that individuals employed in occupations, such as counseling, which involve providing services to others are particularly susceptible to stress and burnout (Farber, 1983; Maslach & Jackson, 1981, Maslach et al, 2001). Studies of perceived job stress among mental health professionals have demonstrated that variables which are associated with job stress are frequently related to job design, such as overall workload, role conflict, role ambiguity and confusion, and supervision quality (Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Collings & Murray, 1996; Culbreth et al, 2005; Kendrick, Chandler, & Hatcher, 1994; Shinn. Rosario, Morch, & Chestnut, 1984; Ross, Altmaier, & Russell, 1989; Sears & Navin, 1984; Sowa & May, 1989; Trivette, 1993). Thus, the P-E fit theory of stress (French et al, 1974) is applicable as a theoretical framework to explain the phenomenon of job stress among counseling student-interns.

Maslach and colleagues (2001) extended the person-environment fit paradigm of job stress to explain the similar construct of burnout, which is a “prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job” (p. 189). These authors asserted that the greater the mismatch between the person and his or her job, the more likely the individual would be to experience burnout. In this expanded model, Maslach and colleagues proposed that six areas of worklife are capable of resulting in a person-job mismatch: (a) workload, (b) control, (c) reward, (d) community, (e) fairness, and (f) values. Burnout is conceptualized as arising from chronic mismatches between individuals and their jobs in terms of one or all six of these areas. Further, the stress reactions and ultimate burnout experience that results from these mismatches are seen

in this expanded theoretical framework as leading to various other outcomes, such as career commitment, career satisfaction, or job performance, as well as substance abuse and other personal dysfunctionalities.

Research Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1

Supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and current participation in clinical supervision (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire) will not predict supervisor level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and the ego development level of his or her supervisee (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]).

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and the occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory [Osipow, 1998]) of his or her supervisee.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisee's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and his or her occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory - R [Osipow, 1998]).

Exploratory Research Questions

Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) of school counseling internship site supervisors and internship site supervisors in other areas of counseling specialties?

Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks?

Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant difference between the amount of post-graduate supervision experience as a supervisee (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire [Walter, 2008]) between school counseling internship site supervisors and internship site supervisors in other areas of counseling specialties?

Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the levels of job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory-R [Osipow, 1998]) reported by school counseling interns and the levels of job stress reported by interns in other counseling tracks?

Methodology

Population and Sample

The target population of the study was internship students in counselor education, CACREP accredited programs in Florida and their internship site supervisors. The accessible population was counselor education internship students in Central Florida. Five universities meet these criteria: Rollins College, Barry University (Orlando), Stetson University, the University of South Florida, and the University of Central Florida. The number of students in this population was approximately 150.

The larger the sample size the more confident one can be that the answers truly reflect the population (Frankel & Wallen, 2006). Therefore, all members of the population were invited to participate in the study.

Data Gathering

The researcher contacted the directors of the five CACREP accredited counselor education programs to ask for their participation in the study. The directors of three of the five programs that were contacted agreed to participate. These institutions include the University of Central Florida (Orlando), Rollins College (Winter Park, FL), and Stetson University (DeLand, FL). These directors gave the researcher the contact information for the instructors for all of the internship classes. The researcher contacted these internship instructors to schedule dates to visit

the internship classes to administer the research instruments and to obtain the names and mailing addresses of the students' internship site supervisors. A comprehensive list of all students and their internship site supervisors from the three universities was compiled and the participants were assigned a number for coding purposes. All of the research instruments were coded with the identification numbers to maintain confidentiality.

After receiving the mailing addresses for the internship site supervisors, the researcher contacted the supervisors following the multiple contact method described by Dillman (2002) in order to maximize response rates. The first contact was a letter, mailed October 15, 2008, which to each described the study and informed the supervisors that a questionnaire and test instrument would be forthcoming. The second mailing, sent approximately four days later, included: (a) a research cover letter/informed consent letter; (b) the Supervisor Questionnaire (Walter, 2008) (coded with the number of the supervisor-supervisee pair written on it); (c) the short form (18-item) of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996); (d) a five dollar bill as a token of incentive; and (f) a self-addressed stamped return envelope. As the survey packets were returned, the researcher checked off the identification numbers of the respondents on a list to keep track of who did not return the instruments. A third contact was sent out approximately 14 days later, which consisted of a letter reminding the participants to please complete and return the research instruments. Approximately 10 days after this letter, a final mailing was sent to those who still had not returned the instruments. This mailing consisted of new cover letter, replacement instruments, and another return-addressed, stamped envelope. The final instrument packets were received by the researcher by December 6, 2009.

The researcher made an appointment with each internship instructor at each of the three institutions to visit their internship classes Data collection took place between October 28, 2009

and December 2, 2009 in order to capture the effects of the end of the internship semester. In the classes, the researcher informed the students of the study, asked for their voluntary participation, and gave them letters of informed consent and the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and OSI-R (Osipow, 1998) in class. Students were also requested to complete a demographic form, which included several items such as age, gender, the number of hours completed in internship and in graduate coursework, and their levels of satisfaction with their supervisory experiences. Students were offered a small bag of cookies as an incentive for their participation. The purpose of the personal contact and of allowing students to complete the instrument in class was to increase response rates. Loevinger (1998) also recommends large group administration when possible to increase the standardization of directions given to participants.

Instrumentation

The study included four data collection instruments: (a) a Supervisor Questionnaire (Walter, 2008) designed by the researcher, (b) an Intern demographics form designed by the researcher, (c) the short form of the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test – Form 81* (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and (d) the *Occupational Stress Inventory – Revised* (Osipow, 1998).

Supervisor Questionnaire

The researcher designed a demographics questionnaire which asked internship site supervisors to identify (a) their area of counseling specialty, (b) their highest educational degree, (c) the amount of time they have worked in the field of counseling, (d) the amount of clinical supervision they received after completion of their counseling training, (e) the number of hours in their graduate preparation program, and (f) the amount (if any) of training they have received in clinical supervision. The questionnaire included definitions as necessary to clearly distinguish

clinical from administrative supervision. A definition of clinical supervision was adapted from a similar questionnaire designed by Duncan (2003). Basic demographic information, such as gender, age, and licensure status, was also requested.

Intern Demographics Form

The researcher designed an additional demographics questionnaire which asked the student-interns to identify their counseling track, the number of hours completed in their graduate program and in their internship, their levels of satisfaction with supervision (both in internship and at their universities), and basic demographic information such as gender, age, and ethnicity.

The Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT)

The *Washington University Sentence Completion Test*, Form 81 (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) is a semi-projective inventory consisting of 36 sentence stems which the respondent can complete however he or she chooses. The instrument measures a respondent's ego development level. The test was first published in 1970, revised in 1985, and revised again in 1996. This most recent revision is referred to as "Form 81". Current and former forms of the test, a history of the development of the test, the theoretical underpinnings of the test, an explanation of the scoring procedure, and extensive information regarding the test's validity and reliability can be found in the technical foundations manual (Loevinger, 1998). The test is suitable for both male and female respondents, pre-adolescents through adulthood, and can be scored by any rater who completes the written scoring exercises found in the test manual. Loevinger (1998) wrote that the provision of training exercises for raters is unique to this test among other projective test manuals and that ratings of raters who had read the written instructions in the manual and

completed the practice exercises produced ratings which agreed with the ratings of previously trained, experienced raters.

The WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) exists in two forms: one for men and one for women. The two forms differ only in terms of gender specific language. For example, item 22 on the women's form, "At times she worried about" is changed to "At times he worried about" on the men's form. The test also exists in a short form, which consists of 18 sentence stems. This test has been found to be nearly as reliable as the full, 36-item form through the split-half method of reliability testing (Novy & Francis, 1992). The WUSCT has been used in thousands of studies and found to be psychometrically sound (Lillienfeld, Wood, & Garb, 2000).

The Occupational Stress Inventory (R)

The *Occupational Stress Inventory* (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998) is intended to measure three dimensions of occupational stress: (a) Occupational Roles, (b) Personal Strain, and (c) Personal Resources for coping with workplace stress. The instrument is based on a multitude of stress theories, including the Person-Environment Fit Theory (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974) of occupational stress. Each of the three dimensions measured by the OSI-R consists of several subscales. The *Occupational Roles* subscales include the subscales of (a) Role Overload, (b) Role Insufficiency, (c) Role Ambiguity, (d) Role Boundary, and (e) Physical Environment. *Personal Strain* is measured from a set of four subscales which include (a) Vocational Strain, (b) Psychological Strain, (c) Interpersonal Strain, and (d) Physical Strain. Coping resources are measured by four scales that comprise the *Personal Resources* dimension, which include (a) Recreation, (b) Self-Care, (c) Social Support, and (d) Rational/Cognitive Coping.

The OSI-R is comprised of 140 items in total written at a seventh grade reading level. Respondents indicate on a 5-point rating scale the frequency of a stress-related event. The entire instrument takes between 25 and 35 minutes to complete. The measure is intended for use with individuals across a broad range of work environments. The OSI-R norms were based on men and women over the age of 18, of whom 75% were classified as belonging to the executive, public service/safety, professional and administrative support occupations (Mental Measurements Yearbook). The OSI-R has been used to assess occupational stress in counselors (Sowa, May, & Niles, 1994; Trivette, 1993) and specifically to assess occupational stress within the context of counselor supervision (Sterner, 2007). Therefore, this instrument was appropriate to this study, which investigated job stress experienced by counselors-in-training within the overall context of supervision.

Ethical Considerations

The following safeguards were implemented to ensure that ethical standards were upheld in this research process:

1. Permission and approval to conduct the study (including the contacting and solicitation of supervisors, internship instructors, and internship students) was obtained from the researcher's dissertation committee and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Central Florida (UCF IRB #SBE-08-05825). Applications to the institutional review boards of the participating institutions were made and written permission of each review board was obtained (See Appendices B and C).
2. Participants were fully informed of the purpose and the voluntary nature of the study in the informed consent letter.

3. No names were recorded on the instruments. The researcher was the only person who has a list that connects names to participant IDs. This list was kept separate from the instruments in accordance with IRB stipulations.
4. Participants were offered the opportunity to receive the results of the study.
5. Participants were assured that any response on any instrument will remain anonymous in the final presentation of the results, that no one other than the researcher and the raters saw the actual completed instruments, and that their responses could not in any way affect their professional positions.

Potential Limitations of the Study

1. While the target population of the study constitutes an accessible population for the researcher, it does present some limitations in terms of its generalizability. For example, laws pertaining to counselor licensure and certification for school and mental health/marriage and family counselors vary from state to state. Florida has requirements of certification that tend to be less rigorous than those of other states with regard to school counselor certification and/or licensure. For example, school counselors do not necessarily have to earn a graduate degree in counseling as long as they can demonstrate 30 graduate hours in specific counseling courses. Thus, any potential difference in preparation between school counselor supervisors and mental health counseling supervisors may be even greater in Florida than in states with stricter requirements for school counselor certification. However, by including all the CACREP programs in central Florida, differences in the data due to internship and supervisor selection and placement procedures that are unique to individual universities or types of universities

(i.e., large/small, public/private) may be minimized and results may be more likely to be generalizable to the state of Florida as a whole. Likewise, by limiting the population to CACREP programs, differences in the data that may be attributable to program quality rather than true distinctions among individuals are limited. The inclusion of five institutions allowed for a large sample size.

2. The institutions, as well as the supervisors, who elected to participate in the research may well be inherently different than the target population as a whole. Thus, results of the study should be applied with caution to the Central Florida area.
3. The size of correlation is in part a function of the variability of the two distributions to be correlated. Thus, a restricted range of scores in the variables will reduce the observed degree of relationship between the two variables. This is a potential limitation to this study, since most members of an occupational group (in this case, counseling students) have been found to occupy a similar ego maturity level (Loevinger, 1994). Most school counselors score at an E5 or an E6 level (Lambie, 2007; Lambie et al, in press). The lack of an ability of correlational research to establish causality can be seen as an inherent limitation of the design.
4. Finally, any data collection instrument, even with acceptable psychometric qualities (i.e., validity and reliability estimates) has some measurement error.

Summary

This chapter introduced the important role supervision plays in fostering the socio-cognitive (ego) development of counselors, which aids in the development of qualities essential for effective service delivery and protection against the occupational stress experienced by

counselors practicing in all areas of specialty. Evidence was also presented which suggested that counseling internship site supervisors, due to a lack of formal training in supervision as well as deficient personal experience in post-graduate clinical supervision, may not be adequately equipped to create an optimal supervisory environment. Such an environment would be characterized by the appropriate balance of challenge and support and would serve to foster ego development within their own intern-supervisees. Compromised ego development among counseling interns may have additional influence on counseling interns' levels of job stress as well as their ability to cope with job stress. The primary purposes of this study were: (a) to investigate the relationship between site supervisors' experience and training in supervision to their own levels of ego development, and (b) to investigate the relationship between supervisors' levels of ego development and the ego functioning and occupational stress of their intern-supervisees.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter begins by reviewing cognitive developmental theory, which was the context within which the framework for the study was situated. A more in-depth review of Loevinger's (1976) theory of ego development follows, along with a review of the pertinent empirical research involving ego development and counselors. The topic of supervision is addressed next, including a discussion on counselor preparation and supervision requirements as a function of counseling specialty and a review of the theory and research on developmental models of supervision. The study examined counseling internship site supervisors and internship students in Florida; thus, counselor licensure and certification requirements particular to the state of Florida are also reviewed. The chapter concludes with a review of the concept of work-related stress in relation to counseling, along with empirical research on stress, supervision, and ego development.

Cognitive Developmental Theory

Cognitive developmental theorists (e.g., Dewey, 1963; Kohlberg, 1981; Lewin, 1935; Piaget, 1955) posit that mature thought emerges in the individual not through simple maturation nor through direct learning alone; rather, a restructuring of psychological schema occurs, which is the result of interactions between the individual and his or her environment (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). Cognitive developmental theories have, at their core, the concept of stages, which have several primary tenets: (a) stages consist of distinct, qualitative differences in modes of thinking, reasoning, interacting with others and the environment and perceiving the world; (b) stages are organized in an invariant, hierarchical succession; and, (c) stages represent an

underlying organization of thought (scheme) (Kohlberg & Mayer). The stages in cognitive developmental theories are invariant in sequence because each stage stems from the one preceding it and prepares the path for the next stage. In contrast to stages described in maturational theories (e.g., Freud, 1923 or Erikson, 1968), the stages within the cognitive developmental framework can be seen as theoretically independent of age. Whereas cognitive developmental stages certainly correlate loosely with age levels, especially in early childhood, the emphasis in terms of progression through the stages is on experience and not on attainment of age levels. High levels of rich stimulation in concert with genetic, biological forces, rather than chronological age alone, allow for faster advancement through the series of stages. Thus, exposure to the next higher level of thought, reasoning, or meaning making as well as conflict (dissonance), which requires the individual to apply and eventually adapt the current level of thought, result in stage growth and progression.

John Dewey

John Dewey (1938, 1963) is credited with developing much of the intellectual foundation for the progressive movement in education, whose members view education as a process with the primary goal of promoting growth and development of the individual (Armstrong, Henson, & Savage, 1997). Members of Dewey's movement considered an educated person to be one who possesses the insight necessary to adapt to change. Dewey and his colleagues viewed the goal of education as the attainment within students of a higher developmental stage or level, not simply the achievement of healthy functioning of the student in the present. According to Dewey, education involves creating the conditions which allow for the maturation of psychological factors within the student and for the progression of the student toward a more complex level of

functioning (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). Dewey held that development is a progression through ordered, sequential stages (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). Development is seen as actively stimulated by the presentation of appropriately challenging conflict or dissonance within the context of interaction between a person and his or her environment.

Piaget

Piaget (1955, 1963) expanded on the principles of cognitive developmental theory by concentrating on knowledge acquisition, primarily in early childhood and school-aged children. Like Dewey, Piaget took the position that both experiences from the environment and biological maturation forces influence development within the individual. Piaget used the term *scheme* to describe an individual's frame of reference for meaning-making, and asserted that these schemes give way to increasingly sophisticated models in the course of development (Liebert & Wicks-Nelson, 1981). The progression toward more complex schemes is conceptualized within Piaget's theory as occurring in four distinct, hierarchical stages. These stages are (a) Preoperational, (b) Concrete operational, (c) Conventional, (d) and Post-conventional.

For Piaget, cognitive development is a process of adaptation, in which the individual simultaneously engages in assimilation and accommodation to build knowledge and understanding. Assimilation occurs when an individual interprets reality through the lens of his or her own internal frame of reference which was constructed from previous knowledge. During accommodation, this frame of reference is enhanced upon through its adjustment to reflect external reality. Thus, when an individual encounters a new experience or idea that does not fit into an existing cognitive scheme (determined through assimilation), disequilibrium occurs and the existing scheme is adapted through accommodation (Manners & Durkin, 2000). Conversely,

an individual may also experience disequilibrium and simply assimilate the experience into his or her scheme and maintain the current developmental stage, depending on the individual's initial developmental level (Manners & Durkin).

Kohlberg

Kohlberg (1981) expanded on Piaget's approach to cognitive development, producing a six-stage model of the development of moral development. Specifically, Kohlberg was concerned with how the ability to reason about moral issues develops in conjunction with changing cognitive capacities (Sroufe & Cooper, 1988). Kohlberg derived his model by presenting individuals of different ages with moral dilemmas (e.g., the Heinz dilemma) to solve. Kohlberg's models consist of six stages, divided into three major periods. The first two stages of his model are *Preconventional*, as the judgments made by children in these stages are based on the desire to either avoid punishment or to satisfy personal needs. *Conventional* morality describes the next major period, where individuals' moral judgments are based on internalized standards that result from experiences in the social world; the emphasis is on making decisions that others approve of and are in accordance with society's laws. Finally, individuals can move toward the stages of *Postconventional* morality in which the focus of decision making is on more abstract principles of right and wrong and the highest relevant moral principle of the dilemma. Kohlberg concluded that the development of moral reasoning lags slightly behind the cognitive skills needed to participate at a certain level of moral reasoning. In general, Kohlberg envisioned the individual developing toward an ability to see morality as less absolute and more in relation to the situation at hand. Additionally, individuals become more able to consider diverse perspectives regarding moral standards as they progress in their development (Sroufe & Cooper,

1998). Kohlberg posited that higher stages of development provide individuals with better conceptual tools for making decisions and making meaning out of one's world (Rest & Navaruez, 1992). Lambie (2002) provided substantial support for the assumption within cognitive developmental models that attainment of higher levels of development results in better functioning, due to the increased coping responses afforded to individuals operating at higher levels of development.

Hunt

Developmental models of counselor supervision (e.g., Blocher, 1983; Stoltenberg, 1981; Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998) are largely based on Hunt's (1975) model of conceptual development, in which he describes a "person-environment fit" (Stoltenberg, McNeil, & Crethar, 1994, p. 421) and argued that learners require learning environments that vary in degree of structure depending on their conceptual levels. The concept of conceptual levels is similar to Loevinger's (1976) model of ego development in that a level corresponds to a specific lens or perspective through which the world is viewed. According to Hunt (1975), conceptual levels are arranged hierarchically on a continuum that ranges from less to increasingly more complex (Lawson & Foster, 2005). Theorists concerned with counselor development and supervision have applied the concept of conceptual levels to the counselor supervision process. For example, Stoltenberg (1981) applied Hunt's model when describing the environmental conditions necessary for counselors at varying stages of their development. Stoltenberg (1981) wrote that beginning counselors, presumably at lower levels of complexity, require highly structured environments and a more didactic relationship with their supervisor, as opposed to

more advanced counselors, who function best in less structured environments in supervisory relationships which are highly collegial in nature.

Ego Development

Loevinger's (1976) model of ego development is based on an amalgamation of earlier models of development. As described earlier, developmental theories embrace the concept that individuals progress through a series of qualitatively unique and distinct stages that are hierarchically arranged in terms of complexity levels (Chagnon & Russell, 1995). Movement through the developmental stages is facilitated when the individual encounters an appropriate level of stimulus that encourages modification of existing cognitive schema and an integration, or assimilation of new information (Blocher, 1981). While Piaget's (1955) theory of development focused on the cognitive realm, and Kohlberg's (1981) theory described moral development, Loevinger's ego development theory is more holistic, encompassing the realms of cognition, self and interpersonal perception, character development, and moral reasoning (Manners & Durkin, 2000).

Mosher (1979) described Loevinger's theory and her discussion of the ego and its development as having "a quality of elusiveness, abstraction, and complexity" (p. 103). This complexity may well be due to the holistic focus of the construct. Loevinger's theory is concerned with human personality in general, and can be seen as a theory of evolving ways of knowing and meaning-making. Within this theory, the ego is conceptualized as the keystone to personality, or the master trait (Manners & Durkin, 2000), with its primary purpose to synthesize experience and provide a structure through which humans perceive and make meaning of their experiences. Loevinger (1976) asserted that people have ideas, perceptions, opinions, and rules,

as well as an organized approach to viewing themselves, others, and their interactions with their environment. This structure of meaning is the core defining process and set of characteristics of the individual. Developmentally, the ego evolves and develops through experience and interaction with other people in a logical, predictable manner, which Loevinger organizes in a series of ego levels.

Loevinger (1976) described the ego as consisting of four interwoven domains. Character development incorporates the development of moral reasoning and impulse control. Cognitive style encompasses the development of cognitive complexity and functioning. The domain of interpersonal style contains the attitudes and behaviors that comprise interpersonal relationships, the way in which these relationships are perceived, as well as the types of relationships that are preferred. Finally, conscious preoccupations describe the focus of an individual's thoughts and behaviors (Manners & Durkin, 2000).

The results of empirical research have driven Loevinger's (1976) construction of ego development theory. In the 1960's Loevinger, along with colleagues, set out to study the personality patterns of women and mothers by administering objective test items and analyzing the items for homogenous clusters which would indicate personality patterns (Loevinger, 1998). This test, the Family Problems Scale (FPS) (Loevinger, Sweet, Ossorio, & LaPerriere, 1962), was determined by Loevinger and her colleagues to measure a variable of central importance in personality (ego development). Based on the results of research with this instrument, the Sentence Completion Test (SCT; or Washington University Sentence Completion Test [WUSCT]) (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), a semi-projective test of sentence stems, was devised to measure this variable of ego development. After a long period of experimentation, the test settled to 36 sentence stems. This number of items is typical of other sentence completion tests and

produces an adequate repertoire of responses without boring or tiring the participant (Loevinger, 1998).

Fundamental to Loevinger's (1976) theory are the ego levels, which are hierarchical and sequential and represent a progression toward greater self and interpersonal awareness, cognitive and conceptual complexity, flexibility, personal autonomy, comfort with ambiguity, and personal responsibility (Lambie, 2007; Manners & Durkin, 2000). The stages represent a movement toward increasing complexity and sophistication in the manner in which experiences are organized and interpreted.

While Loevinger's original theory described only five stages, the number was expanded by the conversion of transitional sub-stages into stages and the addition of two higher level stages. Thus, the most current version of the theory contains nine levels, which range from Impulsive (E2) to Transcendent (E10) (Noam, Young, & Jilnina, 2006), although the most recent version of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) describes stages E2 through E9. Loevinger described these levels in a manner that applies to a wide range of ages and emphasizes what individuals of each stage have in common, regardless of their age. Each level in the theory has a name which describes the characteristics that are at a maximum at that particular stage, although Loevinger (1976) cautioned that it is the total pattern of characteristics that truly defines a level. Table 2 notes the levels and their most salient characteristics, as well as a more detailed description of the levels.

Table 2: Ego Development Levels and Features

Level	Code	Main Features
Pre-social/Symbiotic	E1	Preverbal; exclusive gratification of immediate needs
Impulsive	E2	No sense of psychological causation; dependent; dichotomous (i.e., good/bad; nice/mean); demanding; concerned with bodily feelings; sexual and aggressive
Self-Protective	E3	Hedonistic; exploitive; externalizes blame; wary; complaining; concerned with staying out of trouble
Conformist	E4	Conventional; moralistic; stereotyped; conceptually simple; 'black and white' thinking
Self-Aware	E5	Increased appreciations of multiple possibilities, explanations, or alternatives; emerging awareness of inner feelings of self and others; concerned with God, death, relationships, health
Conscientious	E6	Reflective; responsible; empathetic; conceptual complexity; self critical; self-evaluated standards; able to see broad perspectives; concerned with values achievement
Individualistic	E7	Heightened sense of individuality; tolerant of self and others; appreciation of inner conflicts and personal paradoxes; values relationships over achievement; rich ability to express self
Autonomous	E8	High tolerance for ambiguity; respectful of autonomy of self and others; cherishes individuality; appreciates conflict as an expression of the multifaceted nature of life; relationships are seen as interdependent; concerned with self-actualization
Integrated	E9	Best described as Maslow's self-actualizing person; this level is attained by very few individuals

Taken with adaptation from Hy and Loewinger (1996) and Manners and Durkin (2001)

Empirical Research Related to Ego Development in Counselors

The theoretical framework of ego development (Loevinger, 1976) has been applied to research involving counselors because “high levels of conceptual and ego development are the desired outcomes of counselor training and supervised clinical experiences” (Borders, 1998, p. 334). Thus far, empirical research in the area of ego development in counseling students has focused primarily on students’ counseling-related cognitions (Borders, 1989; Borders, Fong, & Niemeyer, 1986), students’ counseling ability, effectiveness, and attitudes toward clients (Borders & Fong, 1989; Callanan, 1986; Lambie et al, in press; McIntyre, 1985; Shaeffer et al, 2008; Zinn, 1995), and changes in students’ ego levels as a result of training and experience (Diambra, 1997; Fong et al, 1997; Peace, 1998; Watt, Robinson, & Lupton-Smith, 2002). There is extensive research on the construct of ego development. The following section reviews the empirical research on Loevinger’s (1976) model of ego development as it relates specifically to practicing counselors and counselors-in-training.

Ego Development and Counselor Skills, Abilities, and Effectiveness

Ample empirical research exists which suggests the importance of high levels of social-cognitive (ego) functioning in counselors with regard to effective service delivery (Lambie & Sias, 2009; Sias & Lambie, 2008). Several theorists and researchers have argued that higher levels of ego development allow for greater counselor effectiveness and for greater ability to cope with the complexities inherent in counseling relationships (Borders, Fong, & Niemeyer, 1986; Holloway & Wampold, 1986). Further, research has shown that counselors scoring at higher levels of ego development “negotiate complex situations and perform counselor-related tasks with empathy, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, boundary setting, personal and

interpersonal awareness, interpersonal integrity, and self-care more effectively than individuals at lower levels of ego development” (Lambie et al, in press).

Borders and Fong (1989) conducted a study in two parts, one with beginning counseling students and one with advanced counseling students, which explored the relationship between levels of students’ ego development and the acquisition of counseling skills and abilities. The first part of the study involved 80 beginning counseling students in the first semester of an educational specialist counselor education program who were participating in an introductory counseling skills class. These students were administered the WUSCT (Form 81) (Loevinger, 1985) and their counseling skills were assessed with two measures. One was the Global Rating Scale (GRS; Gazda, Asbury, Childers, & Walters, 1984) with videotaped counseling sessions with volunteer clients. Further, a videotaped counseling exam, which was developed by the researchers to measure the students’ ability to perform eight specific counseling skills taught over the course of the semester, was administered to each participant. This exam required students to make verbal responses to videotaped client statements which were to demonstrate a counseling skill. While a multiple regression analysis revealed no significant effect of ego functioning on counseling ability, the results of a correlational analysis showed a statistically significant positive relationship ($r = .24, p < .05$) between ego development and scores on the videotaped counseling exam.

The second part of the study (Borders & Fong, 1989) involved 44 advanced students in counselor education who were enrolled in educational specialist and counselor education and counseling psychology doctoral programs. This part of the study examined the relationship between students’ ego development levels and counseling performance ratings. After taking the WUSCT (Form 81; Loevinger, 1985) to assess their levels of ego functioning, the students

submitted an audiotape of a counseling session which they felt was representative of their work with clients. The audiotapes were rated by two trained raters using the Vanderbilt Psychotherapy Process Scale (VPPS; O'Mallery, Suh, & Strupp, 1983) to assess client and counselor qualities along with client-counselor interactions relating to counseling outcomes. Although a multiple regression analysis revealed no significant relationship between counseling performance and ego levels, Fong and Borders (1989) did report a positive trend between higher ego development scores and higher VPPS scores. Limitations of the study included a smaller and more homogenous than desirable sample size, potentially contributing to the non-statistically significant findings. However, while the two parts of the study failed to demonstrate conclusive, significant findings, the study does offer support for the claim that higher levels of ego development are related to effective counseling skills.

The relationship between counselor's expressed empathy and clients expressed counselor preference and the ego development levels of counselors and clients was explored by McIntyre (1985) in a study involving 42 master's level counseling students from a large, mid-western university. The participants were administered the WUSCT (Form 11-68; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970) and then responded to four client analogues which were developed according to Loevinger's (1976) description of ego development levels. The participants were then asked to rank-order their preference for clients and to respond in writing to the clients as if they were the client's counselor. The levels of expressed empathy for the responses to the analogues were then analyzed using an empathy scale, which included six subscales with five point rating scales. Although an analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed no significant relationship between participants' ego development levels and their expressed empathy, the data analysis did reveal a significant interaction between ego development levels and analogue level. The student

counselors responded most effectively to client analogues which were reflective of an ego development level which matched or was one level higher than their own. Further, the researchers found that as the ego development levels of the counselors increased, their empathy scores increased as well, indicating a positive relationship between counselor's empathic responses and their level of ego development. While limitations of the study include a small sample size limited to one university, this study also adds strength to the claim made by Swensen (1980) that counselors work most effectively with clients who function at a level of development similar to their own.

Borders (1984) conducted a study of 63 counseling students in an attempt to investigate the ability to discriminate between students at varying ego development levels based on the students' perceptions of and behavior with clients, and their counseling effectiveness. While ego development was measured using the WUSCT (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970), client perceptions were measured using a repertory grid technique, behavior with clients was measured with the Vanderbilt Psychotherapy Process Scale (VPPS; O'Mallery, Suh, & Strupp, 1983), and individual supervisors rated counseling effectiveness using the Counselor Evaluation Rating Scale (CERS; Myrick & Kelly, 1971). A multiple regression analysis was employed to estimate the relationship between counseling students' behavior with clients and counseling effectiveness with students' level of ego functioning. The results revealed no statistically significant relationship among the variables, although the relationship approached significance. The researcher did note, however, that counseling students at higher levels of ego development tended to use more interactional rather than physical descriptors of their clients, which indicates a positive relationship between ego development and counseling students' perception of their clients.

Zinn's (1995) study of 64 counseling practicum students further examined the relationship between counselor effectiveness and ego development. The participants were administered the WUSCT (Loevinger, 1985) to measure their levels of ego development, as well as the Counselor Evaluation Rating Scale (CERS; Myrick & Kelly, 1971) and the Counselor Rating Form (CRF; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983), an instrument which is completed by clients, to assess counselor effectiveness. The data analysis revealed no significant relationship between ego development levels and counselor effectiveness, possibly because of the small sample size and limited variance in ego development scores (91% of the practicum students scored at the Self-aware stage of ego functioning). The study provided important descriptive information as to the ego development levels that are typical of counselors-in-training, which is helpful to counselor educators and supervisors involved in structuring learning environments necessary for the socio-cognitive growth of counseling students.

The relationship between ego development in graduate students enrolled in allied health department programs and their preferred social distance from persons with disabilities was examined by Shaeffer and colleagues (2008). 102 students at one university who had all completed one semester of graduate coursework in their programs were given a demographic survey, the short-form of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and the Preferred Social Distance Scale (PSDS). Preferred social distance was found to have a statistically significant inverse relationship to ego development ($F[1, 3] = 8.447, p = .005$), indicating that individuals with lower levels of ego development preferred more distance from individuals with disabilities, specifically those with substance-related disorders. Thus, individuals at lower levels of development may be more likely to be judgmental with specific clients.

Lambie and colleagues (in press) examined the relationship between ego development levels, wellness, and psychological disturbance in a sample of 111 counseling students. Personal wellness, a quality which counseling faculty and students believe to be essential for their effectiveness with clients (Roach & Young, 2007), was measured by the Five Factor Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle (5F-Wel; Myers & Sweeney, 2005), ego development was measured by the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and psychological disturbance was measured by the Outcome Questionnaire-45.2 (OQ-45.2; Lambert, et al, 2004). No statistically significant relationship was found between ego development and psychological disturbance. However, through the application of simultaneous linear multiple regression, ego development was found to have a statistically significant relationship to Total Wellness as well as to three of the five subscales of the 5F-Wel, which were Creative Wellness, Social Self, and Physical Self. The authors also reported a significant relationship between wellness and psychological disturbance. The results suggested that ego levels and wellness may influence one another, where higher levels of ego development correlated with higher levels of counselor-in-training wellness, both desirable counselor qualities.

The research findings reviewed in this section support the claim that ego development is a key factor in the development of an effective and adaptive counselor (Lambie, 2007; Lawson & Foster, 2005). However, research is needed which will shed light on the processes through which ego development growth is facilitated.

Ego Development as a Result of Experience

Several researchers (i.e., Diambra, 1997; Schoessler, 1996) have examined the relationship between the amount of professional experience and ego development levels.

Schoessler's (1996) study involved 119 nurses and examined the relationships among personal and professional development and personal values. Development was measured using the WUSCT (Loevinger, 1985). This researcher found a statistically significant relationship between age, education, and years of experience with professional development, personal values, and ego development. Results obtained by Diambra (1997) confirmed these findings. Diambra's study explored the relationship between National Certified Counselors' (NCC) credentials and experience and their developmental levels. This researcher used both the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM; Hunt, Butler, Noy & Rosser, 1977) to assess development. One hundred thirty-four of four hundred randomly selected NCC's completed the mailed surveys. Twenty-four percent of the respondents were practicing in community-based settings, 31% in school settings, and 43% in mental health settings. His results showed no significant statistical relationship between counselor experience and conceptual level as measured by the PCM. However, a statistically significant correlation was found regarding counselor experience, determined by work setting, and ego development; mental health and community counselors scored significantly higher on ego development than school counselors. Diambra (1997) proposed counselor supervision as the most worthwhile approach to address school counselor growth and development, given the finding that school counselors' scored lower on ego development. Results of this study also corroborated Zinn's (1995) findings that the Self-aware stage (E5) of ego development is the modal level of ego functioning for counselors; 72% of the respondents in Diambra's (1997) study scored at this level.

Ego Development through Training

Research findings on the impact of training on ego development have been equivocal (Borders, 1998). While a number of studies, some longitudinal in nature, have found no impact of training and interventions on ego development, other studies have found evidence of the ability of specific interventions to result in socio-cognitive growth. Borders (1998) discussed the inherent problems in research involving the construct of ego development, such as limited variance; sample size has also been a limitation noted often in the professional literature. However, Manners and Durkin (2000), for example, acknowledged that while ego development has been found to stabilize in early adulthood among most of the population, ego stage transition in adulthood can be facilitated through exposure to specific kinds of disequilibrating emotional and interpersonal life experiences. This section reviews pertinent research studies which have explored the impact of training on ego development in counselors and counselors-in-training.

Slomowitz (1981) conducted a study using the WUSCT (Form 11-68; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970), the Defining Issues Test (DIT; Rest, 1986), and a vocabulary scale with 198 students in 32 doctoral programs with the purpose of examining the relationship between students' levels of moral and ego development and their training in psychotherapy. Slomowitz found no statistically significant relationship between training in psychotherapy and moral and ego development. Further, there was no statistically significant difference in moral and ego development between students in their first year of training and those in their third year of training. This study's findings raised the question of the correlation between ego development and training in higher education.

Borders and Fong (1997) conducted a longitudinal study of counseling students, which involved assessing the students' levels of ego development as they progressed through their

three-year training program. These researchers sought to investigate whether counselor cognitions and response behaviors change over the course of their training as well as to identify exactly at which points during the training program that cognitive changes occur. Thirty-three students were assessed using instruments to measure cognitive functioning (including the WUSCT [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) and counseling performance. While cognitive self appraisal was found to increase during the internship period, there was no significant change in ego development over time during the training program. These findings could also be a reflection of the limited sample size (10 participants did not fully complete the WUSCT and could therefore not be classified) as well as the use of non-parametric statistics (Chi square) in analyzing for change over time.

The findings by Slomowitz (1981) and Borders and Fong (1997) were in line with results obtained by White (1985) in a study of ego development levels in nursing students undergoing a 6-month nurse practitioner training program. White (1985) found no significant changes in ego development levels in these students over the course of their training program. However, students who were at lower levels of ego development were found to stay at the same level or move up, whereas students who began at higher levels tended to stay at the same level or move down. These findings led White (1985) to conclude that the instructional methods of the training program were possibly not structured to meet the learning needs of students at higher ego levels. Manners and Durkin (2000) also concluded that preliminary differences in ego development levels may influence the degree of disequilibrium, and therefore growth, that educational experiences cause within the individual.

Weitzman-Swain (1996) investigated the impact of a 10-week intervention designed to promote self reflection and empathy in counseling students on ego development levels. The

study involved 32 beginning master's level students in school, community, and student personnel programs who were randomly assigned to either an interactive journal writing group, a non-interactive journal writing group, or a no journal group. Measures of ego development, moral development, empathy, self-reflection, and need for cognition were administered at pretest and posttest. While significant differences were found among the interactive, non-interactive, and no journal groups on changes in self-reflection, with students in the interactive group showing modest gains in self-reflection, no significant differences were found among the groups on measures of ego and moral development or empathy. One possible explanation for the lack of significant findings is the short duration of the intervention; 10 weeks may not have been sufficient to observe a change in ego development levels. Additionally, the intervention might not have been impactful enough on its own to stimulate change. However, the results did indicate that self reflection, a key ability of effective counselors, is stimulated by interaction and discussion with others, an essential element in counselor preparation programs in general and the supervision process specifically.

However, research does exist which lends evidence to suggest that social-cognitive growth can occur in counseling trainees as a result of training. Granello (2002) applied Perry's (1970) model of cognitive development to counselors-in-training in a cross-sectional study of 205 students enrolled in counseling master's degree programs at 13 universities. Participants were administered the Learning Environment Preferences (LEP; Moore, 1989) instrument to assess the students' levels of cognitive development at three points during their training program (entry level, middle of the program, and end of the program). While this instrument is based on Perry's (1970) model rather than Loevinger's (1976) theory of ego development, the LEP is a similar instrument to the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) in that it is semi-projective and

begins with a sentence stem which asks respondents to reflect about their beliefs, albeit specifically regarding learning. The LEP results in an overall cognitive complexity index score (CCI), which relates to one of seven levels in Perry's (1970) model. Granello (2002) found a statistically significant trend for the CCI score and level in the counseling program. This result is interesting, especially in light of the finding that the CCI did not correlate significantly with years of experience in the human services field, suggesting that training had a more significant impact on cognitive complexity than experience alone. An additional finding of this study was that, while the CCI scores developed in the expected, positive direction as students progressed through their programs, the CCI scores of school counseling students actually showed a decline in CCI scores, with students at the completion point of their programs scoring lower than students at the entry point. The author noted the need for further research into the possible explanations for this finding.

Watt, Robinson, and Lupton-Smith (2002) investigated the relationship between ego development and racial identity of counseling students using the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and the Racial Identity Attitude Scale (RIAS; Helms, 1990). These researchers surveyed 38 graduate counseling students at a southeastern university at the beginning, middle and end points of their counseling training program. No differences were found between the RAIS and training level, and no differences between ego development and RAIS. However, an ANOVA on the three groups showed a statistically significant relationship between training level and ego development, with the biggest difference being between beginning students and those at the end-point of their program.

In a study more closely related to the effect of supervision training on ego development levels, Peace (1998) trained 11 experienced school counselors, ages 31-52, in supervision over

the course of two semesters with a focus on counselor development rather than on the evaluation of their supervisees. Counselors were assessed with multiple cognitive developmental measures (Paragraph Completion Method [PCM; Hunt et al, 1977], and the Defining Issues Test [DIT; Rest, 1986]) as a measure of moral reasoning level) as well as a supervisor skill assessment (the Flanders Interaction Analysis Scale – Adapted for Counselor Supervision [Flanders, 1970]). Qualitative assessments of the counselors’ journal entries were also made. For the cognitive developmental measure (the PCM), there was a modest but not statistically significant positive trend in the first semester; however, the change at the end of the second semester was significant ($t = 2.76, p < .025$). In terms of supervisory skills, there were significant increases in counselors’ higher order skills, their ability to accept supervisees’ feelings and ideas, and to display accurate empathy and to build on the content of the supervisee. This study contributed evidence that growth in ego functioning can occur in intentionally designed educational programs.

Thus, in summary, while research does call into question the ability of training programs to affect change in counseling students’ ego functioning, studies do support that some types of training can result in ego development growth. Equivocal findings may likely be a result of (a) methodological problems (i.e., small sample sizes), (b) statistical obstacles (the use of non-parametric statistics and limited variance), and (c) programs and interventions that do not reflect the needs of learners at certain ego levels.

Psychosocial, Developmental Models of Supervision

Counselor supervision is the primary means through which counselors-in-training develop the knowledge and skills to be effective and ethical professionals (Vaccaro & Lambie, 2007) as well as the social-cognitive abilities that allow them to function and navigate within a

complex work environment (Sias & Lambie, 2008). Developmental models of counselor supervision contain common theoretical constructs and have been supported by research (Stoltenberg & McNeil, 1997); however, different theorists approach developmental supervision differently. Borders (1986) categorized various developmental supervision models according to their focus. Russell, Crimmings, and Lent (1984) distinguished models that describe linear stages of development from ones which emphasize the progressive sets of skills supervisees master. Worthington (1987) divided the developmental models and studies he reviewed into two groups: (a) ones which emphasized the developing counselor and (b) ones which included attention to issues surrounding the developing supervisor. Holloway (1987) specifically reviewed developmental theories of supervision that were based in psychosocial developmental theory (i.e., Stoltenberg's [1981] Counselor Complexity Model, Blocher's [1983] cognitive developmental approach, and Stoltenberg and colleagues' [1998] Integrated Developmental Model), as opposed to models that do not refer to a particular theory as the origin of their work. Psychosocial, developmental theories, as categorized by Holloway (1987), are reviewed here in more detail, as they focus on (a) the need for highly developed cognitive functions within the counselor and (b) the environmental conditions within the context of supervision that are facilitative of supervisee growth, which are two issues central to the topic of this investigation.

The Integrated Developmental Model

Stoltenberg's (1981) *Counselor Complexity Model*, which was based on Hunt's concept of conceptual development, defines the features of four developmental stages as well as the necessary facilitative behaviors for the supervisor. A supervisee in the first level of the model may be highly anxious and dependent on the supervisor to provide a high degree of structure and

support. The supervisee in the second level requires less structure and more autonomy, and may experience some conflict between dependency on the supervisor and a desire for autonomy. In the third level, the supervisee leads and directs the supervision process and the supervisor provides markedly less structure, responding less hierarchically and more collegially. Stoltenberg (1981) also described the supervisor as having a key role in the growth and development of the supervisee and held the supervisor responsible for creating a supervisor environment that is optimal for the supervisee, depending on the specific developmental stage. Stoltenberg wrote that the supervisory environment should be structured in such a way that it provides “a suboptimal environment for the next highest stages and a superoptimal environment of the previous stage” (p. 60). Thus, for example, a supervisor working with a beginning supervisee would want to provide a high degree of support while encouraging autonomy.

Stoltenberg (1981) has continued to develop and refine the model, adding new collaborators (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). The recent version of the model, the *Integrated Developmental Model* (IDM; Stoltenberg, McNeill, & Delworth, 1998) has become the “best known and most widely used counseling developmental model” (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004, p. 87). The IDM, which describes counselor development as progressing along four stages, also includes a description of changes that occur on three continua, namely self-other awareness, motivation, and autonomy. Additionally, the IDM (Stoltenberg et al, 1998) described specific supervisee characteristics and supervisor behavior for each of the four supervisee developmental levels.

Blocher's (1983) Cognitive Developmental Approach

Blocher's (1983) cognitive developmental approach to counselor supervision is based on Dewey's approach to learning as well as research focusing on the impact of cognitive structures on social perception and judgment (Holloway, 1987). Blocher applied the principles of cognitive development theory to counselor supervision to explain how a supervisor can structure the learning environment to facilitate the development within the supervisee of complex, comprehensive and sophisticated schemata for interpreting human interactions (Holloway, 1987). Blocher's approach differed from Stoltenberg's (1981) in that he used supervisee's needs and the demand for highly complex functioning within the counseling situation to describe specific supervision strategies that would encourage the growth and development in supervisee cognition.

Blocher (1983) described the counselor as moving through a series of stages in which he or she progresses toward (a) the development of perceptions of others that grow in complexity, (b) a decreased reliance on stereotypy, (c) and an ability to integrate discordant information about others more effectively. Thus, Blocher's approach poses that supervisees (developing counselors) progress through a series of stages that closely parallel ego development stages (Borders, 1998).

Developmentally oriented supervisors conceptualize supervision as a process with a primary purpose of and emphasis on facilitating the growth of the counselor (Blocher, 1983; Holloway, 1995). Growth and development of the counselor is the desired outcome of supervised experiences (Borders, 1998) because counselors who go on to perform at optimal levels as practitioners necessitate high levels of ego functioning. An effective practicing counselor possesses the ability to (a) take multiple perspectives, allowing for high levels of empathy for

diverse people; (b) move among and manipulate a wide range of sources of information about clients; and (c) integrate this often discordant information to arrive at a comprehensive conceptualization of the life situation of a client (Blocher, 1983; Lambie & Sias, 2009; Sias & Lambie, 2008).

Empirical Research on Developmental Models of Supervision

Worthington (1987) conducted an extensive, comprehensive review of developmental models and the empirical studies based on these models. Worthington concluded that the empirical evidence supports general developmental models and that supervisor behavior as well as the supervision relationship changes as the supervisees gain experience. Stoltenberg, McNeill, and Crethar (1994) reviewed the supervision research which appeared after Worthington's (1987) review. Twelve of the fifty studies these authors reviewed examined levels of counselor development and/or levels of counseling experience. Only two of these twelve supervision studies related to developmental models found no effect for experience; a restricted range of experience level may have been a contributing factor to the finding of non-significant results in one of the studies (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997). The remaining studies reviewed by Stoltenberg et al (1994) revealed differences in counselors as a function of experience or developmental level (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 1997), leading the authors to conclude that "there is support for general developmental models" (p. 419).

Developmental Changes through Supervision

Supervision is the catalyst which facilitates this growth process within counselors (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). During effective supervision, the supervisor provides an environment which is appropriately structured to provide an optimal mismatch between

situational demands and the resources of the supervisee. Blocher (1983) and Stoltenberg (1981) both asserted that this optimal level of dissonance between challenge and support stimulates cognitive growth. Thus, supervision can essentially be seen as a form of deliberate psychological education (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971) that uses the environment, specific content, and the supervisor-supervisee relationship to “systematically change the psychological functioning” (Blocher, 1983, p. 28) of the supervisee.

Manners and Durkin (2000) reviewed the specific processes that allow for this systematic change, or progression toward higher levels of ego development. Block (1982) described the process of ego stage transition as essentially an accommodative response to disequilibrating life experiences which involve the emotional and interpersonal aspects of the ego structure and are personally salient to the individual. Research investigating the relationship between higher education in general and the promotion of ego development have been equivocal (Manners & Durkin, 2000); as noted earlier, results of studies investigating growth in ego development during counselor education programs have also been mixed (Borders, 1986; Borders, 1989; Fong & Borders, 1997). This may be due to the fact that many students view the higher education process as a purely cognitive one in which they are primarily concerned with the acquisition of knowledge (Manners & Durkin, 2000). Additionally, individuals entering a master’s degree program are likely to already be functioning at higher ego levels (Lambie, 2002). However, the counseling internship is an experience in which the individual is more likely to be deeply and personally invested. Internship represents the capstone of the graduate program, where the student is integrating the knowledge acquired in the program and applying the knowledge and skills into practice (Akos & Scarborough, 2004). During the counseling internship, students are confronted with the reality of their professions, and may encounter difficult and ambiguous

experiences. Dissonance-inducing experiences can propel personality development (King, 2001; King et al, 2000; King & Smith, 2004). The internship also represents the transition from student to professional and involves performance, evaluation, and the beginning of the development of a sense of professional identity. Thus, the internship experience is likely to qualify as a life event that is sufficiently disequilibrating so as to potentially contribute to ego stage transition.

The importance of the supervised experience to the overall development of the counselor has been well documented in the literature. For example, Fong, Borders, Ethington, and Pitts (1997) ($N = 43$) found that it was not until after their supervised fieldwork experiences that counseling students' cognitive self-appraisal increased. These authors found cognitive self-appraisal to remain constant until their supervised internship. Lovell (1999) ($N = 83$) found that the amount of supervised clinical experience was the most important predictor of counseling interns' cognitive developmental level. Counselors grew in terms of major psychosocial attributes at a greater rate during their supervised internship than at other times during their preparation programs (Levy, 2004) ($N = 85$). Granello (2002) ($N = 205$) found that students in counseling programs exhibit a positive trend in their cognitive development in a predictable manner, with the greatest jumps in their development taking place during their supervised internship experience. Bernard and Goodyear (2004) concluded that there is "very little evidence that experience alone leads to developmental gains. Yet the changes observed within supervisees under supervision are promising" (p. 111).

According to cognitive developmental theory (e.g., Kohlberg, 1981; Loevinger, 1976), for growth to occur, the event must provide sufficient dissonance; however, the individual must also have the resources to adapt effectively to the experience. Appropriate counseling supervision, which includes the optimal balance of support to challenge, sufficient time for self-

reflection, and the deliberate focus on the development and growth of the supervisee, should provide the necessary environment for the supervisee to make the accommodations for the stresses of the new job (Lambie & Sias, 2009). On the other hand, without the intentional focus on supervisee development, time for reflection, and sufficient support, interns exposed to the highly disequilibrating experience of internship, especially if the actual job differs greatly from initial expectations, may not be able to successfully adapt to their new situations through accommodation and thus regress. Supervisors who themselves had limited or inadequate experiences as supervisees when they were new to the profession may be ill equipped to deliver appropriate supervision to their supervisees (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Borders & Brown, 2005). These supervisors may not have the relevant knowledge or skills relating to the structuring of the supervisory environment.

According to cognitive developmental theory, supervisors' own levels of ego development, in addition to their personal experiences with supervision, may impact the supervision they provide and thus the ego development of their supervisees (Swensen, 1980). An event which is indeed structurally disquilibrating needs to be structured to be higher than that of the participants (Manners & Durkin, 2000; Sias & Lambie, 2008); the supervisor's level of ego functioning will influence his or her ability to provide such an environment for the supervisee. Swensen (1980) asserted that counselors who are at a "simpler level of ego functioning would not be able to help a client who was at a more complex level" (p. 387). Cebik (1985) added that this assertion must also apply to supervisors and their supervisees. Indeed, Cebik (1985) criticized developmental models of counselor growth, arguing that "they pay little attention to either the stage of ego development attained by the supervisor or to the relationship between the supervisee's development and the supervisor's development" (p. 228). Stoltenberg and

colleagues (1994) noted that “considerably more work is needed in examining the supervision process and outcomes as affected by changes in supervisee and supervisor experience or development” (p. 417). These authors, in their review of research relevant to counselor development, found that few studies examined the subject of supervisor development or experience. The following section describes requirements of counselors in CACREP (2009) accredited programs, and licensure and certification requirements in the state of Florida, in an effort to understand how counselors as well as their supervisors may vary in terms of their preparation and experience with regard to their area of counseling specialty.

Counselor Preparation Requirements

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP)

While CACREP (2009) accredited mental health counseling programs and marriage and family therapy programs require students to complete a minimum of 60 credit hours of graduate training, school counseling programs accredited by CACREP stipulate a minimum of 48 credit hours. The requirements also differ among the programs in terms of the clinical experiences required of students. While all counseling students are required to complete a minimum 600 clock hour clinical internship under the supervision of a site supervisor in a setting relevant to their area of specialty, mental health counseling students are required to complete an additional 300 clock hours of supervised internship in a mental health setting. Thus, counseling internship students, as well as their supervisors, will likely vary in terms of the amount of training and practical experience they receive in their preparation programs.

Requirements for Certification and/or Licensure in Florida

In the state of Florida, the Board of Clinical Social Work, Marriage and Family Therapy, and Mental Health Counseling licenses and regulates marriage and family therapists as well as mental health counselors. This Board requires marriage and family therapists to (a) possess a master's degree with major emphasis in marriage and family therapy that includes 36 semester hours of graduate coursework; (b) complete one "supervised clinical practicum, internship, or field experience in a marriage and family setting" in which the student provided 180 direct client contact hours of therapy services; and (c) to complete two years of post-master's supervised experience under the supervision of a licensed marriage and family therapist with five years of experience or the equivalent. In addition, these professionals must pass the national examination developed by the Association of the Marital and Family Therapy Regulatory Boards (AMFTRB). Mental health counselors are required to have a (a) master's degree that consists of 60 credit hours; (b) 1,000 hours of university-sponsored supervised clinical practicum, internship, or field experience; and (c) two years of post master's supervised experience under the supervision of a licensed mental health counselor. Mental health counselors must also pass the National Clinical Mental Health Counseling Examination (NCMHCE) developed by the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC). Thus, these two groups of counseling professionals have similar, rigorous licensure requirements in the state of Florida.

School counselors in the state of Florida, however, have a much different set of requirements for certification than the marriage and family counselors and mental health counselors. The Florida Department of Education, in 1990, established two pathways for school counselors to receive certification in Guidance and Counseling (grades PK-12). One pathway allows professionals with a master's degree or higher degree with a major in guidance and

counseling or counselor education, which includes three semester hours in a supervised counseling practicum in a school to receive certification. The second pathway requires a master's or higher degree, but does not stipulate a major or emphasis; counselors who receive certification through this plan are required to have 30 hours of graduate credit in guidance and counseling in special areas, including three semesters of a supervised counseling practicum. Thus, significant differences between the pathways to professional licensure and certification of school counselors and those for counselors in other areas of specialty exist in Florida

A review of these Florida state requirements also highlights how different the professional preparation backgrounds may be in internship site supervisors in the state. For example, while a mental health counseling supervisor will have completed a master's program in counseling consisting of a minimum 60 credit hours and a 1,000 clock hour internship and two years of post graduate supervision, a school counseling supervisor could possibly possess a master's degree in a subject that is not necessarily related to counseling but includes coursework in counseling. The school counseling supervisor does not, according to the Florida Educator Certification Administrative Rule 6A-4.0181, have to demonstrate that his or her internship consisted of a specific number of hours or to demonstrate participation in any post-graduate supervised experience. Thus, in spite of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES, 1993) assertion that "supervision should be ongoing throughout a counselor's career and not stop when a particular level of education, certification, or membership in a professional organization is attained" (ACES, 1993), requirements regarding post-master's supervision vary across counseling specialties in the state of Florida.

Supervisor Preparation Requirements

ACES (1993), in the *Ethical Guidelines for Counseling Supervisors*, stated that “supervisors should have had training in supervision prior to initiating their roles as supervisors” (Section 2.01). The American Counseling Association (ACA, 2005) supported this requirement in the *ACA Code of Ethics*, by maintaining that supervisors should be adequately prepared in supervision. CACREP (2009) standards stipulate “relevant training in counseling supervision” for supervisors, and also state that internship site supervisors should have a “minimum of two years of pertinent professional experience in the program area in which the student is completing clinical instruction” (Section III C). CACREP guidelines also state that a site supervisor must have a minimum of a master’s degree in counseling or a related profession. This particular standard could potentially conflict with the state of Florida’s regulation that school counselors only have a master’s degree (not necessarily in counseling or a related field) with coursework in counseling. Finally, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 2004), in its *Ethical Standards for School Counselors*, does not make specific mention of supervision requirements, only stating that a professional school counselor should provide “support and mentoring to novice professionals” (Section F.2.c.). Thus, not only do licensure and certification requirements vary according to counseling specialty, but state and professional organizations are also varied and even conflict with each other, in terms of recommendations for the preparation of counseling supervisors.

In spite of these professional recommendations, and although the majority of mental health professionals go on to supervise others that are new to the profession (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004), most counseling site supervisors have not been formally trained in the process of supervision. More specifically, research supports that supervision training is rarely required or

offered in master's level counseling preparation programs (Nelson & Johnson, 1999; Nelson, Johnson, & Thorngren, 2000; Studer, 2005). While this is true for master's level site supervisors across all counseling specialties, the preparation and personal experiences with supervision these supervisors had as students and supervisees may be qualitatively and quantitatively different from each other depending on their work setting. As stated previously, especially in the state of Florida, there may be vast differences, due to certification and licensure requirements, in the length and focus of the supervisor's training program and in the amount of mandated supervision hours. Not only could these differences impact a supervisor's developmental level, but, consequently, the developmental level of their supervisees as well. The lack of supervision training and experience of site supervisors may result in further negative consequences for their supervisees, including counselor stress and an erosion of the skills acquired during their counselor preparation programs (Peace, 1995). Thus, this study explored the relationship between supervision training and experience of internship site supervisors, their ego development, and the ego development and job stress of their supervisees.

The Construct of Work-Related Stress

Work-related stress, or occupational stress, refers to stress processes that occur in conjunction with work (Behr & Newman, 1978). Many researchers believe that stress lies at the root of the development of most mental and physical illnesses. For example, Jenkins (1976) argued that the social environment of an individual, such as the work environment, is a major determinant in that individual's health and well-being. Thus, work-related stress is an important construct to consider because of (a) the large amount of time people spend in work-related activities, (b) the pervasive effects of stress on health, and (c) the impact of job stress on job

performance (Beehr & Newman). While occupational stress may be a normal, interactional process, individual differences in both the perception of factors as stressful and in the responses to these stressors reflect the unique frame of meaning-making within the individual (Steinwald, 1994).

Research from a variety of occupational settings suggests that the interaction between the perceived demands of the workplace and one's personal abilities may best explain job-related stress (Ryska, 2002). Most theories of occupational stress (i.e., Lazarus, 1966) recognize that individuals are motivated to attain certain goals or to fulfill needs or wants which they value. An individual's well-being is seen to be compromised and a stress reaction ensues when the individual is prevented from attaining goals or when the level of incongruence between the individual and his or her environment exceeds that individual's ability to cope.

Beehr and Newman (1978) synthesized aspects of the person-environment fit theory of work stress developed by French, Rogers, and Cobb (1974). The person-environment (P-E) fit theory is an approach to the study of occupational stress in which stress is conceptualized as occurring when a lack of congruence arises between a worker and the work environment (Edwards, 1996). This theory postulates that stress threatens a worker when there is a mismatch between a worker's skills and abilities and the demands and requirements of a job, or when a person's needs are not able to be met within a specific work environment. Ryska (2002) summarized P-E fit theory:

The theory of P-E fit is based on the major premise that occupational stress is generated largely from a misalignment between an individual's attributes (e.g., job skills, behavioral styles, valued goals) and the characteristics of the work environment (e.g., resources, demands, opportunities). The degree of congruence, or fit, between the individual and the

work setting may be manifested in the following two ways. First, P-E fit reflects the extent to which relevant characteristics of the work environment meet the needs of the individual. Second, the notion of fit reflects the degree to which an individual's abilities meet the requirements of the job. Hence, the occupational setting may be perceived as stressful in that it does not provide the individual with resources needed to achieve his or her motives or the individual's abilities are inadequate to satisfy the job demands required to supply the resources. (p.197)

Maslach and colleagues (2001) extended the P-E fit paradigm of job stress to explain the similar, multi-dimensional, construct of burnout. Burnout consists of three key dimensions, which include (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) feelings of personal accomplishment. Maslach and colleagues asserted that the greater the mismatch between the person and his or her job, the more likely the individual would be to experience burnout. In this expanded model, Maslach and colleagues proposed that six areas of worklife are capable of contributing to a person-job mismatch: (a) workload, (b) control, (c) reward, (d) community, (e) fairness, and (f) values. Burnout is conceptualized as arising from chronic mismatches between individuals and their jobs in terms of one or all six of these areas. Further, the stress reactions and ultimate burnout experience that results from these mismatches are seen in this expanded theoretical framework as leading to various other outcomes, such as career commitment, career satisfaction, or job performance.

Job Stress in the Mental Health Professions

Research indicates that members of occupational groups, such as the mental health professions, are particularly vulnerable to job stress and burnout (Maslach et al, 2001; Maslach

& Jackson, 1981). Mental health care providers tend to become personally as well as professionally involved in the welfare and outcomes of their clients (Farber, 1983); it is precisely the ability to be empathic, a skill essential for effective counselors, which can place counselors at higher risk for burnout (Lambie, 2007). Additionally, practitioners can experience many of the behaviors clients exhibit as stressful. Shinn, Rosario, Morch, and Chestnut (1984) determined, through a survey completed by 141 human service workers designed to assess job stressors and coping strategies, that client demands were described by 23% of their sample as a work-related stressor. Specific client behaviors experienced as stressful by therapists included (a) client expression of anger toward therapists; (b) client's physically attacking the therapists; and (c) clients' suicidal statements and attempts (Rudolfa, Kraft, & Reiley, 1988). Young and Lambie (2007) and Lawson (2007) also described how mental health counselors can experience vicarious trauma, which is a stress reaction counselors may experience as a result of being confronted with clients' traumatic experiences. Therefore, the nature of being a counseling professional may contribute innately to high levels of job stress.

Mental health practitioners experience job stress as a result of factors related to the organization of their jobs as well (Young & Lambie, 2007). In fact, organizational influences may even be a greater source of stress than factors that stem from their relationships with clients. Mental health counselors, for example, are now more likely to work in for-profit agencies, which emphasize cost considerations rather than employee wellness, and where excessive routine paperwork is a common stressor (Young & Lambie, 2007). Collings and Murray (1996) conducted a study of 243 social workers in England who responded to inventories designed to assess their perceptions of potential work-related stressors. They found that the most powerful predictor of overall work stress was pressure involved in planning and reaching work targets.

Additionally, Shin and colleagues (1984) found that 47% of the mental health professionals they surveyed identified poor job design as a major job stressor, followed by 44% who reported a lack of recognition as a job stressor. Sowa and May (1994), in an investigation of occupational stress among members of the Virginia Counselors Association, found that, while the counselors ($N = 125$) in their study did not report levels of occupational stress that were significantly different from levels reported by members of other occupations, individuals who did perceive high levels of job stress also had lower levels of self care, recreation, and social support. Thus, personal factors within the worker, such as wellness and social support levels, also contribute to mental health professionals' levels of perceived job stress.

The level of occupational stress perceived by mental health professionals is also a factor of their age and professional experience. Indeed, Maslach et al (2001) explained that “of all the demographic variables that have been studied, age is the one that has been most consistently related to burnout” (p. 409). Younger members of the profession, including students and interns, are at additional risk for stress due to the ambiguity of the helping process and the impact of working with clients who often experience intense pain and challenges (Skovholt, 2001). Moore and Cooper (1996), in their review of stress in mental health professions, concluded that higher levels of burnout are found among younger, less tenured professionals. These authors attributed this finding in part to individuals in higher levels of their occupation having more control, influence, and less client contact than more junior workers. Less seasoned workers may well perceive higher stress because they feel a lack of control over work related events. Ross, Altmeier, and Russel (1989) reported that staff members of university counseling centers with fewer years of post-doctoral experience encountered a greater number of stressful events than their older, more experienced colleagues. Similar findings were reported by Rudolfa et al (1988),

who found that interns in Veterans Administration hospitals and university counseling centers experienced greater job stress than older, more experienced staff members. Therefore, the age of the mental health professional, in addition to work-related factors, client behaviors, and the inherent nature of the profession, contributes significantly toward job stress.

Job Stress and School Counselors

A plethora of research has examined the levels of job stress perceived by practicing school counselors. Work stress in the field of school counseling that is related to organizational factors is described as originating from (a) the dissonance between actual and best practice, (b) role conflict and role ambiguity, and (c) overwhelming job demands placed on the school counselors.

Role Incongruence

Lambie (2002) argued that, while counselor education programs as well as the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) advocate best practice standards for school counselors, there is an obvious incongruence between what is advocated and the actual practices of school counselors. Brott and Myers (1999) summarized literature on the issues and problems associated with the role of the school counselor and found that a major theme repeated throughout the related literature involves the dissonance and conflict school counselors experience between their formal, academic preparation and the realities of their work environment.

Research has found that this discrepancy results in higher levels of perceived job stress (Mercer, 1981). In their study designed to assess the types of duties school counselors are engaged in, Burnham and Jackson (2000) found that school counselors are often involved in non-counseling duties, which take time away from appropriate counseling duties. Eighty full-time

public school counselors from all grade levels in two southeastern states were surveyed in this study. The respondents completed a survey instrument which addressed multiple functions of school counselors outlined in school counseling models. These school counselors were engaging in functions outlined in the role statements, but at the same time they experienced significant pressure to assume multiple roles which involved duties unrelated to counseling. Burnham and Jackson (2000) concluded the demands of balancing these conflicting roles result in elevated job stress for the counselor, putting them at risk for burnout. While these findings must be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size of 80 school counselors, the results do support the position that school counselors experience elevated job stress due to a mismatch between their training and the realities of their work environment.

Culbreth, Scarborough, Banks-Johnson, and Solomon (2005) surveyed 512 practicing school counselors nation-wide, and found that a perception of a match on the part of the school counselor between their actual experiences as a school counselor and their initial expectations of the job was the most significant predictor of lower role stress among the respondents. Baggerly and Osborn (2006) surveyed 1,280 Florida public school counselors and found that, while high levels of stress and inappropriate duties were significant negative predictors of career satisfaction, high levels of career commitment were related to appropriate duties. These two studies lend further evidence to support the connection between inappropriate duties and higher levels of perceived job stress in school counselors.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity can be conceptualized as a situation that arises when a worker lacks clarity about the goals and objectives associated with his or her professional role, or when there

is disagreement among members of the workers' professional community regarding the scope and responsibility of the job (Sears & Navin, 1983). Role ambiguity has been determined to be a significant source of stress for school counselors (Sears & Navin). There is confusion and varying perceptions of the professional school counselor (PSC) role among other stakeholders, including principals and other school administrators, teachers, parents and students (Burnam & Jackson, 2000; Lambie & Williamson, 2004; Murray, 1995). ASCA, in its e-mail message to members during National School Counseling Week 2007, stated that "many students, parents and educational professionals still do not understand the work of school counseling." Lambie and Williamson (2004) described how the historical development of the profession has contributed to this sense of confusion regarding the role of the school counselor. While the list of duties assigned to the school counselor expanded during each decade of the last century to include providing comprehensive developmental services for all students, special education services, accountability, and administrative duties, no functions were ever removed or reassigned. The responsibilities of the school counselor grew with every swing of the educational pendulum. The counselor now "seems to be involved with, or even in charge of nearly every aspect of school operation" (Murray, 1995, p. 5).

Research suggests that school administrators and principals hold perceptions of the role of the school counselor that are often incompatible with professional standards and that these perceptions may result in the assignment of non-counseling duties (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Zalaquett, 2005). School administrators may lack knowledge about the nature of school counselor preparation as well as the services school counselors are qualified to deliver; this may influence their perception that many non-counseling tasks are part of the school counselor's role (Oberman, 2005). Thus, the misunderstanding of the appropriate role of the PSC by

administrators may result in assignments of non-counseling duties, which contributes to PSCs' perceived job stress.

Sears and Navin (1983) surveyed 240 school counselors attending guidance conventions in Ohio. These authors administered a questionnaire with Likert scale questions which asked respondents to rate their stress levels. Sixty-five percent of this sample reported that they experienced their occupation as stressful, and the items the counselors identified as primary sources of stress included work overload, role conflict and role ambiguity. A limitation to this study was the likelihood that the respondents, who were attending a professional conference, were doing a more effective job of managing stress. Thus, the actual level of stress experienced by school counselors may be underreported in this study. Nevertheless, this study gave insight into what may be an even larger issue of school counselors' stress levels.

Wood and Rayle (2006) undertook a study of 388 school counselors in 40 states to address the possible relationships among mattering to others, job-related stress, and job satisfaction for elementary, middle, and high school counselors. The instruments used were a demographic form, a school counseling mattering scale, and a school counselor job stress survey. The results indicated that elementary school counselors experienced the greatest job satisfaction and the lowest levels of job related stress. The authors attributed these results in part to the higher amounts of time high school counselors spend on non-counseling duties as opposed to duties involving service to students, lending more evidence to support the claim that the assumption on inappropriate roles leads to increased job stress in PSCs. McCormick (2007), in a study of 117 high school counselors in Mississippi investigated the relationship between counselor self-efficacy, job stress, and career generativity. This author found that while increased job stress did not negatively affect counselor self-efficacy, there was a relationship between the

performance of non-counseling duties and reported job stress. The results from McCormick's study support Wood and Rayles (2006) findings, which indicated that higher levels of perceived job stress in counselors who assume inappropriate work roles.

Work Overload

The increased and often overwhelming work loads of school counselors, which have historical roots (Lambie & Williamson, 2004), can result in school counselors experiencing stress reactions (Butler & Constantine, 2006). Olsen and Dilley (1988) presented considerable research to support the connection between the overwhelming job demands school counselors experience, heightened stress, and negative consequences on service delivery.

Trivette (1993) surveyed 410 randomly selected elementary school counselors across the United States. This author utilized the Occupational Stress Inventory (Osipow, 1983) and a biographical form to assess occupational stress levels among elementary school counselors. The respondents indicated overall occupational stress levels in the average range. However, counselors who served three or more schools scored higher on all three subscales of the instrument, suggesting work overload contributes to higher job stress. Kendrick, Chandler, and Hatcher (1994) designed a questionnaire to assess the most significant stressors that school counselors had received during the past year. Their study involved 176 school counselors from one urban and six rural districts in eastern North Carolina. Ninety-one percent of the respondents reported overwhelming job expectations and job demands as one of their three major stressors. Thus, research indicates that work overload is a significant source of stress for school counselors.

Job Stress and Supervision

Many studies in the field of counseling and related helping professions have investigated the connections between supervision and work-related stress; these studies are reviewed in detail in this section. In general, these studies tend to support the contention that higher rates of participation in supervision and greater satisfaction with the supervision process predict lower rates of perceived job stress on the part of employees. It appears that the supervision process in general, as well as particular elements within the process, work to buffer the impact of work-related stress. Maslach and colleagues (2001) concurred, adding that consistent research evidence exists that links a lack of social support, most notably from supervisors, to burnout.

Russel, Altmaier, and Van Velzen (1987) conducted a study of classroom teachers, whose job was considered a helping profession related to counseling. The study examined the effects of burnout, job-related stressful events, and social support. These authors found that a lack of sufficient support from supervisors was the only statistically significant predictor of burnout. The relationship between burnout and sources of social support was also investigated by Yildirim (2008), in a study of 214 practicing school counselors in Turkey. This researcher found statistically significant negative correlations between sources of social support and three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981); counselors who perceived lower levels of social support experienced higher burnout. In a study involving 169 doctoral level staff members of university counseling centers, Ross, Altmaier, and Russell (1989) further investigated this relationship between burnout, job stress, and levels of social support. They found that the only source of social support that was related to all dimensions of burnout was the supervisor. The authors concluded that their finding that a lack of supervisor support led to more burnout supported similar findings in studies of factory workers and nurses. Davis,

Savicki, Cooley, and Firth (1989) examined the relationship between satisfaction with supervision and burnout in 120 counselors who were members of the Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association. These authors found that dissatisfaction with supervision was positively correlated with the frequency and intensity of emotional exhaustion as well as the intensity of depersonalization. On the other hand, dissatisfaction with supervision in this study was found to correlate negatively with the frequency of feelings of accomplishment. Other researchers have found that members of the helping professions who perceive their supervisor as supportive have less potential for burnout (Coady, Kent, & Davis, 1990). Thus, this research indicates that supervisor support positively impacts the mental health of workers in general.

Culbreth and colleagues (2005), in their study of 512 practicing school counselors, found that lower levels of role stress correlated significantly with participation in peer consultation and supervision. This finding suggests that social support results in lower levels of perceived stress. Similar results were reported by Baggerly and Osborn (2006). These authors conducted a study of 1,280 Florida public school counselors to determine if appropriateness of duties, frequency of supervision, and perceived stress correlate with career satisfaction in school counselors. The instrument used was an adaptation of the Florida School Counselor Survey (2000). Findings of this study revealed that higher levels of career commitment were related to appropriate duties and supervision from peers. Kim (2006) conducted a study of 203 Korean and 184 American counselors, with the purpose being to look at cross-cultural differences in occupational stress. This author used the Job Stress Survey (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999) as the research instrument. The results indicated that Korean counselors reported more stress and less organizational support than their American counterparts. Additionally, in both cultural groups, there was a difference in the effects of supervision on job stress depending on the experience level of the counselor. Less

experienced counselors attributed greater job stress to deficient supervisory support than the more experienced counselors. Thus, especially for more junior professionals, supervision may be seen to play an especially important role in controlling levels of work-related stress.

Lawson (2007), in a study of 501 members of the American Counseling Association, reported a result related to supervision and burnout that seemed contradictory to other research findings. This author found that counselors who reported receiving more than the mean of 1.26 hours of group supervision per month actually scored significantly higher on Burnout and higher on Compassion Fatigue / Vicarious Traumatization than did counselors who received less group supervision. These constructs were assessed by the Professional Quality of Life Scale – Third Edition – Revised (Pro-QOL-III-R; Stamm, 2005). The author hypothesized that the results may be explained by understanding that counselors who are “more aware of the stresses from the work they do are aware enough to seek support” (p. 32).

Results of other studies have indicated that supervision can be a valuable source of support with positive effects on work-related stress when it is carried out in specific ways. Collings and Murray (1996), in their study of work stress in social workers ($N = 243$), found that when employees perceive the supervision process as emphasizing the value of the worker in the organization as opposed to meeting the needs of the supervisor, supervision serves to mitigate stress. Ladany and Friedlander (1995) conducted a study with the purpose of investigating whether certain actions taken by the supervisor within the context of a strong working alliance could minimize role confusion on the part of the supervisee, thus maximizing the supportive benefits of supervision. These researchers sampled 123 counselor trainees in counseling psychology or clinical psychology. Their findings indicated that supervisees who perceived the supervisory working alliance as strong also perceived less confusion about their own roles within

supervision. Supervisees who perceived the supervisory working alliance as weak reported higher levels of role confusion, suggesting that a satisfactory, supportive supervisory relationship results in lower levels of confusion and stress.

Supervisees who experience such role confusion within supervision have been found to report higher levels of dissatisfaction with both their supervision and with their work in general (Olk & Friedlander, 1992). In their study that investigated this relationship, Olk and Friedlander sampled 240 doctoral-level trainees in counseling and clinical psychology in practicum, internship, or postdoctoral fellowship programs. These authors measured satisfaction with supervision using the Trainee Personal Reaction Scale-Revised (TRPS-R; Holloway & Wampold, 1984); general work satisfaction was measured with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hullin, 1969); and work-related anxiety was measured through the use of the State form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983). Specifically, this study investigated two types of role confusion, namely role conflict and role ambiguity, within the context of counseling supervision. Their results indicated that supervisees who experienced role ambiguity also experienced higher levels of job stress. Role ambiguity was also experienced more frequently and intensely by less experienced supervisees. The results of this study also lend support to the assertion that work-related stress may be perceived more intensely by less experienced supervisees who are more anxious about their new roles, professional expectations, and evaluation.

Stress and Ego Development

Studies that have investigated the relationship between ego development and stress in the workplace are rare and have primarily focused on the related concept of burnout (i.e., Gann,

1979; Lambie, 2007). Most of the research involving stress and ego development surrounds the relationship between ego development and stress appraisal as well as coping responses (i.e., Labouvie-Vief et al, 1987; Lynas, 2006; Steinwald, 1994; Swenson, Eskew, & Kohlhepp, 1981). Other studies have examined the effects of acute stressful events on ego development (Lanning, Colucci, & Edwards, 2007), the impact of chronic stress and trauma on ego development (Dyl, 2002), and the relationship of ego development level and the perceptions of and reactions toward stressful events (Kline, 1986). What these various approaches do seem to suggest, however, is that while stress may be a normal, inevitable factor in the lives and work experiences of human beings, individual differences in both the perception of factors as stressful and in the responses to these stressors reflect the unique frame of meaning-making within the individual (Steinwald, 1994), which Loevinger's (1976) developmental theory defines as the ego.

Loevinger (1996) described specifically how the ego can (a) mediate the assessment of an event as stressful and (b) influence the reaction on the part of the individual to the stressor. When faced with a stressor, defined by the Person-Environment Fit theory (French et al, 1974) as a mismatch between the needs and values of a person and the ability of the environment to meet those demands, a person approaches this problem from the perspective of his or her own subjective framework. The extent to which an event is appraised or interpreted as stressful may depend upon the level at which the ego is functioning. Further, the level of ego development may also influence the specific properties of an event which are selected for attention (Steinwald, 1994). This appraisal, in turn, influences the reaction to the stressor and the types of coping responses that are employed. Loevinger (1996) asserted that the ability to then cope effectively may depend on that individual's ability to be flexible in terms of the strategies employed to manage the demands of the stressor. Greater mental flexibility is characteristic of higher levels of

ego functioning (Manners & Durkin, 2000). Thus, the manner in which an individual perceives and responds to stress is indicative of that unique framework of meaning that is the ego which the individual imposes on the stressor.

In their meta-analysis of research on coping, Suls, David, and Harvey (1996) concluded that an individual's frame of reference, along with other buffering factors at the time of a stressful event, may determine whether a stressor influences aspects of human personality positively or negatively. These authors also determined that a more sophisticated ability to make meaning of events as well as the ability to gain a more global perspective in relation to stressful events, characteristics that can be seen to be descriptive of higher levels of ego functioning, results in better adaptation to serious life stressors. For example, among individuals who suffered serious life stressors (i.e., loss, illness, etc.), those who found meaning or perceived benefits from the experience adapted better than those who were unable to find benefits or meaning. Both Leatherman (1986) and Lynas (2006) asserted that the ability to view stressors and situational factors from varying perspectives, indicative of the mental flexibility which is characteristic of higher levels of ego functioning, may enable an individual to both appraise stressors at a milder level and be more effective at coping with stress.

Labouvie-Vief and colleagues (1987) investigated the relationship of developmental differences to perceptions and reactions to stress. These researchers conducted a study of 100 men and women who were contacted through the mail and local community organizations in a high income, major metropolitan area in the Midwest United States. The ages of the participants ranged from 10-77 years and the sample (of those over 18 years old) was relatively homogenous in terms of socio-economic status and education level. The purpose of the study was to test the hypothesis that ego level and level of appraisal toward stressful events would account for

differences in coping. The participants were requested to complete three measures: a writing sample describing a stressful event, the WUSCT (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970), and the Ways of Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) instrument. The results indicated marked developmental differences in the perceived source as well as the appraisal and reaction to stress. While 18% of the variance in the source of stress scores could be explained by ego level, only 2% of the variance was explained by the participant's age. Thus, the perception of stress was found to be much more closely related to ego level than age. Additionally, developmental level was determined to be more important than age when predicting what types of events will be perceived as stressful. Further, these authors found that adults with higher levels of ego functioning were less likely to use immature coping strategies in response to stress. Steinwald (1994) took a similar approach in her investigation of the effects of ego level on the perception of and reaction to stress. This researcher directed the participants, 84 female and male university students, to write a brief narrative describing the specific components of a stressful life event. The narratives were assessed for level of ego functioning. In addition, the Ways of Coping (WOCS: Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) measure and the Washington University Sentence Completion Test were administered. Steinwald (1994) found that an individual's ego level influences how he or she would perceive and react to stressors.

A study by Swenson, Eskew, and Kohlhepp (1981) highlighted how individuals navigate stressful life transitions differently depending on their levels of ego development. These researchers examined the marriage relationship in relation to the social-cognitive functioning of the partners and the context of their relationship. The sample included 776 married couples from different stages of the family life cycle. The authors found a general decline over time in the expression of love in couples with lower levels of ego development, whereas couples with higher

levels of ego development demonstrated higher expressions of love. Lynas (2006) speculated that this finding may be a reflection of a greater ability within individuals with higher levels of ego functioning to be less rigid and stereotypical in their family roles and to be better able to shift, navigate, and accommodate to changes inherent in the family life cycle. An additional possibility may be that individuals with lower levels of ego functioning may not work through conflicts as effectively, whereas couples with higher levels of ego functioning may be better able to transcend role expectations and to cope with change and conflict through discussion and interaction rather than avoidance.

In Kline's (1986) mixed-design study of 24 men and women in blue collar and service industries who lost their jobs through plant closings and layoffs, this researcher investigated if people respond to their job loss, a major life stressor, differently depending on their level of development. Individuals were given the WUSCT (Loevinger, 1985) as well as the Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) and were then placed in one of two groups: higher and lower ego functioning. The participants were then interviewed regarding the situation of their job loss. The results indicated that individuals with lower ego functioning were concerned with concrete and external aspects of work; they were less apt to articulate feelings and more apt to discuss concrete behaviors; they displayed a more external locus of control; and they were less able to see solutions or alternatives to their problem. In contrast, individuals in the group with higher ego functioning saw themselves less often in the role of the victim; they expressed more control over the situation; they were better able to generate alternatives and solutions to their predicaments; and they were more often able to see the perspective of their employers in addition to their own. Thus, this study highlighted how ego functioning can impact the perception and reaction to an acute, stressful event.

Exposure to chronic stress and trauma in childhood has been found to be predictive of lower levels of ego development in adulthood. Dyl (2002) administered the Posttraumatic Stress Disorders Module of the Structured Clinical Interview for the DSM-IV (APA, 2000) and a life experiences survey, in addition to the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) to 224 participants in outpatient psychiatric settings. The results revealed that chronic physical and sexual assault traumas in childhood, in the context of an overall high number of traumatic life experiences, were the strongest life experience predictors of low levels of adult ego functioning. Individuals have also been seen to regress to lower levels of ego development after exposure to a single stressful event. For example, Lanning, Colucci, and Edwards (2007) demonstrated how the events of September 11, 2001 resulted in a decrease in ego development scores in 24 undergraduate students in a public university in the United States. These students were administered the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) to measure ego development as part of another research project before September 11, 2001, and then administered again in November and December of that year. Prior to the re-test, students were exposed to issues of magazines with headlines relating to the terrorist attacks. Whereas the average ego development level before September 11 was 5.75, in the retest, the mean scores dropped by one-half stage to 5.25. This change was significant at $t(23) = 2.5, p = .02$. Additionally, these researchers reported greater variability within the post-test scores. Lanning and colleagues asserted that these results demonstrate that there may be an overall decline in ego level as a result of a stressful event, which in this case may be a result of the intolerance, unquestioning patriotism, and self protectiveness that were prevalent in American culture after September 11, qualities associated with lower ego development levels. Additionally, the increase in variability of items on the post test may be a reflection of some people's ego being stronger and thus stimulated to grow, while

others' ego regressed. Thus, an individual with higher levels of functioning prior to a stressful event may be better equipped to cope with and successfully adapt to the circumstance, which can then result in ego growth. An event may be too challenging for individuals with lower ego development and regression may result. These results agree with Swensen's (1980) assertion that while some individuals may regress under conditions of stress, "people at the more complex levels of development are more capable of changing and transcending their environment" (p. 385). Loevinger, however, may describe stage regression in a slightly different manner. Loevinger viewed the ego levels as sets of probabilistic characteristics and saw the distinctions between the stages as somewhat arbitrary (Loevinger, 1998). Thus, at times of stress, an individual may present with a behavior or characteristic more typical of a lower level of ego development than of the level more descriptive of his or her overall functioning.

Finally, Lambie (2007) investigated the contribution of ego development level to burnout in school counselors. This researcher hypothesized that higher levels of ego development within school counselors would equip them with the cognitive and socioemotional coping abilities necessary to deal with occupational stress. The sample included 218 school counselors holding membership in ASCA. The instruments used in this study included a general demographic questionnaire, the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). While the results did not indicate a causal relationship between higher levels of ego development and reduced burnout, personal accomplishment, measured by one of the three subscales on the MBI, was found to have a statistically significant relationship to ego development. These results supported the assertion that counselors at higher levels of ego development depersonalize less and are better able to maintain positive feelings toward their work.

In summary, research investigating the relationship between stress and ego development seems to support the contention that the way an event is appraised and resolved is a reflection of the individual's frame of meaning-making, described by Loevinger (1976) as the ego. Additionally, individuals exposed to stress may regress, may not go on to develop to higher levels of ego functioning, or, depending on the level of the ego at the time of the stressor, successfully accommodate to the new situation and cope well.

Summary

This review of the literature described cognitive developmental theory, specifically Loevinger's (1976) theory of ego development, as the context and theoretical framework through which the changes that occur in counseling trainees during counselor supervision occur. Counselor supervision, in which the personal and professional development of the counselor in training is a primary goal, was defined and relevant developmental supervision models were discussed. Next, the differences in terms of requirements for licensure and certification for counselors in the state of Florida with regard to their area of counseling specialty were reviewed, highlighting some possible reasons why differences in ego development levels and supervision experience may be expected among supervisors according to their area of practice. Finally, the concept of job stress within the field of counseling was explored, and the relationships between ego development, supervision, and job stress were discussed. The review of these topics suggests that although research involving counselors has examined the constructs of ego development, job stress, and supervision, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the link between counseling supervisors' experience with supervision, their developmental levels, and their trainees' developmental levels and perceived job stress.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research design, methodology, and procedures for the study. The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between counseling interns' site supervisors' supervision training and experience, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and perceived job stress of their supervisees. More specifically, this chapter includes a discussion of (a) the population and sample, (b) the data gathering procedures, (c) the instrumentation, (d) the research hypotheses, (e) the data analysis procedures, (f) ethical considerations, and (g) potential limitations of the study.

Population and Sample

The target population for this study includes two groups: (a) counseling internship students and (b) their internship site supervisors. The population consists of internship students enrolled in CACREP accredited counselor education programs in Florida who were either in a mental health internship site, a marriage and family counseling internship site, or a school counseling internship site, and their site supervisors. However, while the instruments were distributed to the site supervisors via mail, the research instruments were administered personally to the internship students by the researcher; therefore, the accessible population was counseling internship students and their site supervisors in the Central Florida area. Five universities met these criteria: (a) Rollins College, (b) Barry University (Orlando), (c) Stetson University, (d) the University of South Florida, and (e) the University of Central Florida. The sample included two large state universities as well as three small private universities, two of which were parochial. The purpose of personal, group administration with the internship students was twofold: first, the

response rate was likely to be higher than with mail surveys; and second, the directions and conditions under which the students complete the instruments were uniform, thereby increasing the likelihood of valid results. Loevinger (1998) also recommended group administration for the WUSCT when possible to increase the standardization of directions given to participants.

By including all the CACREP accredited counseling programs in central Florida, differences in the data due to internship and supervisor selection and placement procedures that were unique to individual universities or types of universities (i.e., large/small, public/private) may have been minimized and results were more likely to be generalizable to the state of Florida as a whole. Likewise, by limiting the population to CACREP accredited programs, differences in the data that may be attributed to program quality rather than true distinctions among individuals were limited. The inclusion of five institutions allowed for a large sample size. There were approximately 150 counseling interns in these five institutions.

Data Gathering

Before the data gathering process was initiated, the researcher obtained permission to conduct the study from the institutional review board (IRB) at the University of Central Florida. Concurrent to this process, the researcher contacted the IRB administrators at the remaining four institutions in the sample. The researcher complied with the requirements of these institutions to apply for and received written permission from four of the five IRB programs to conduct research with their students. Barry University did not have a procedure in place to grant IRB approval for outside researchers. Thus, this institution did not participate in the study.

The researcher contacted the directors of the remaining four counseling programs by e-mail to request their participation as well as the contact information for the instructors for the

internship classes. The researcher contacted the internship instructors by e-mail to ask for an appointment to administer the research instruments during their internship classes as well as the contact information for the internship site supervisors. The internship instructor at the University of South Florida did not agree to participate in the study. Thus, the researcher made appointments at the remaining three institutions: the University of Central Florida (Orlando), Rollins College (Winter Park, FL), and Stetson University (DeLand, FL). The final sample size was 103 internship students and 78 counseling supervisors. The number of counseling supervisors was less than the number of students, as many supervisors supervised more than one student.

The researcher compiled a comprehensive list of all interns and their internship site supervisors and each intern-supervisor pair were assigned a number. After receiving the mailing addresses for the internship site supervisors, the researcher contacted the supervisors following the multiple contact method described by Dillman (2002) in order to maximize response rates. The first contact was a letter, mailed October 15, 2008, which to each described the study and informed the supervisors that a questionnaire and test instrument would be forthcoming. The second mailing, sent approximately four days later, included: (a) a research cover letter/informed consent letter; (b) the Supervisor Questionnaire (Walter, 2008) (coded with the number of the supervisor-supervisee pair written on it); (c) the short form (18-item) of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996); (d) a five dollar bill as a token of incentive; and (f) a self-addressed stamped return envelope. As the survey packets were returned, the researcher checked off the identification numbers of the respondents on a list to keep track of who did not return the instruments. A third contact was sent out approximately 14 days later, which consisted of a letter reminding the participants to please complete and return the research instruments.

Approximately 10 days after this letter, a final mailing was sent to those who still had not returned the instruments. This mailing consisted of new cover letter, replacement instruments, and another return-addressed, stamped envelope. The final instrument packets were received by the researcher by December 6, 2009.

The researcher made an appointment with each internship instructor at each of the three institutions to visit their internship classes. Data collection took place between October 28, 2009 and December 2, 2009 in order to capture the effects of the end of the internship semester. In the classes, the researcher informed the students of the study, asked for their voluntary participation, and gave them letters of informed consent and the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and OSI-R (Osipow, 1998) in class. Students were also requested to complete a demographic form, which included several items such as age, gender, the number of hours completed in internship and in graduate coursework, and their levels of satisfaction with their supervisory experiences. Students were offered a small bag of cookies as an incentive for their participation. The purpose of the personal contact and of allowing students to complete the instrument in class was to increase response rates. Loevinger (1998) also recommends large group administration when possible to increase the standardization of directions given to participants.

Instrumentation

The study included four data collection instruments: (a) a Supervisor Questionnaire (Walter, 2008) designed by the researcher, (b) an Intern demographics form designed by the researcher, (c) the short-form of the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test – Form 81* (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and (d) the *Occupational Stress Inventory – Revised* (Osipow, 1998).

Supervisor Questionnaire

The researcher designed a demographics questionnaire which asked internship site supervisors to identify (a) their area of counseling specialty, (b) their highest educational degree, (c) the amount of time they have worked in the field of counseling, (d) the amount of clinical supervision they received after completion of their counseling training, (e) the number of hours in their graduate preparation program, and (f) the amount (if any) of training they have received in clinical supervision. The questionnaire included definitions as necessary to clearly distinguish clinical from administrative supervision; the definition of clinical supervision was taken from a supervision questionnaire designed by Duncan (2003). Basic demographic information, such as gender, age, and licensure status, was also requested.

Intern Demographics Form

The researcher designed an additional demographics questionnaire which asked the student-interns to identify their counseling track, the number of hours completed in their graduate program and in their internship, their levels of satisfaction with supervision (both in internship and at their universities), and basic demographic information such as gender, age, and ethnicity.

The initial version of both demographics forms were reviewed by volunteer doctoral level counseling students at the University of Central Florida prior to administering the final form to participants. These volunteers were not potential study participants. Additionally, expert counselor education faculty at the University of Central Florida reviewed the questionnaire to assure the questionnaire's face validity and design quality. Feedback from students and faculty was incorporated in the construction of the final version of the questionnaire.

The Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT)

The *Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) Form 81* (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) is a semi-projective inventory consisting of 36 sentence stems which measures a respondent's ego development level. The respondent can complete the sentence stems however he or she chooses and thus represents a projection of the respondent's schema of meaning-making on to the test (Loevinger, 1998). The test was first published in 1970, revised in 1985, and revised again in 1996. This most recent revision is referred to as "Form 81". Current and former forms of the test, a history of the development of the test, the theoretical underpinnings of the test, an explanation of the scoring procedure, and extensive information regarding the test's validity and reliability can be found in the technical foundations manual (Loevinger, 1998). The test is suitable for both male and female respondents, pre-adolescents through adulthood, and can be scored by any rater who completes the written scoring exercises found in the test manual. Loevinger (1998) wrote that the provision of training exercises for raters is unique to this test among other projective test manuals and that ratings of raters who had read the written instructions in the manual and completed the practice exercises produced ratings which agreed with the ratings of previously trained, experienced raters.

The WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) exists in two forms: one for men and one for women. The two forms differ only in terms of gender specific language. For example, item 22 on the women's form, "At times she worried about" is changed to "At times he worried about" on the men's form. The test also exists in a short-form, which consists of 18 sentence stems. This test has been found to produce results nearly as reliable as the full, 36-item form through the split-half method of reliability testing (Novy & Francis, 1992). Novy and Francis (1992) administered the two halves of the WUSCT to a sample of 265 adults, which consisted of adults

employed in the health professions, university students and faculty members, and adult delinquents. The researchers reported a high and significant correlation between the two halves. Further, a high level of interrater reliability has been demonstrated in studies with a wide range of populations (Manners & Durkin, 2000). Loevinger and Wessler (1970) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .91 using the item sum score of the instrument.

Although the use of projective techniques within the field of personality evaluation is controversial, the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) has been described as one of the "most extensively validated" (Garb, Wood, Lilienfeld, & Nezworski, 2002, p. 461) projective psychological assessment tools. Lilienfeld, Wood, and Garb (2000) offered some principles for the construction of projective techniques that increase the likelihood that these assessments possess adequate validity. These guidelines include: (a) the principle of aggregation across multiple items, thereby averaging out measurement error; (b) the inclusion of ambiguous stimuli relevant to the construct being assessed; (c) and the use of an iterative, self-correcting approach to the construction of the test, whereby the construct being assessed is revised based on the accumulation of new data. These authors asserted that the WUSCT adheres to all of these guidelines and has demonstrated "impressive construct validity in numerous studies by independent investigators" (p. 56).

In terms of discriminant validity for the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), research indicates that the WUSCT does not simply reflect the variables that are likely to be confounded with ego development; rather, the data support the claim that confounding measures such as verbal fluency, intelligence, and socio-economic status (SES) may have an interaction effect with varying levels of ego functioning. For example, while verbosity has been found to be related to ego development (Einstein & Lanning, 1998; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970; McCrae & Costa,

1980), the correlations have been small enough to support the claim that the instrument is not simply measuring verbal fluency. Rather, more words are often necessary to convey ideas which are reflective of the complexity typical of higher ego stages (Manners & Durkin, 2000). With regard to intelligence, studies have shown a consistent, moderate, positive correlation between intelligence and ego levels (Blasi, 1971; Cramer, 1999; Loevinger, 1979). However, the relationship between the two constructs is still unclear and it may be possible that higher levels of intelligence are necessary for the movement toward higher levels of ego functioning (Manners & Durkin, 2000). Finally, studies investigating the relationship between ego levels and SES have been equivocal. While some studies support the connection between ego level and SES (e.g., Hansell, Sparacino, Ronchi, & Strodbeck, 1985; Redmore & Loevinger, 1979), other studies have produced results which suggest no significant correlation between SES and ego development levels, especially when individuals attain adulthood (Browning, 1987). Thus, these studies lend support for the discriminant validity of the WUSCT.

Loevinger's (1976) theory does not assert predictions regarding relationships between levels of ego functioning and particular behavior. However, studies have been conducted that have yielded results regarding the predictive validity of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). For example, Hart and Hilton (1988) found that consistency in terms of contraceptive use among female adolescents was predicted by the level of ego development. Likewise, data from Blasi's (1971) study involving children's modes of taking responsibility appear to support Loevinger's theory. Additionally, Labouvie-Vief, Hakim-Larson, and Hobart (1987) demonstrated that type of coping strategy selected, source of stress, and type of defense mechanism employed could be predicted by level of ego functioning, lending more evidence of predictive validity of the WUSCT and the construct of ego development.

Finally, the construct validity for the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) has been extensively researched (Lambie, 2007). Numerous studies have supported the relationship of alternative measures of personality with ego development as measured by the WUSCT. For example, Blasi (1993) reported a significant positive correlation between independent ratings of psychological maturity obtained through expert interview and ego development scores. Sutton and Swenson (1983) likewise found a significant correlation between scores on the WUSCT, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT; Morgan & Murray, 1935), and unstructured interviews. Further, researchers have demonstrated an association of ego development with relevant categories from the California Q-sort (Westenberg & Block, 1993). Manners and Durkin (2000) concluded that these studies “provide substantial support for the construct validity of ego development” (p. 548).

Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised (OSI-R)

The *Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised* (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998) is intended to measure three dimensions of occupational stress: (a) Occupational Roles, (b) Psychological Strain, and (c) Personal Resources for coping with workplace stress. The instrument is based on a multitude of stress theories, including the Person-Environment Fit Theory (French, Rogers & Cobb, 1974) of occupational stress. Each of the three dimensions measured by the OSI-R consists of several subscales. The *Occupational Roles* subscales include the subscales of (a) Role Overload, (b) Role Insufficiency, (c) Role Ambiguity, (d) Role Boundary, and (e) Physical Environment. *Personal Strain* is measured from a set of four subscales which include (a) Vocational Strain, (b) Psychological Strain, (c) Interpersonal Strain, and (d) Physical Strain. Coping resources are measured by four scales that comprise the *Personal Resources* dimension.

These include (a) Recreation, (b) Self-Care, (c) Social Support, and (d) Rational/Cognitive Coping. A table of the OSI-R scale descriptions follows (see Table 3), along with a diagram of the theoretical model of the instrument (Figure 1).

Table 3: Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised (Osipow, 1998) Scale Descriptions

Domain	Scale	Description
Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ)	Role Overload (RO)	Measures extent to which job demands exceed resources and ability of individual to accomplish workloads.
	Role Insufficiency (RI)	Measures extent of adequacy and appropriateness of individual's training, education, skills, and experience for job requirements.
	Role Ambiguity (RA)	Measures extent to which priorities, expectations, and evaluation criteria are clear to individual.
	Role Boundary (RB)	Measures the extent to which the individual is experiencing conflicting role demands at work.
	Responsibility (R)	Measures the extent to which the individual feels a sense of responsibility for the performance and welfare of others at work.
	Physical Environment (PE)	Measures the extent to which the individual is exposed to extreme or toxic physical conditions at work.
Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ)	Vocational Strain (VS)	Measures attitudes toward work and the extent to which an individual is having problems in work quality or output.

Domain	Scale	Description
	Psychological Strain (PSY)	Measures the extent of psychological and emotional problems experienced by the individual.
	Interpersonal Strain (IS)	Measures the extent of disruption in interpersonal relationships.
	Physical Strain (PHS)	Measures complaints about physical illness and poor self-care habits.
Personal Resources Questionnaire (PRQ)	Recreation (RE)	Measures the extent to which an individual engages in and derives pleasure and relaxation from recreation.
	Self-Care (SC)	Measures the extent to which the individual engages in activities which reduce stress.
	Social Support (SS)	Measures the extent to which an individual feels support and help from others.
	Rational/Cognitive Coping (RC)	Measures the extent to which the individual possesses and employs cognitive skills in the presence of work-related stress.

*Adapted from Osipow (1998).

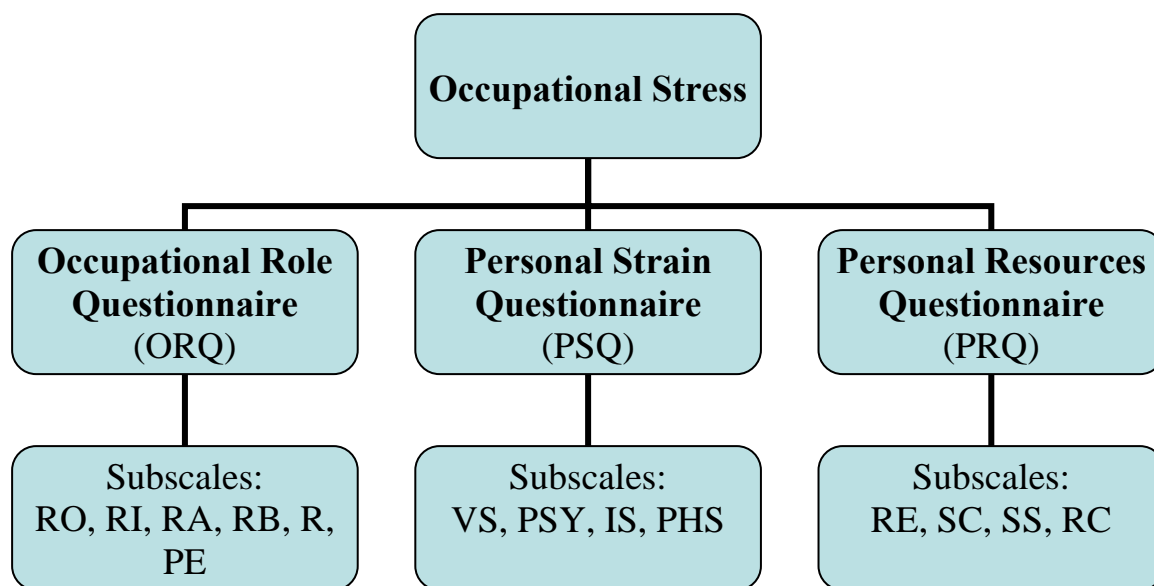


Figure 1: Conceptual Diagram of the Occupational Stress Inventory-R (Osipow, 1998)

The OSI-R (Osipow, 1998) is comprised of 140 items in total written at a seventh grade reading level. Respondents indicate on a 5-point rating scale the frequency of a stress-related event. The measure is intended for use with individuals across a broad range of work environments. The OSI-R norms were based on men and women over the age of 18, of whom 75% were classified as belonging to the executive, public service/safety, professional and administrative support occupations (Mental Measurements Yearbook). The OSI has been used to assess occupational stress in counselors (Sowa & May, 1994; Trivette, 1993) and specifically to assess occupational stress within the context of counselor supervision (Sternner, 2007).

Osipow (1998) reported reliability estimates for the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998), which were conducted through both the test-retest method as well as with an internal consistency analysis. The OSI was administered twice within a two-week period to a sample of 62 Air Force cadets; all scale test-retest correlations were significant at the .01 level. Alpha coefficients for the OSI-R total questionnaire scores were .88 for the Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ), .93 for the

Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ,) and .89 for the Personal Resources Questionnaire (PRQ). Coefficients for the individual scales ranged from .70 to .89.

Each of the three dimensions of the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998) have been subjected to a maximum likelihood factor analysis. All of the six Occupational Role Questionnaire scales as well as the four scales of the Personal Resources Questionnaire were clearly defined and loaded heavily on individual factors. The factor loadings on the four Personal Strain Questionnaire scales, however, indicate more scale overlap, especially between the Psychological Strain subscale and the Interpersonal Strain subscale, suggesting that these two scales seem to be measuring similar aspects of strain (Osipow, 1998). Therefore, multicollinearity must be considered when interpreting possible statistically significant results related to these subscales.

Results from a study involving 45 highway patrol cadets who took the two versions of the OSI (the OSI and the OSI-R) revealed that the items on the two versions are highly correlated; each of the 17 correlation coefficients for the individual scales were statistically significant, ranging from .63 to .93 (Elam, 1997, as cited in Osipow, 1998). These findings suggest, therefore, that the two versions are similar enough to allow for a generalization of validity from the original OSI to the OSI-R. The results of research conducted by Decker and Borgen (1993) with 249 adults in 75 occupations support the construct and discriminant validity of the OSI measures of stress, strain, and coping. Spokane and Ferrara (2001) discussed over 60 studies published since 1981, including validity studies, that support the notion that OSI is a psychometrically sound and practical device for use in variety of research and practical settings.

Sowa, May, and Niles (1994) utilized all three questionnaires of the OSI (Osipow, 1987) to assess the levels of perceived occupational stress in 125 counselors who were members of the Virginia Counseling Association. These researchers found that the data fell within the average

range of the OSI normative profile, suggesting that counselors in their study experience the same amount of occupational stress as their professional peers. However, additional findings of the study indicated that counselors who experienced high degrees of occupational stress also reported statistically significantly higher levels of personal strain and lower scores on the Personal Resources Questionnaire. Additionally, Layne, Hohenhill, and Singh (2004) employed the OSI –R in their investigation of 145 full-time rehabilitation counselors who were members of the American Rehabilitation Counseling Association. These researchers likewise reported results that supported the underlying model of the OSI-R, as they found that as stress was positively correlated with strain and negatively correlated with coping. These findings support the model of the theoretical construct of the OSI-R for use with counselors.

Research Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1

Supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and current participation in clinical supervision (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire) will not predict supervisor level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no statistically significant correlation between an internship site supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) and the ego development level of his or her supervisee (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) and the job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory [Osipow, 1998]) of his or her supervisee.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisee's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) and his or her job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory - R [Osipow, 1998]).

Exploratory Research Questions

Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other areas of counseling specialties?

Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks?

Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant relationship between supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision as a supervisee (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire [Walter, 2008]) and supervisor counseling specialty (school or other)?

Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the levels of job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory-R [Osipow, 1998]) reported by school counseling interns and the levels of job stress reported by interns in other counseling tracks?

Research Design

The research design of this study was descriptive survey research. Descriptive research is intended to obtain information concerning the current status of a phenomenon and to determine the nature of a situation that exists at the time of the study. This particular study involved correlation, which is concerned with determining the extent of relationship existing between variables. The variables of interest in this study were examined as they occur in their natural state, without manipulation. The purpose of correlational research is to gain an understanding of the degree and direction of relationships among variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

Correlational studies may be classified as descriptive research if the intent is to describe relationships or if they are ex post facto studies involving hypothesis testing (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1985), which was the case in this design. In a hypothesis-testing study, researchers have an a priori basis for expecting to observe a correlation between variables (Ary et al). This was the most appropriate design for this study, as it was not feasible to assign subjects randomly or to assign interns to supervisors with specific characteristics (i.e, supervision experience and/or

training or certain ego development levels). Furthermore, correlational research designs are conducive to purposive sampling, as is the case in this study, as the design does not inter causal relationships (Lambie et al, in review). Additionally, two existing groups (school counseling and mental health/marriage and family counseling) were investigated. This precluded the use of an experimental design, which involves random assignment.

Data Analysis

The data collected from this quantitative research was analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software package for Windows version 16.0 (2006). The study included the following variables: (a) supervisor experience in post-graduate supervision (measured by the Supervisor Questionnaire), (b) supervisors' ego development level (measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]), (c) supervisee ego development level (measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]), and (d) supervisee job stress (measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory – R [Osipow, 1998]). Single variables from the student-interns' demographic survey were reported. Prior to the data analyses, the data was examined to assess the assumptions of the statistical procedures, such as normality, homogeneity of variance, and collinearity. A more detailed description of the statistical procedures used to examine the research hypotheses follows:

1. Descriptive statistics (e.g., measures of variance and central tendency) were provided for all variables for the subgroups (school counseling supervisors/interns and mental health-marriage and family counseling supervisors/interns) and the total group. Results, including frequency (percentages), means, and standard deviations were reported in

tabular form for all variables. Both the E-level categories and the Total Protocol Ratings (TPR) derived from the measures of ego development for all participants were reported; frequencies, mode, and range were reported for E-level categories (ordinal data) and means and standard deviations were reported for the TPR (interval data).

2. To estimate of the relationship between participation in post-graduate supervision as a supervisee by site supervisors and their levels of ego development (Correlational Hypothesis 1), simultaneous multiple regression was used.
3. Linear regression was used to investigate the ability of supervisors' levels of ego development to predict/explain their supervisees' levels of ego development.
4. To estimate the relationship between supervisors' levels of ego development and supervisees' levels of job stress (Correlational Hypothesis 3), simultaneous multiple regression was used.
5. An estimate of the relationship between supervisees' ego development levels and their levels of job stress (Correlational Hypothesis 4) were made using simultaneous multiple regression.
6. The exploratory research questions were concerned with investigating possible differences in the four variables as a function of counseling specialty group. To test for differences between groups, analysis of variance (ANOVA) or multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were employed as appropriate.

Ethical Considerations

The following safeguards ensure that ethical standards were upheld in this research process:

1. Permission and approval to conduct the study (including the contacting and solicitation of supervisors, internship instructors, and internship students) were obtained from the researcher's dissertation committee and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Central Florida. Applications to the institutional review boards of the participating institutions were made and written permission was obtained prior to beginning data collection.
2. Participants were informed of the purpose and the voluntary nature of the study in the informed consent letter.
3. No names were recorded on the instruments. The researcher was the only person with access to the list that connected names to participant IDs. This list was kept separate from the instruments in accordance with IRB stipulations.
4. Participants were offered the opportunity to receive the results of the study.
5. Participants were assured that any response on any instrument would remain anonymous in the final presentation of the results, that no one other than the researcher and the raters would ever see the actual completed instruments, and that their responses can not in any way affect their professional positions.

Potential Limitations of the Study

While the target population of the study constituted an accessible population for the researcher, it does present some limitations in terms of the generalizability of the findings. For example, laws pertaining to counselor licensure and certification for school and mental health/marriage and family counselors vary from state to state. Florida has requirements of certification that tend to be less rigorous than those of other states with regard to school

counselor certification. For example, school counselors do not necessarily have to earn a graduate degree in counseling as long as they can demonstrate 30 graduate hours in specific counseling courses. Thus, any potential difference in preparation between school counselor supervisors and mental health counseling supervisors may be even greater in Florida than in states with stricter requirements for school counselor certification. However, by including all the CACREP programs in central Florida, differences in the data due to internship and supervisor selection and placement procedures that were unique to individual universities or types of universities (i.e., large/small, public/private) were minimized and results were more likely to be generalizable to the state of Florida as a whole. Likewise, by limiting the population to CACREP programs, differences in the data that may be attributed to program quality rather than true distinctions among individuals were limited. The inclusion of five institutions allowed for a large sample size.

The size of correlation is in part a function of the variability of the two distributions to be correlated. Thus, a restricted range of scores in the variables would reduce the observed degree of relationship between the two variables. This was a potential limitation to the current study, since most members of an occupational group (in this case, counseling students) have been found to occupy a similar ego maturity level (Loevinger, 1994). Most school counselors score at an E5 or an E6 level (Lambie, 2007; Lambie et al, in press). The lack of an ability of correlational research to establish causality may be seen as an inherent limitation of the design.

This study was a cross-sectional as opposed to a longitudinal investigation; therefore, a number of rival hypotheses may exist which could explain potentially significant results. An additional possible limitation was a small sample size. While the response rate from the student-interns was high (94%) due largely to the in-class group administration of the data collection

instruments, the response rate from the internship site supervisors was lower (73%), as these instruments were mailed. Further, the supervisors returned the instruments may have markedly different qualities from those who choose not to participate in the study, increasing the chance that the results obtained from this group may not be fully indicative of the population as a whole.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between counseling interns' site supervisors' supervision training and experience, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and perceived job stress of their supervisees. This chapter provided a description of the population and sample, the data gathering procedures, the instrumentation and hypotheses of the study, and an orientation to the research design and data analysis procedures. Finally, a discussion of the ethical considerations and potential limitations of the study followed.

CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

As stated in the Introduction to this study, the purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between counseling interns' site supervisors' supervision training and experience, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and perceived job stress of their supervisees. This chapter presents the results of the study. This Results chapter includes: (1) a review of the sampling procedures, (2) the descriptive demographic data results, and (3) the data analyses for the research hypotheses and exploratory research questions.

Sampling Procedures

Two groups of participants were sampled for this study: counseling internship students in three Central Florida graduate programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) and their internship site supervisors. The sampling procedures for the two groups will be discussed separately in detail.

Counseling Internship Students

The researcher contacted the program directors of five CACREP accredited graduate counseling programs in Central Florida by e-mail to introduce the study, to ask for the cooperation and participation of the programs, and to request the contact information for all of the internship instructors at their institutions. These five institutions included the University of Central Florida (Orlando), Rollins College (Winter Park, FL), Stetson University (DeLand, FL), the University of South Florida (Tampa), and Barry University (Orlando). The researcher obtained Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval from all institutions prior to data collections with the exception of Barry University, which did not have a process in place for the granting of

IRB approval to outside researchers. Additionally, the internship instructors at the University of South Florida did not agree to participate in the study. Therefore, the three remaining counseling programs (the University of Central Florida, Rollins College, and Stetson University) were included in the sample.

The researcher arranged for dates during the period of October 28, 2008 through December 2, 2008 to personally attend meetings of all of the internship classes at the three respective institutions. The researcher introduced the study to the students and all students received two copies of an informed consent letter, one of which they signed and returned to the researcher. Students were given three data collection instruments: (a) a demographics questionnaire, (b) the short-form of the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test* (WUSCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and (c) the *Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised* (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998), which they completed in class and returned to the researcher after completion.

Internship Site Supervisors

The researcher requested the names and work mailing addresses of the internship site supervisors for their internship students from the university internship class instructors. Seventy-eight supervisors were contacted by the researcher via mail according to the multiple contact method described by Dillman (2000). The supervisors received an initial contact letter introducing the study and its purpose briefly and explaining that they would be receiving a packet in the mail within the next few days with two data collection instruments to complete and return. Within four days of this initial mailing, the supervisors received a research packet containing (1) a cover letter, (2) two copies of the IRB-approved informed consent letter for the study, (3) a five dollar bill as an incentive to complete the data collection instruments, (4) a

demographics questionnaire (The Supervisor Experience Questionnaire), (5) the short-form of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and (6) a stamped return envelope addressed to the researcher. Approximately 10 days later, the researcher mailed a third contact to each supervisor, which served as a “thank-you” and a reminder for those who had not returned the instruments to please do so. Finally, one week following this contact, all supervisors who had still not responded received a replacement packet containing a cover letter and the documents in the original mailing. Data collection began on October 15, 2008, and the final responses were received December 6, 2008.

Descriptive Data Results

Counseling Internship Student Demographics

The combined number of internship students in the three programs totaled 103. One student chose not to participate in the study and five students were absent on the day the instruments were administered. One student chose to not complete the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998) or the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996), but completed the demographics questionnaire. Thus, 97 students (94%) participated in the study and 96 students completed all three data collection instruments (93%).

The mean age of the 97 internship students was 31.93 years ($SD = 9.84$) with a range of 23 to 65 years of age. Fourteen males participated in the study (13.6%), while 83 of the participants were female (80.6%). Five participants identified as African American (4.9%), three Asian participants (2.9%), 74 as Caucasian (71.8%), 11 as Hispanic (10.7%), and four participants who identified with multiple ethnic groups (3.9%). In terms of the counseling tracks the students reported as enrolled in, 19 (18.4%) were in a Marriage and Family Counseling

program, 41 (39.8%) were in a Community/Mental Health Counseling program, 26 (25.2%) were in a School Counseling program, seven (6.8%) were in a combined Mental Health and Marriage and Family Counseling program, three (2.9%) were in a combined Mental Health and School Counseling program, and 1 student (1%) was in a combined Marriage and Family and School Counseling program. The categories were collapsed for the purpose of data analysis. As the eight students who identified as attending a combined school and mental health or marriage and family program were currently completing internship in school counseling, these students were categorized as school counseling interns. Thus, there were 29 school counseling interns (29.9%) and 68 interns in other tracks (70.1%). The internship classes at the University of Central Florida and Stetson University were separated according to counseling track. Rollins College does not offer a school counseling program; thus, all of the interns in the study from this institution were classified as being enrolled in “other tracks”.

The number of credit hours completed by the students in their graduate programs at the point of the survey completion ranged from 36 to 80, with a mean of 56.01 hours ($SD = 6.63$). The number of internship hours (clock hours on site) ranged widely among the participants, from 80 to 1,050, with a mean of 384 hours ($SD = 207.49$), indicating that students were at various points of the internship process. Internship students also responded to a series of questions asking about their levels of satisfaction, the levels of quality, and the quality of the relationships with both their university and their site supervisors. Participants rated these factors as Poor (1), Fair (2), Good (3), or Excellent (4). The measures of central tendency of these questions are presented in Table 4 and 5 below.

Table 4: Internship Students' Ratings of University Supervisors ($N = 97$)

Factor	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range
Quality of Supervision	3.54	.646	1-4
Satisfaction with Supervision	3.45	.646	2-4
Relationship with Supervisor	3.47	.663	2-4

Table 5: Internship Students' Ratings of Internship Site Supervisors ($N = 97$)

Factor	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range
Quality of Supervision	3.31	.795	1-4
Satisfaction with Supervision	3.26	.820	1-4
Relationship with Supervisor	3.39	.771	1-4

Scores from the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) were obtained from 96 of the student respondents. The total protocol ratings (TPR) for the students ranged from 65 to 114, with a mean of 89.29 ($SD = 9.39$). The Ego levels ranged from E2 to E8, with E5 being the modal score. The mean Ego level was 5.36 ($SD = 1.106$). Table 6 displays the measures of central tendency for the TPR levels for students as a factor of their counseling track. Table 7 displays the measure of central tendency for the Ego levels for students as a factor of their counseling track.

Table 6: WUSCT Total Protocol Ratings of Students by Counseling Track ($N = 96$)

Counseling Track	N	TPR Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range
School	29	86.93	8.201	70-102
Other tracks	67	90.31	9.738	65-114
Total	96	89.29	9.390	65-114

Table 7: WUSCT Ego Development Levels of Students by Counseling Track ($N = 96$)

Counseling Track	N	Ego Level Mean	SD	Range
School	29	5.17	1.071	E3 – E7
Other tracks	67	5.45	1.118	E2 – E8
Total	96	5.36	1.106	E2 – E8

Ninety six counseling internship students completed the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the three separate domain-questionnaires obtained from data are presented in Table 8, along with the comparison Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients obtained from the test manual. The ranges, means, and standard deviations for all of the OSI-R subscales are reported in Table 9. Tables 10 and 11 present OSI-R factors and measures of central tendency for the separate counseling tracks.

Table 8: Alpha Coefficients Reported in the OSI-R Manual versus Those of Counseling Interns in Sample

Scale Set	Number of Items	OSI-R	Interns
ORQ	60	.88	.69
PSQ	40	.93	.87
PRQ	40	.89	.71

Table 9: OSI-R Values for Counseling Internship Students (Total Sample [$N = 96$])

Domain	Scale	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range
Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ)	Role Overload (RO)	25.62	7.377	12-46
	Role Insufficiency (RI)	21.75	7.069	11-41
	Role Ambiguity (RA)	20.34	6.5	10-42
	Role Boundary (RB)	22.09	5.633	11-43
	Responsibility (R)	23.03	5.887	14-47
	Physical Environment (PE)	15.82	5.25	10-37
Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ)	Vocational Strain (VS)	18.2	4.998	10-31
	Psychological Strain (PSY)	21.2	7.964	11-42
	Interpersonal Strain (IS)	22.41	6.372	13-44
	Physical Strain (PHS)	24.39	8.395	11-44
Personal Resources Questionnaire (PRQ)	Recreation (RE)	26.69	6.749	11-48
	Self-Care (SC)	28.75	6.974	16-46
	Social Support (SS)	44.51	4.828	
	Rational/Cognitive Coping (RC)	36.84	5.324	25-50

Table 10: OSI-R Scores for School Counseling Students ($n = 28$)

Domain	Scale	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range
Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ)	Role Overload (RO)	27.11	8.487	12-46
	Role Insufficiency (RI)	25.71	8.214	13-41
	Role Ambiguity (RA)	21.39	6.962	10-41
	Role Boundary (RB)	25.07	5.443	15-43
	Responsibility (R)	24.64	6.707	14-47
	Physical Environment (PE)	15.36	4.901	10-29
Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ)	Vocational Strain (VS)	19.18	4.974	12-31
	Psychological Strain (PSY)	23.32	9.553	12-42
	Interpersonal Strain (IS)	23.25	6.536	13-37
	Physical Strain (PHS)	24.71	9.092	11-42
Personal Resources Questionnaire (PRQ)	Recreation (RE)	28.32	6.429	16-41
	Self-Care (SC)	27.14	5.936	16-42
	Social Support (SS)	43.96	5.885	27-50
	Rational/Cognitive Coping (RC)	36.86	4.964	28-48

Table 11: OSI-R Scores for Counseling Students in Other Tracks ($n = 68$)

Domain	Scale	Mean	SD	Range
Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ)	Role Overload (RO)	25.01	6.845	13-40
	Role Insufficiency (RI)	20.07	5.852	11-38
	Role Ambiguity (RA)	19.91	6.303	10-42
	Role Boundary (RB)	20.87	5.274	11-32
	Responsibility (R)	22.37	5.430	14-41
	Physical Environment (PE)	16.01	5.410	10-37
Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ)	Vocational Strain (VS)	17.79	4.988	10-30
	Psychological Strain (PSY)	20.32	7.106	11-40
	Interpersonal Strain (IS)	22.06	6.320	13-44
	Physical Strain (PHS)	24.25	8.158	11-44
Personal Resources Questionnaire (PRQ)	Recreation (RE)	26.01	6.808	11-48
	Self-Care (SC)	29.41	7.296	16-46
	Social Support (SS)	44.74	4.349	25-50
	Rational/Cognitive Coping (RC)	36.84	5.501	19-49

Internship Site Supervisors' Demographics

Data collection packets were sent to 78 internship site supervisors. Fifty-seven supervisors returned the instruments, which resulted in a response rate of 73%. Fifty-four supervisors completed all of the instruments (69.2%). The number of supervisors contacted was less than the number of student-interns, as several supervisors supervised more than one student. Site supervisors were asked to identify their area of counseling specialty. Two (3.5%) identified as marriage and family counselors; 23 (40.4%) identified as mental health counselors; 24 (42.1%) identified as school counselors; and 8 (14.1%) identified as mental health counselors in conjunction with another counseling specialty. The categories for counseling supervisor specialty were combined as in the case for the internship students. Thus, there were 25 school counseling supervisors (43.9%) and 32 counseling supervisors in other specialties (56.1%). The supervisors indicated that they have provided clinical supervision to counseling interns or other counseling professionals for an average of 6.205 years ($SD = 5.498$), with a range from .25 to 25 years. Supervisors indicated that they have worked as a practicing counselor (50% time or more) for an average of 12.27 years ($SD = 7.514$), with a range of 2 to 33 years. Table 12 presents the supervisors' work experience-related demographics as a factor of their counseling specialty.

Table 13 presents supervisors' post-graduate clinical supervision participation as a factor of their counseling specialties. Eight of the twenty-five school counseling supervisors (32%) reported having participated in post-graduate clinical supervision, while all of the counseling supervisors in other areas indicated that they had done so.

Table 12: Supervisor Work Experience as a Factor of Counseling Specialty

	<i>N</i>	Mean Years Providing Clinical Supervision to Interns	Mean Years as Practicing Professional Counselor
School Counseling Supervisors	25	5.7 (range = .25-25) (<i>SD</i> = 5.28)	13.58 (range = 2-30) (<i>SD</i> = 7.30)
Other Counseling Supervisors	32	6.48 (range = .25-25) (<i>SD</i> = 5.77)	11.25 (range = 3-33) (<i>SD</i> = 7.63)
Total	57	6.14 (range = .25-25) (<i>SD</i> = 5.52)	12.27 (range = 2-33) (<i>SD</i> = 7.514)

Table 13: Post-graduate Clinical Supervision Experience as a Factor of Counseling Specialty

	No Post-Grad Clinical Supervision	Yes Post-Grad Clinical Supervision	Total
School Counselors	17	8	32
Other Counselors	0	32	25
Total	17	40	57

Supervisors who reported that they had participated in post-graduate clinical supervision ($n = 40$; 70%) were also asked to indicate the amount of time they had done so. One participant (2.5%) reported having participated for less than two months; five participants (12.5%) reported having participated between two months and six months; four participants (10%) indicated that

they had participated between six months and eighteen months; nine supervisors (22.5%) reported having participated between eighteen months and two years; and 21 supervisors (52.5%) reported having participated in post-graduate clinical supervision for more than two years. Supervisors were also asked to indicate whether or not they were currently receiving clinical supervision. The results of this question are displayed in Table 14. Supervisors also indicated if they had ever received formal training in supervision. Only six supervisors out of 57 (10.5%) indicated that they had never received any type of formal supervision training. Five supervisors reported having received supervision training in a graduate course, 15 reported having received supervision training through professional development offered through their workplaces, and nine reported having received training at workshops at professional conferences. The remaining 25 supervisors reported having received supervision training through multiple venues.

Finally, 54 supervisors completed the short-form of the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test* (WUSCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996). School counseling supervisors demonstrated a mean TPR score of 91.2917 (range = 79 - 107; $SD = 7.16$) and a mean ego level score of 5.63 (range = E4 - E7; $SD = .875$). Counseling supervisors in other specialties in this investigation demonstrated a mean TPR score of 96.10 (range = 80 - 125; $SD = 10.2$) and a mean ego level score of 6.067 (range = E4 - E9; $SD = 1.14$). The modal score for the supervisors in this investigation was E6 (Conscientious). The measures of central tendency obtained from the WUSCT are presented in Table 15. The frequencies for supervisors' ego levels are presented in Table 16.

Table 14: Supervisors who Receive Supervision Currently as a Factor of Counseling Specialty

	No Current Supervision	Yes Current Supervision	Total
School Counselors	23 (92% of school counselors)	2 (8 % of school counselors)	25
Other Counselors	22 (67% of other counselors)	10 (31% of other counselors)	32
Total	45 (79% of supervisors)	12 (21% of supervisors)	57

Table 15: Ego Development Scores for Counseling Supervisors as a Factor of Counseling Specialty

	<i>N</i>	Mean TPR	Mean Ego Level
School Counselors	24	91.29 (range = 79 - 107) (<i>SD</i> = 7.16)	5.63 (range = E4 - E7) (<i>SD</i> = .875)
Other Counselors	30	96.10 (range = 80 - 125) (<i>SD</i> = 10.2)	6.067 (range = E4 - E9) (<i>SD</i> = 1.14)
Total	54	93.96 (range = 79 - 125) (<i>SD</i> = 9.2)	5.87 (range = E4 - E9) (<i>SD</i> = 1.05)

Table 16: Frequency Distribution for Counseling Supervisor' Ego Levels

Ego Level	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
E4	5	8.8	9.3	9.3
E5	12	21.1	22.2	31.5
E6	26	45.6	48.1	79.6
E7	9	15.8	16.7	96.3
E9	2	3.5	3.7	100.0
TOTAL	54	94.7	100.0	

The distribution of supervisors' ego level scores appeared relatively symmetric; there was little evidence of skewness (skewness statistic = .576).

Analysis of Research Hypotheses

Prior to each data analysis procedure, the data were analyzed to ensure that the assumptions of each statistical procedure, such as homogeneity of variance and multicollinearity, were met. No assumption violations were identified.

Null Hypothesis 1

Supervisors' participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and current participation in clinical supervision (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire) does not predict supervisor level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether a supervisors' level of ego development as measured by the total protocol score (TPR) obtained on the short-form of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) could be predicted by their participation in post-graduate supervision. Supervisors' past and current participation in post-graduate clinical supervision were entered into the procedure as predictor variables. Overall, the composite of the

two predictor variables predicted 5.5% of the variation in the dependent criterion, $F(2, 51) = 1.495, p = .235$. Thus, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, suggesting that, for these data, past and current participation in post-graduate clinical supervision did not predict supervisor's ego development.

The analysis of this hypothesis was continued by conducting an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine whether there was a difference in TPR scores among the participants grouped according to the length of participation in post-graduate supervision. Levene's test of Equality of Error Variance was not significant ($p < .05$); thus, homogeneity of variance can be assumed. Thirty-eight of the forty participants who indicated that they had participated in post-graduate clinical supervision also completed the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). The statistical test was not significant ($F [1, 4] = .151, p = .961$), suggesting no differences in means of TPR scores among participants grouped according to length of supervision.

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no statistically significant correlation between an internship site supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and the ego development level of his or her supervisee (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis were conducted for both the total protocol scores obtained from the WUSCT and the ego development levels to determine if predictions can be made of supervisee developmental levels if supervisors' developmental levels are known.

The correlation between supervisors' TPR values and supervisees' TPR values was $R = .165$; $N = 68$; $F(1, 67) = 1.872$, $p = .176$. Overall, the independent variable entered into the regression procedure explained 1.3% of the variation in the dependent criterion. Thus, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, suggesting that supervisors TPR scores obtained from the WUSCT in this sample probably did not predict or explain the TPR scores of their supervisees.

This analysis was repeated using ego development levels (E levels) instead of TPRs. The correlation between supervisors' ego levels and supervisees' ego levels was $R = .127$; $N = 68$; $F(1, 67) = 1.104$, $p = .297$. Overall, the independent variable entered into the regression procedure explained 1.6% of the variation in the dependent criterion. Thus, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, suggesting that supervisors ego development levels obtained from the WUSCT in this investigation probably did not predict or explain the ego development levels of their supervisees.

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and the level of occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory [Osipow, 1998]) perceived by his or her supervisee.

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether a relationship exists between supervisor ego development levels and the occupational stress levels of their supervisees. Overall, the linear composite of the independent variables entered (interns' scores from all the individual scales of the OSI-R) entered into the regression procedure explained 8.8% of the variation in the TPR scores of their supervisors ($N = 68$; $F[14, 53] = 1.464$, $p = .158$). Thus, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, suggesting there was no

relationship in these data between supervisor ego developmental levels and the occupational stress levels of their supervisees for these data.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisee's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and his or her level of perceived occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory - R [Osipow, 1998]).

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether a relationship exists between supervisee ego development levels and their levels of occupational stress. Overall, the linear composite of the interns' scores for the subscales of the OSI-R entered into the regression procedure explained 14.6% of the variation in the interns' TPR scores obtained from the WUSCT ($N = 94$; $F [14, 80] = 2.144, p = .017$).

The confidence intervals around the b weights of scores from the Role Insufficiency subscale and scores from the Rational/Cognitive Coping subscale did not include zero as a probable value, so both estimates were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level. However, the confidence intervals around the b weights obtained for the other subscales did include zero as a probable value among other probable values, so the null hypothesis was not rejected, was not disconfirmed for these data. This suggests that the results for the remaining subscales should not be retained in the specified model.

Closer inspection of the b weights suggested that with every unit increase in Role Insufficiency, there was a .332 unit decrease observable in the TPR scores. Moreover, with every unit increase in Rational/Cognitive Coping, there was a .520 unit increase observable in the TPR

scores. The b weights for the remaining subscales were not examined because the results were not statistically significant for these data.

While the values of the b weights were useful in terms of understanding the unit change in TPR scores for every unit change in an OSI-R subscale, they did not reveal the relative effects of the occupational stress subscales on TPR scores. Thus, the Beta weights were consulted. The Beta weights revealed that a standardized unit change in TPR scores with respect to Rational/Cognitive Coping (Beta = .294) was slightly greater than a standardized unit change in TPR scores with respect to Role Insufficiency (Beta = -.249). Therefore, scores on the Rational/Cognitive Coping subscale explained a greater amount of the variance in the TPR scores than scores on the Role Insufficiency subscale.

Inspection of the variance inflation factor for each of the predictors suggested that multicollinearity was not problematic. None of the VIF for the subscales exceeded 10.00. Additionally, because the b weights of 12 of the subscales of the OSI-R turned out not to be statistically significant, the overall model was not supported for these data.

Analysis of Exploratory Research Questions

Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other counseling specialties?

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the mean difference in TPR scores obtained from the WUSCT between school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other counseling specialties. The mean for school counseling supervisors was

91.29, whereas the mean for other supervisors was 96.1. Levene's test of Equality of Error Variance was not significant ($p > .05$); thus, homogeneity of variance can be assumed. The ANOVA was not significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level ($N = 54$; $F [1, 52] = 3.857, p = .056$).

This analysis was repeated to evaluate the mean difference in ego levels obtained from the WUSCT between school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other counseling specialties. The mean ego level for school counseling supervisors was 5.63, whereas the mean for other supervisors was 6.07. The ANOVA was not significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level ($N = 54$; $F [1, 52] = 2.437, p = .125$).

Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks?

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the mean difference in TPR scores obtained from the WUSCT between school counseling interns and interns in other counseling specialties. Levene's test of Equality of Error Variance was not significant ($p > .05$). Homogeneity of variance can be assumed for the data in this investigation. The ANOVA was not significant ($N = 96$; $F [1, 94] = 2.673, p = .105$). Although there was no statistically significant difference between school counseling interns and other interns in other tracks, there was a slight difference in the means observed between these two groups, with the mean for interns from other tracks (90.31) higher than the mean for school counseling interns (86.93).

This analysis was repeated to evaluate the mean difference in Ego levels obtained from the WUSCT between school counseling interns and interns in other counseling specialties. The ANOVA was not significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level ($N = 96$; $F [1, 94] = 1.25, p = .265$). Although there was no statistically significant difference between school counseling supervisors and other supervisors, there was a slight difference in means observed between these two groups, with the mean for other interns (5.45) higher than the mean for school counseling interns (5.17).

Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant association between supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision as a supervisee (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire [Walter, 2008]) and counseling specialty (school or other)?

A chi-square test of independence was conducted to see if participation in post-graduate supervision was associated with the counseling specialty of the supervisor (school or other). The results were statistically significant for these data (chi-square = 31.008, $N = 57$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). According to the contingency coefficient (.594), approximately 36% of the variance can be explained by supervisor specialty. All 32 counselor supervisors in other areas of counseling specialty participated in post-graduate clinical supervision, whereas only 8 of the 25 school counseling supervisors participated in post-graduate clinical supervision. Thus, there was a statistically significant association between supervisor specialty and participation in post-graduate clinical supervision. In this investigation, supervisors in counseling specialties other than school counseling were more likely to have participated in post-graduate clinical supervision than school counseling supervisors.

Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the levels of job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory-R [Osipow, 1998]) reported by school counseling interns and the levels of job stress reported by counseling interns in other tracks?

As the OSI-R assumes that the individual subscales of the Occupational Roles Questionnaire, the Personal Strain Questionnaire, and the Personal Resources Questionnaire function to represent the overall occupational stress construct, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to compare the two groups (school counseling interns and other interns) with respect to the weighted aggregate of the responses on the 14 subscales of the OSI-R.

MANOVA was deemed a suitable procedure because the covariance matrices across groups were not different to a statistically significant degree ($p = .369$). Overall, differences between school counseling interns and interns in other tracks with respect to occupational stress levels were statistically significant, Wilkes Lambda = .636; $F(14, 81) = 3.310$, $p < .001$, with school counselors reporting higher levels of occupational stress. Differences in tracks accounted for approximately 36% of the total variance in the 14 subscales of the OSI-R.

To further explore differences between the groups in terms of the three individual questionnaires that comprise the OSI-R, three separate MANOVAs were used.

Analysis 1: Occupational Roles Questionnaire

The Occupational Roles Questionnaire consists of five subscales: Role Overload (RO), Role Insufficiency (RI), Role Ambiguity, (RA), Role Boundary (RB), Responsibility (R), and Physical Environment (PE). A MANOVA was used to determine if there was a difference in

scores on these subscales between school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks.

MANOVA was deemed a suitable procedure because the covariance matrices across groups were not different to a statistically significant degree ($p = .103$). Overall, Occupational Role stress levels were different between school counselors and counselors in other specialties ($N = 96$; Wilkes' Lambda = .744; $F [6, 89] = 5.108, p < .01$). Differences in tracks accounted for 25.6% of the total variance in the subscales of the Occupational Roles Questionnaire. Means were higher for school counseling interns on each of the five subscales of the Occupational Roles Questionnaire other than for the Physical Environment (PE) subscale, which was higher for counselors in other tracks. The Role Insufficiency (RI) subscale and the Role Boundary (RB) subscale were significantly higher for school counselors (For RI, $F ([1, 94] = 14.411, p < .01$; for RB, $F [1, 94] = 12.369, p = .001$). Therefore, school counselor interns experienced higher levels of occupational stress due to occupational roles than did counseling interns in other tracks.

Analysis 2: Personal Strain Questionnaire

The *Personal Strain Questionnaire* consists of four subscales: Vocational Strain (VS), Psychological Strain (PSY), Interpersonal Strain (IS), and Physical Strain (PHS). A MANOVA was used to determine if there was a difference in scores on these subscales between school counseling interns and interns in other tracks. Overall, scores in this investigation on the Personal Strain Questionnaire were not statistically significantly different between school counseling interns and interns in other counseling specialties ($N = 96$; Wilkes' Lambda = .946, $F [4, 91] = 1.308, p = .273$).

Analysis 3: Personal Resources Questionnaire

The *Personal Resources Questionnaire* of the OSI-R consists of four subscales: Recreation (RE), Self-Care (SC), Social Support (SS), and Rational/Cognitive Coping (RC). A MANOVA was used to explore differences in the Personal Resources scores between school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks.

Overall, there was a statistically significant difference in scores on the Personal Resources Questionnaire ($N = 96$; Wilkes' Lambda = .894; $F [4, 91] = 2.700, p = .035$). Differences in tracks accounted for 10.6% of the total variance in the subscales of the *Personal Resources Questionnaire*. Therefore, school counseling student interns scored at statistically lower levels of Personal Resources than student interns in other counseling tracks.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the data analysis procedures, including the descriptive statistics of the site supervisor and intern demographics, multiple linear regression analyses, analysis of variance and multivariate analysis of variance procedures, and chi square tests of independence. The following chapter reviews the results of the analyses and includes a discussion of the findings, potential limitations of the results, questions for future research, and implications of the findings.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a brief introduction to the study and a review of the research methodology. Next, the null hypotheses and research questions and the associated findings presented in Chapter 4 are reviewed. The results are discussed in relation to research findings presented in Chapter 2. Next, possible limitations of the study are discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the study's implications and directions for future research.

This study was situated in the context of cognitive developmental theory (e.g., Kohlberg, 1981; Loevinger, 1976; Piaget, 1977) and the Person-Environment Fit theory of occupational stress (French et al, 1974). While previous studies have examined counselor development through the lens of the ego development (Loevinger, 1976) construct, no studies were found that have examined how counselor supervisor developmental levels may relate to their supervisees' developmental levels and to their levels of perceived occupational stress during their internships. Additionally, research was not found which examined how participation and training in post-graduate clinical supervision may relate to supervisor development. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between counseling interns' site supervisors' post-graduate clinical supervision training and experience, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and perceived job stress of their supervisees. The findings of this study offer implications for counselor education and supervision.

This study included two groups of participants: (a) counseling interns in three CACREP-accredited counseling programs in Central Florida, and (b) their internship site supervisors. Ninety-seven counseling interns participated in the study (94% response rate). During their internship classes, the counseling interns completed (a) a demographics questionnaire, (b) the

short-form of the *Washington University Sentence Completion Test* (WUSCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996), and (c) the *Occupational Stress Inventory-Revised* (Osipow, 1998). Seventy-eight site supervisors were contacted by mail. The supervisors were sent a Supervisor Experience Questionnaire (Walter, 2008) and the short-form of the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). Fifty-eight supervisors returned the instruments, resulting in a response rate of 73%.

Following the data collection process, the research hypotheses and exploratory questions were tested and analyzed using linear regression, simultaneous multiple regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and chi-square tests of independence as appropriate to the level of data and nature of the hypothesis. An alpha level of .05 was used in the data analyses.

Discussion

This section begins with a discussion of the demographics of the sample as well as measures of central tendency of the constructs in the current investigation and a comparison with information obtained from other studies which have examined this target population. The section continues with a discussion of the findings related to each hypothesis and research question. The results are discussed in relation to relevant research findings presented in Chapter 2.

Participants' Demographics

Within the group of student-interns, 80.6% were female, 71.8% identified as Caucasian, and the mean age was 31.93 years. Research studies involving counseling students have found similar demographic trends. Research suggests that counseling students tend to be female and Caucasian, with females comprising roughly 75% - 85% of the samples in similar studies, and Caucasians comprising roughly 79% - 90% of the samples in these studies. Research also

suggests that the mean age of student-interns in the current study was similar to the mean age of counseling students in other studies (Borders, 1998; Borders & Fong, 1997; Borders & Fong, 1998; Granello, 2002; Lambie et al, in press; McIntyre, 1985; Watt et al, 2002). Therefore, the demographic information in this study was consistent with other findings.

In terms of the counseling supervisors in the current study, their demographic information was likewise typical of practicing counselors described in the research. For example, for the supervisors in the current sample, 77% percent were female and 84.2 % were Caucasian. Borders and Usher (1992), in their survey of the supervision practices and preferences of 357 National Certified Counselors, found similar demographic results (88% Caucasian and 66% female), and Lawson and Foster (2005; $N = 120$) found that practicing home-based counselors also roughly reflected this demographic trend. Lambie (2002; $N = 218$) and Diambra (1997; $N = 134$) additionally found, in their nation-wide surveys of practicing counselors, that Caucasian women comprised more than 75% of their samples. Thus, the supervisor demographic information obtained in this study was likewise consistent with other research findings.

Ego Development Levels

The mean ego level of student-interns in this investigation was 5.36, and the modal response was E5 (Self-aware). Research suggests that the Self-Aware level (E5) is typical of counseling students' level of functioning (Shaeffer et al, 2008 [$N = 102$]; Watt et al, 2002 [$N = 38$]; Zinn, 1995 [$N = 64$]). The counseling supervisors in the current study displayed a mean ego level of 5.87, with a modal response of E6 (Conscientious). This result was consistent with results reported by Lawson and Foster (2005; $N = 120$) and somewhat higher than results obtained by Lambie (2002; $N = 218$) and Diambra (1997; $N = 134$), who found that the typical

response of practicing counselors was E5 (Self-aware), although E6 (Conscientious) responses were not uncommon among participants in their samples. The ego development levels obtained in this study were similar to other research findings and reflective of a certain level of homogeneity within the field of counseling in general.

Occupational Stress Levels

Occupational stress levels reported by the student interns in the current study fell within the average range for the occupational group of *professionals* (which made up 14% of the normative sample of the OSI-R [Osipow, 1998]). The scores on all of the subscales of each of the three dimensions of the inventory all fell well within one standard deviation of the scores obtained by the normative sample. Additionally, the scores of the participants of the current study were generally comparable to results obtained by researchers investigating the construct of job stress in counselors when using the *Occupational Stress Inventory* (e.g., Sowa et al, 1994; Trivette, 1993). Sowa and colleagues (1994) administered the OSI to 125 members of the Virginia Counseling Association. As was the case in the current investigation, the data from Sowa and colleagues' sample fell within the average range of the OSI normative data. Trivette (1993), who used the OSI to study occupational stress in elementary school counselors ($N = 310$), likewise found that scores on all three groups of subscales of the OSI fell within the average range. Thus, results from this study and other research suggest that counseling-interns do not experience levels of occupational stress that are different from other professionals.

Discussion of the Analyses

Null Hypothesis 1

Supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and current participation in clinical supervision (as indicated on the Supervisor Questionnaire) will not predict supervisor level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

The results suggested that the null hypotheses cannot be rejected ($F [2, 51] = 1.495, p = .235$). The data obtained in this investigation suggested that past and current participation in post-graduate clinical supervision do not predict the level of ego development in internship site supervisors. Moreover, there was no difference in mean ego TPR scores or ego level scores in supervisors when supervisors were grouped according to the length of time they reported participating in post-graduate clinical supervision ($F [1, 4] = .151, p = .961$).

Results of an additional linear regression procedure did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between supervisors' ego development levels and participation in formal supervision training ($N = 54; F [1, 52] = .322, p = .573$). Furthermore, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed no statistically significant difference in ego development scores of supervisors when supervisors were grouped according to the type of formal supervision training (i.e. formal graduate training, professional development in the workplace, or conference workshops) they reported having received ($N = 52; F [1, 9] = .735, p = .674$). These findings suggest that the mere occurrence of participation in what supervisors identified as clinical supervision or in clinical supervision training did not result in social-cognitive growth for these participants.

While 89.5% of the supervisors indicated that they had received formal training in supervision, only five individuals (8.5%) reported having received training in a formal, for-credit graduate course. Others reported receiving training through workshops or professional development initiatives, such as in-service training. Typical counselor in-service programs, which tend to consist of short-term workshops, have resulted in limited effects in terms of skill acquisition (Brown, 1989; Peace, 1995). Crutchfield and Borders (1997), in their study of the effects of training in peer supervision models, also concluded that training that is too brief may not result in other measurable effects, such as job satisfaction or self-efficacy. Peace (1995) argued that training in supervision, in order for it to facilitate developmental growth, should be intensive, continuous, and long-term, and should optimally consist of such experiences as role taking and guided reflection, and an appropriate balance of challenge and support. It is unlikely that such elements were present in supervision training workshops, which could explain why the type of formal training most often experienced by respondents in this sample did not predict supervisor ego development.

Few studies have investigated the effect of participation in supervision on development. The result from this study that ego development is not related to participation in post-degree supervision was inconsistent with results obtained by Borders and Usher (1992), who found that a greater amount of post-degree supervision hours reported by NCCs ($N = 357$) did have a statistically significant relationship to characteristics associated with higher levels of development. These researchers, in a three-part survey sent to a national random sample of NCCs, asked participants to describe their preferred frequency of supervision, and their focus and goals during supervision. Those counselors who reported having received more hours in post-degree supervision desired supervision more often (chi square [$N = 264$; $df = 6$] = 56.323, p

< .001) and preferred to focus on conceptualization skills, rather than on learning more concrete skills and techniques. The preferences of the counselors who received more supervision were reflective of the higher levels of development described in developmental models of supervision (e.g. Blocher, 1983; Stoltenberg, 1983). The authors concluded that their results supported a connection between participation in post-graduate supervision and counselor development. Development was indirectly measured by examining characteristics of developmental levels instead of a direct measure of development such as ego development. It is possible that participation in supervision does predict or explain development in more subtle ways that a holistic concept such as ego development does not measure. Additionally, the sample in the current study was different in that it was smaller and comprised of individuals who were not all NCCs. On the other hand, the authors did not necessarily measure counselor development in a psychometrically sound manner, as they based their conclusions on respondents' short answers to specific questions rather than with a measure with established validity and reliability information.

Furthermore, the current investigation did not examine the supervisors' previous supervisory relationships or the delivery modality of the clinical supervision they had received. Supervisors were simply asked to report if they had participated in post-graduate clinical supervision, and if so, for how long. It is possible that supervisors had supervision experiences that were not intentionally structured in a manner conducive to social-cognitive growth. Details concerning how supervision occurred for these supervisors were not collected. For example, some supervisors could have experienced clinical supervision as a regular, consistent appointment which was highly valued by both members of the supervisory relationship and included time for personal reflection and discussion of goals. On the other hand, it is possible

that some supervisors might have experienced supervision as a hurried obligation that involved quick meetings when there was a break in the schedule and attention to immediate crises rather than personal and professional development of the counselor. While the first example might result in social-cognitive growth, supervisors with supervision experience more like the second example may have realized little change in their development. Blocher (1983) and Stoltenberg (1981) asserted that it is the optimal level of dissonance between challenge and support in the supervisory environment that stimulates cognitive growth. Lambie and Sias (2009) argued that appropriate counseling supervision also includes sufficient time for self-reflection and the deliberate focus on the development and growth of the supervisee. This investigation did not examine the presence of these forces in the site supervisors' supervision experiences. Thus, qualitative aspects of the supervisory process may be more important and influential in terms of personal growth and development than the simple fact of or length of time spent in supervision participation.

The conjecture that the quality of supervision may be more important to consider than its occurrence alone was supported by results obtained by Peace (1998) in a study investigating the effects of supervision training on the ego development levels of supervisors. In this study, 11 school counselors who were trained over the course of two semesters with an intense focus on development did demonstrate statistically significant as well as qualitative growth in development. This study contributed evidence that growth in ego functioning can occur in intentionally designed programs. However, as stated earlier, the current investigation did not provide information on the nature of supervision delivery. Therefore, based on the findings in the current study and on those reported by Borders and Usher (1992), it may be possible to demonstrate a relationship between participation in post-graduate clinical supervision and

developmental levels if qualitative aspects of the supervision process are considered and development is measured in terms of specific attitudes and preferences.

Finally, there is a possibility that ego levels for the supervisors' in the current study may have been at a high enough level to result in change resistance. Manners et al (2004) found that adults can experience further ego development beyond the modal level of stabilization (E5) when exposed to intentionally designed, personally salient interventions. While the frequency distribution of ego levels was not skewed and there was variability in the distribution, the modal ego response for supervisors in this investigation was at the Conscientious level (E6) and 68.5% of the supervisors in this investigation were functioning at the E6 level or higher. This result was higher than the E5 mode for most adults (Lawson & Foster, 2005). It is possible that the ego levels were already too high for the group as a whole due to advanced education to find differences or associations with specific variables. Loevinger (1976) also cautioned that ego stage development can be resistant to change and growth can thus be difficult to promote. The higher the ego level, the more resistant an individual may be to further adaptation and change (Lambie, 2002). However, it is encouraging that the modal response for supervisors was at the Conscientious (E6) level, as this result implies that supervisors would be functioning at a higher level than most supervisees, affording them the ability to be effective with supervisees functioning at an E5 level or lower (Cebik, 1985).

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no statistically significant correlation between an internship site supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test

[Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) and the ego development level of his or her supervisee (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]).

Results from the linear regression procedure employed to test this hypothesis suggested that, for these data, supervisees' levels of ego development cannot be predicted or explained when supervisor ego developmental levels were known ($N = 68$; $R = .165$, $F [1, 67] = 1.872$, $p = .176$). No additional existing studies were found that have investigated direct connections between supervisor and supervisee developmental levels. Swensen (1980) postulated that supervisors' own levels of ego development may impact the supervision they provide and thus may indirectly affect the ego development of their supervisees. The supervisory environment should be structured at a higher level of developmental functioning in order to be adequately disequilibrating enough to promote accommodation and assimilation in the supervisee (Manners & Durkin, 2000; Sias & Lambie, 2008). According to Cebik (1985), a supervisor at a simpler level of ego functioning would not be able to support and facilitate growth for a supervisee at a more complex level. While the results of this investigation do not suggest a direct correlation between supervisor and supervisee developmental levels, the data did support that the supervisors were functioning at a higher ego level than the interns. As a whole, the supervisors' mean ego levels (5.87) were roughly a half-stage above the levels displayed by the student-interns (5.36). Likewise, there was a statistically significant difference between the total protocol ratings (TPR) obtained on the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) of supervisors and interns ($F [1, 132] = 9.700$, $p = .002$), with supervisors scoring higher. Thus, while a statistically significant relationship between developmental levels of supervisors and supervisees was not observed in this sample, these data did support the conjecture that experience, both in terms of life and professional activity, may contribute to ego stage growth.

However, individual supervisor – intern relationships did not display a predictable pattern. It is possible that supervisors functioning at a higher developmental level still lacked the skills and knowledge or the time or values to intentionally and purposefully structure the supervisory environment in a way that fostered the development of their supervisees. Additionally, it is possible that supervisors functioning at lower levels of development were not equipped to stimulate further growth in supervisees. Since this study was cross-sectional as opposed to longitudinal, it is not clear if supervisor ego levels resulted in changes in student-intern levels over time. For example, it is possible that supervisors with higher levels of ego functioning might have been better able to affect relative growth in their supervisees and that this effect was simply not apparent in a cross-sectional design. It is also possible that the internship experience may simply be too short in duration to affect a change. Manners and Durkin (2000) also concluded that potential preliminary differences in ego development levels may influence the degree of disequilibrium, and therefore growth that educational experiences cause within the individual.

Finally, it must be noted that experiences independent from the supervisor or the supervisory relationship may have been responsible for student-intern outcomes. Students experience a wide range of events outside of the internship experience that may impact social-cognitive functioning, including traumatic or other acutely stressful events (Lanning et al, 2007) or growth-inducing experiences unrelated to their counselor training. The construct of ego development is broad and holistic, encompassing the realms of cognition, self and interpersonal perception, character development, and moral reasoning (Manners & Durkin, 2000). The inclusive nature of the construct may make it difficult to relate changes in ego development levels to single, specific events. Studies that have investigated the developmental effects of

training have been equivocal (Borders, 1998), and even longitudinal studies have suggested that developmental levels of counselors-in-training were resistant to change as a result of training (Borders & Fong, 1997 [$N = 33$]; Slomowitz, 1981 [$N = 198$]; Weitzman-Swain, 1996 [$N = 32$]). Studies that do demonstrate growth over time involve interventions of sufficient duration that are intentionally structured (Manners & Durkin, 2004). Thus, it is possible that the supervision experiences of the counseling interns in this study were (a) too short in duration to have an impact on developmental levels (Weitzman-Swain, 1996), or (b) simply not impactful enough on their own to stimulate growth. It should also be noted that the majority of student-interns (76%) were functioning at the Self-aware level (E5), which, according to Zinn (1995), affords counselors the ability to work effectively with most clients.

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisor's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and the level of occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory [Osipow, 1998]) perceived by his or her supervisee.

Results of a simultaneous multiple regression analysis suggested there was no relationship in these data between supervisor ego developmental levels and the occupational stress levels of their supervisees ($F [14, 53] = 1.464, p = .158$).

While ego development theory (Loevinger, 1976) would suggest that supervisors with higher levels of ego functioning may be better equipped to perceive the diverse needs and perspectives of their supervisees and be better able to adapt their styles to meet these needs, the data in the current investigation did not suggest that higher levels of ego development in

supervisors predict lower levels of perceived occupational stress in their supervisees. As a whole, results obtained from the student-interns on the OSI-R were not significantly different from levels reported by members of other professional occupations in the normative sample of the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998). These results were consistent with Sowa and colleagues' (1994) investigation of occupational stress among counselors who were members of the Virginia Counseling Association ($N = 125$), an investigation which also used the OSI-R as a measure of occupational stress. Additionally, the modal ego development score for supervisors was an E6 (Conscientious), which is higher than levels found by some researchers in investigations of practicing counselors (e.g., Diambra, 1997; Lambie, 2002). The fact that counseling interns in this study reported occupational stress levels that were at or below levels reported by members of other occupations coupled with the fact that supervisors scoring at the modal response of E6 were typified as reflective and capable of conceptual complexity and broad perspective-taking may have contributed to low levels of variance and therefore no statistically significant correlation between the variables.

Several studies in the field of counseling and related helping professions have investigated the connections between supervision and occupational stress (e.g., Coady et al, 1990; Davis et al, 1989). In general, these studies tend to support the contention that greater satisfaction with supervision predicts lower rates of perceived occupational stress on the part of supervisees. Although this study did not find a relationship between supervisor ego functioning and supervisee levels of occupational stress, the results of this investigation did support the relationship between satisfaction with supervision and lower levels of perceived occupational stress. Student-interns in this investigation were asked to rate how satisfied they were with the supervision they have received in their internship site ($N = 97$; $m = 3.26$, $SD = .820$, range = 1-4).

The levels of satisfaction were found to be statistically significantly related to their levels of occupational stress related to occupational roles ($N = 96$; $F [6, 89] = 8.781$; $p < .001$) and personal strain ($N = 96$; $F [4, 91] = 3.53$; $p = .01$). Overall, the level of satisfaction with supervision explained 40% of the variance in total occupational stress scores. Therefore, students who were more satisfied with their internship supervision reported significantly lower levels of occupational role stress and lower levels of psychological strain. The data in this investigation did not support a relationship between satisfaction with supervision and the scores obtained from the Personal Resources subscales of the OSI-R.

The results concerning satisfaction with supervision and occupational stress levels were consistent with findings of Davis and colleagues (1989), who examined the relationship between satisfaction with supervision and burnout in 120 counselors who were member of the Oregon Personnel and Guidance Association. These authors found that dissatisfaction with supervision was positively correlated with the frequency and intensity of emotional exhaustion as well as the intensity of depersonalization. Furthermore, Ladany and Friedlander (1995) found that counseling trainees ($N = 123$) who perceived their supervisory working alliances as strong also perceived less confusion about their own roles within supervision, whereas those who perceived their supervisory alliance as weak tended to experience higher levels of role confusion. Thus, while developmental theory would suggest a relationship between supervisory developmental levels and the levels of occupational stress perceived by their supervisees, the results of this investigation, coupled with previous research findings, suggest that the level of satisfaction supervisees experience with their internship supervision may contribute more to their level of occupational stress.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant correlation between a supervisee's level of ego development (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1998]) and his or her level of perceived occupational stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory - R [OSI-R; Osipow, 1998]).

Although the simultaneous multiple regression analysis used to test this hypothesis did reveal a statistically significant relationship between supervisee ego level and supervisee occupational stress ($N = 94$; $F [14, 80] = 2.144, p = .017$), the hypothesis could not be rejected or disconfirmed because only two of the 14 OSI-R subscales related significantly to ego level. These results suggested that there was not a linear relationship between ego levels and the entire set of subscales that serve to measure the overall construct of occupational stress by the OSI-R.

However, researchers have recommended examining the OSI-R subscales individually. For example, Hicks, Fujiwara, and Bahr (2006) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of the OSI-R with teachers in Australia. The researchers did not find that the underlying three factor model of the instrument (Occupational Roles, Personal Strain, and Personal Resources) fit for their data ($N = 141$). The authors concluded that examining each individual scale's contribution separately provided the clearest indication of the levels of occupational stress experienced by the participants.

Thus, the data in this investigation did identify a statistically significant negative relationship between scores on the Role Insufficiency subscale and ego level as well as a statistically significant positive relationship between scores on the Rational/Cognitive Coping subscale and ego level. These results were consistent with Steinwald's (1994) assertion that individual differences in both the perception of some factors as stressful (role insufficiency) and

in the responses to these stressors (coping) are affected by the individual's unique frame of meaning-making (ego). Results of this analysis also support findings by Evans, Brody, and Noam (1999). In their study of female psychiatric inpatients ($N = 52$) who were grouped in terms of higher and lower levels of ego functioning, these researchers found that individuals who were at higher levels of development reported greater job competency ($F [1, 50] = 3.99, p < .01$). Thus, increasing self-complexity was found to guard against certain psychological symptoms and to allow individuals to temper negative experiences.

Suls, David, and Harvey (1996) conducted a meta-analysis of personality and coping. Their conclusions were consistent with the findings of the current study. The authors concluded that the ability to make meaning of difficult life situations and the ability to assume a more global perspective, two skills which are indicative of higher levels of developmental functioning, allow for better adaptation and for more effective coping when faced with stressors. Additionally, the meta-analysis revealed that exposure to stress can negatively affect social-cognitive functioning. Lanning, Colucci, and Edwards (2007) demonstrated the impact of stress on ego development in their examination of changes in ego development in 24 college students pre-and post September 11, 2001; students demonstrated a statistically significant drop ($t [23] = 2.5, p = .02$) in ego development after the traumatic event.

The findings related to ego level and occupational stress in the current study were also congruent with the research findings of Labouvie-Vief and colleagues (1987), who found that differences in ego level accounted for differences in the level of appraisal toward stressful events among the study participants ($N = 100$). Furthermore, these authors found that participants with higher levels of ego functioning were less likely to use immature coping strategies in response to stress. The findings obtained in the current study support these results, as student-interns in this

study with higher levels of ego functioning were more likely to employ rational/cognitive coping strategies.

Finally, the results of the current study were also consistent with findings reported by Lambie (2007), who investigated the contribution of ego development level to burnout in school counselors ($N = 218$). While the results did not indicate an overall relationship between higher levels of ego development and reduced burnout, personal accomplishment, measured by one of the three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986), was found to have a statistically significant relationship to ego development. Additionally, Gann (1979) found that social workers who scored at higher levels of ego development scored at a lower level of depersonalization on the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Thus, as in the current studies, ego development has been found to relate to specific aspects of the construct of occupational stress.

Results of the statistical procedures employed to analyze the exploratory research questions 1-3 will be discussed together in the following section.

Exploratory Research Question 1

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other counseling specialties?

Exploratory Research Question 2

Is there a statistically significant difference between the ego development levels (as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test [Hy & Loevinger, 1996]) of school counseling interns and interns in other counseling tracks?

Exploratory Research Question 3

Is there a statistically significant association between supervisor participation in post-graduate clinical supervision as a supervisee (as indicated on the Supervisor Experience Questionnaire [Walter, 2008]) and counseling specialty (school or other?)

There was no statistically significant difference between school counseling supervisors and other supervisors ($N = 54$, $F [1, 52] = 3.857$, $p = .056$). The observed mean for other supervisors in the total protocol scores was 96.1, and for the ego level, the mean was 6.066; for school counseling supervisors, the mean total protocol score was 91.29 and the mean ego level was 5.625. These results were similar to findings with 134 National Certified Counselors (NCCs) conducted by Diambra (1997); however, Diambra found that school counselors' developmental levels were statistically significantly lower than the developmental levels of mental health and community counselors. Likewise, although there was not a statistically significant difference between the ego development scores of school counseling student-interns and the scores of student-interns in other counseling tracks ($N = 96$, $F [1, 94] = 2.673$, $p = .105$) in the current study, the interns from other tracks had a mean total protocol score of 90.31 and a mean ego level of 5.45, while the school counseling interns had a mean total protocol score of 86.93 and a mean ego level of 5.17. Granello (2002), in a study investigating the cognitive development of counseling students ($N = 205$), found results similar to the results of the current study in that school counseling students' developmental levels were lower than the developmental levels of students in other counseling students after internship, but not to a statistically significant degree. The number of school counseling interns in the current investigation ($n = 29$) was lower than the number of counseling interns from other counseling tracks ($n = 68$). The discrepancy in numbers

in the groups is a possible reason that the observable differences in ego developmental levels were not statistically significant.

Furthermore, results of a chi square analysis indicated that school counseling supervisors were less likely to have participated in post-graduate supervision than counselors in other areas of specialty (chi square = 31.008, $N = 57$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). This result was congruent with findings obtained by Borders and Usher (1992) from their national survey of 357 NCCs, which assessed the post-graduate supervision practices among counselors in various work settings. These authors found that school counselors (39% of sample) were the least likely counseling professionals to be receiving supervision. Other researchers (e.g., Page et al, 2000; Roberts & Borders, 1994) have also reported low levels of participation in clinical supervision by school counselors. Diambra (1997) suggested that the lower levels of ego development displayed by school counselors may well be related to a lack of participation in clinical supervision. However, as reported earlier, the current study failed to support a link between ego development and participation in clinical supervision.

Exploratory Research Question 4

Is there a statistically significant difference between the levels of job stress (as measured by the Occupational Stress Inventory-R [Osipow, 1998]) reported by school counseling interns and the levels of job stress reported by counseling interns in other tracks?

Results from three separate multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedures indicated that school counseling interns experience higher levels of stress related to occupational roles than interns in other counseling tracks ($N = 96$; Wilkes Lambda = .744, $F [6, 89] = 5.108$, $p < .01$), with 25.6% of the variance in the subscales accounted for by difference in counseling

tracks. Additionally, school counseling interns experience lower levels of personal resources than interns in other counseling tracks ($N = 96$; Wilkes Lamda = .894 $F [4, 91] = 2.700, p = .035$); with 10.6% of the variance in the subscales accounted for by difference in counseling tracks). In this study, school counseling students displayed ego levels that were observably, although not statistically significantly, lower than those of other counseling interns. Additionally, ego development levels of interns were found to relate significantly to role insufficiency and rational/cognitive coping ability, two subscales of the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998). It thus follows theoretically that school counselors, who had observably lower levels of ego development than counselors in other tracks, would experience higher levels of occupational stress as well.

While previous research has not directly investigated differences in occupational stress level as a factor of counseling specialty, a plethora of research has examined the sources and levels of occupational stress experienced by school counselors in particular. Research has found that school counselors experience dissonance between their formal, academic preparation, and the realities of their work environment (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Brott & Myers, 1999; Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Culbreth et al, 2005), which can result in occupational stress as a factor of role incongruence. Further research suggests that role ambiguity, which arises when a worker lacks clarity about the goals and objectives associated with his or her professional role (Osipow, 1998), can be a significant source of stress for school counselors as well (Sears & Navin, 1983) Although the current study did not find that school counseling interns experience higher levels of stress due to role ambiguity than counseling interns in other tracks, it is possible that the American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 2005) *National Model*, which describes the role and appropriate duties of the professional school counselor, has had an impact both on school counseling interns and the professional school counselors and administrators in

their internship site settings. School professionals and counseling interns may be more likely to share a common and more clearly defined vision of the goals and objectives that comprise the school counselor's professional role, resulting in less role ambiguity in emerging professional school counselors.

The data from this investigation did suggest, however, that school counseling interns do experience statistically significantly higher levels of occupational stress on the subscales of Role Insufficiency ($F [1, 94] = 14.111, p < .01$) and Role Boundary ($F [1, 94] = 12.39, p = .001$). These subscales measure the extent to which individuals perceive their training and skills as appropriate to the demands of their job, and the extent to which the individual may experience conflicting role demands in their job. Most states have eliminated the requirement for teaching experience for school counselor licensure (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), and as a result, many school counseling interns enter their internship experience and the field without professional school experience and knowledge of the professional culture within school settings (Peterson & Deuschle). Indeed, research suggests that school counselors without professional school experience may feel unprepared in terms of their classroom skills and knowledge regarding school culture and relationships among the various personnel within the school (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004). A lack of classroom and professional school experience may contribute to a sense within the school counseling interns that they are not adequately prepared to meet some of the demands related to delivering a comprehensive school counseling program, which requires a large group guidance component and the tasks of interfacing with the school system. It should be noted, however, that the current study did not assess prior teaching or professional school experience among school counseling interns, and that the connection

between a lack of professional school experience and role insufficiency is based on existing professional literature.

School counseling interns in the current investigation also experienced statistically significantly lower scores on the Personal Resources subscales of the OSI-R (Osipow, 1998), which measures the extent to which an individual possesses and employs cognitive skills and appropriate supports to cope with stress ($N = 96$; Wilkes Lamda = .894, $F [4, 91] = 2.700$, $p = .035$). As discussed earlier, school counseling interns in this study also displayed slightly lower levels of ego development, which may (a) result in an impact on their ability to cope effectively with occupational stress (Lambie, 2007; Steinwald, 1994); or (b) be a reflection of the impact of a stressful event (the internship) on their level of ego functioning (Lanning, 2007).

In summary, the current investigation contributes new information regarding the supervision experiences of internship site supervisors, how their experience relates to their developmental levels, and the relationship between their developmental levels and the developmental functioning of their supervisees. Additionally, the results support previously established connections between ego development and both the perception of stress and the coping strategies employed in the face of stress. The data obtained through this investigation suggest that individuals with higher levels of ego development experience lower levels of occupational stress and enjoy higher levels of personal resources, lending support to the assertion that “higher levels of cognitive development are more functional” (Lambie, 2007, p. 86) in that higher levels of developmental functioning can buffer against the effects of occupational stress.

Limitations of Study

The decision to include only CACREP-accredited counseling programs in Central Florida in the study, as opposed to a larger number of institutions in a wider range of locations presents some limitations in terms of the generalizability of the findings. Additionally, two of the five institutions invited to participate in the study did not participate. Not only did this reduce the number of participants, but it is always possible that the students in institutions who volunteer to participate in research may be inherently different from those who choose not to participate (Dillman, 2000). In terms of being able to generalize results outside of the state of Florida, laws pertaining to counselor licensure and certification for school and mental health/marriage and family counselors vary from state to state. Florida has requirements for certification that tend to be less rigorous than those of other states with regard to school counselor certification. For example, school counselors do not necessarily have to earn a graduate degree in counseling as long as they can demonstrate 30 graduate hours in specific counseling courses (Florida Department of Education, Administrative Rule 6A-4.0181). Thus, any potential difference in preparation between school counselor supervisors and mental health counseling supervisors may be even greater in Florida than in states with stricter requirements for school counselor certification.

The size of correlation is in part a function of the variability of the two distributions to be correlated (Ary et al, 1985). Thus, a restricted range of scores in the variables will reduce the observed degree of relationship between the two variables. Although ego development scores were analyzed both in terms of total protocol ratings (TPR) and ego levels, this is a potential limitation to the current study, since most members of an occupational group (in this case, counseling students) have been found to occupy a similar ego maturity level (Loevinger, 1994);

most school counselors score at an E5 or an E6 level (Lambie, 2007; Lambie et al, in press).

Finally, in addition to limitations due to restricted variance, the lack of an ability of correlational research to establish causality can also be seen as an inherent limitation of the design.

While the data collection instruments employed in this study have strong psychometric properties, instrumentation error must be considered as a possible limitation. First, respondents who completed the WUSCT (Hy & Loevinger, 1996) might have experienced a desire to cast themselves in a positive light and responded more thoroughly or thoughtfully to the instrument than might normally be typical. The short-form of the WUSCT was used in this investigation instead of the full, 36-item instrument in order to guard against participants becoming overtaxed in the instrument completion process. While the short-form of the WUSCT is psychometrically sound and comparable to the 36-item version (Loevinger, 1998), it is somewhat less reliable, due to the shorter number of items (Lambie, 2002). Finally, some instrument error might have arisen from the demographics questionnaires. Respondents were asked to give information concerning numbers of years and hours, and many respondents may have only been able to give an approximation of the actual amounts requested. It is also important to note that the strength of a correlation between variables is limited by the reliability of the measures in the study. Even with perfect correlations, the correlation coefficients can only be as high as the product of the reliability coefficients of the instruments (Lomax, 2001).

This study was a cross-sectional as opposed to a longitudinal investigation; therefore, a number of rival hypotheses may exist which could explain potentially significant results. It is also possible that a change in terms of student-interns' developmental levels occurred that was not measured due to the cross-sectional nature of the study. An additional possible limitation may be a small sample size. While the response rate from the student-interns was high (94%) due

largely to the in-class group administration of the data collection instruments, the response rate from the internship site supervisors was lower (73%), as these instruments were mailed. Further, the supervisors returned the instruments may have markedly different qualities from those who choose not to participate in the study, increasing the chance that the results obtained from this group may not be fully indicative of the population as a whole (Dillman, 2000). It is possible that supervisors, as associates of CACREP-accredited counselor education programs, might have desired to put themselves in the best possible light and made special efforts to more thoughtfully complete the assessments than might ordinarily have been the case. Finally, information was not collected on the nature of the delivery of supervision, both in terms of the student-interns' supervision and the clinical supervision experiences of the supervisors themselves. It is quite possible that information regarding the quality and structure of the supervision process could contribute to or predict developmental levels in both supervisors and student-interns more accurately than the mere occurrence of supervision or supervision training. There may also be other extraneous variables that contribute more strongly to ego development and stress than supervision.

However, given the noted limitations of the study and the inherent limitations in correlational research, the study contributed new information regarding counseling internship site supervisors' post-graduate supervision experiences and developmental levels. The study's findings related to the relationship between ego development and stress were also largely consistent with findings from previous research with different populations. Future research which investigates the nature and structure of the supervision process and addresses the limitation of the cross-sectional research design may lead to more significant findings.

Implications and Recommendations for Future Research

The current study suggests that fostering the social-cognitive development of counselors-in-training should continue to be a primary goal of supervision (Borders, 1998), as student-interns with higher levels of ego functioning exhibited lower levels of perceived occupational stress and a stronger tendency to employ cognitive coping skills in the face of stress. The buffer higher ego levels seem to afford interns in the face of stress has implications for the structuring of counselor education program curriculum. Student-counselor developmental growth should be seen as a programmatic goal of counselor education programs, not just over the course of the internship, but from the time of induction of the student into the program. The finding regarding the connection between ego development and perceived stress lends support for efforts to provide training to internship site supervisors in models of supervision designed specifically to foster ego development in their supervisees (Lambie & Sias, 2009; Sias & Lambie, 2008).

Given the finding of this study that school counseling interns experience higher levels of occupational stress than interns in other counseling tracks and that counseling track accounted for 25.6% of the variance in occupational role stress level scores, it is important for counselor educators to intentionally prepare school counseling students for the various demands that are part of implementing a comprehensive school counseling program (ASCA, 2005) and of interfacing with the larger system of the school. Preparing students to face the complexities of the school system is especially important in light of the fact that a great number of school counseling interns may be entering the field without professional school experience, with a lack of classroom management skills, and a limited understanding of the relationships among members of the school structure (Peterson et al, 2004). Several supervision models have been

developed which address the specific needs of the school counselor-in-training (e.g. Lambie & Sias, 2009; Luke & Bernard, 2006; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006).

Finally, the lack of significant findings in terms of a relationship between supervisors' participation and training in post-graduate supervision and their developmental levels, as well as in the relationship between the supervisors' levels of ego development and the ego development levels of their supervisees suggest that the quality, nature, structure, and process of the supervision experience may be more important variables to investigate rather than the mere occurrence of supervision. Given the findings that interns' satisfaction with their internship supervision accounted for 40% of the variance in total occupational stress levels, variables that contribute to intern-satisfaction would be important to investigate in more detail. Additionally, the majority of counseling supervisors in this study (68.5%) were functioning at the Conscientious (E6) ego development level or higher. At this level, counselors possess a level of cognitive complexity that allows for the discovery of patterns and distinctions in information, a developed capacity for self-reflection, and a greater sense of concern for others. Information regarding supervisor developmental levels is helpful for counselor educators interested in providing training to site supervisors. The data suggest that counseling supervisors are developmentally capable of providing a supervisory environment that is appropriate for their supervisees, as they are, as a group, functioning at a higher level than their supervisees. Training can include information on specific techniques to foster supervisee ego developmental growth (e.g. Lambie & Sias, 2009; Manners, Durkin, & Nesdale, 2004; Sias & Lambie, 2008) as well as interventions focused more specifically on supervisor development (Peace, 1998).

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research may find that participation in supervision which is carefully and intentionally structured to facilitate developmental growth may predict supervisee developmental levels. More information regarding how supervision is delivered across counseling specialties may also shed more light on the observable differences in the means of ego development levels between both school counseling supervisors and supervisors in other counseling specialties and school counseling interns and interns in other tracks. Different research designs, including longitudinal studies, may also detect the effects of supervision on student-interns. Finally, experimental or quasi-experimental designs testing the efficacy in terms of intern developmental growth of specific supervision models would be helpful.

To summarize, this study investigated the relationship between internship site supervisors' participation and training in clinical supervision to their levels of ego development. Further, the study examined the relationship between site supervisors' levels of ego development and the ego development levels and perceived levels of occupational stress of their intern-supervisees. Finally, the study investigated the relationship between interns' ego development levels and their levels of occupational stress. The results of the statistical analyses did not support the primary hypotheses, namely that participation and training in clinical supervision would predict ego development in supervisors, and that supervisor developmental levels would predict the developmental levels of their supervisees. However, the study did include findings that supported (a) an association of counseling supervisor specialty with their participation in post-degree supervision, (b) a strong relationship between student-interns' levels of ego development and their occupational stress levels, (c) a relationship between student satisfaction with supervision and their perceived levels of occupational stress, and (d) a difference between

the occupational stress levels of school counseling interns and interns in other tracks. Within these findings, school counselors were less likely to have participated in post-graduate clinical supervision than counselors in other areas of practice. Additionally, students with higher levels of ego development experienced lower levels of occupational stress and higher levels of personal resources. Furthermore, students who were more satisfied with the supervision received at their internship site reported lower levels of occupational stress due to occupational role stress and personal strain. Finally, school counseling interns experienced higher levels of occupational stress and lower levels of personal resources. The study also included the encouraging findings that counseling interns as a whole do not experience greater levels of occupational stress than individuals in other occupations. While the limitations of this study support the need for further research which investigates additional variables that may contribute to the ego development construct, the study does provide practical implications counselor educators and internship site supervisors in terms of how they may best support counselors-in-training.

APPENDIX A: UCF IRB APPROVAL



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901, 407-882-2012 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Notice of Expedited Initial Review and Approval

From : UCF Institutional Review Board
FWA00000351, Exp. 6/24/11, IRB00001138

To : Sara M. Walter

Date : September 30, 2008

IRB Number: SBE-08-05825

Study Title: Supervision Experience and Ego Development of Counseling Interns' Site Supervisors and Supervisees' Level of Ego Development and Occupational Stress

Dear Researcher:

Your research protocol noted above was approved by expedited review by the UCF IRB Vice-chair on 9/29/2008. The expiration date is 9/28/2009. Your study was determined to be minimal risk for human subjects and expeditable per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.110. The category for which this study qualifies as expeditable research is as follows:

7. Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

The IRB has approved a consent procedure which requires participants to sign consent forms. Use of the approved, stamped consent document(s) is required. Only approved investigators (or other approved key study personnel) may solicit consent for research participation. Subjects or their representatives must receive a copy of the consent form(s).

All data, which may include signed consent form documents, must be retained in a locked file cabinet for a minimum of three years (six if HIPAA applies) past the completion of this research. Any links to the identification of participants should be maintained on a password-protected computer if electronic information is used. Additional requirements may be imposed by your funding agency, your department, or other entities. Access to data is limited to authorized individuals listed as key study personnel.

To continue this research beyond the expiration date, a Continuing Review Form must be submitted 2 – 4 weeks prior to the expiration date. Advise the IRB if you receive a subpoena for the release of this information, or if a breach of confidentiality occurs. Also report any unanticipated problems or serious adverse events (within 5 working days). Do not make changes to the protocol methodology or consent form before obtaining IRB approval. Changes can be submitted for IRB review using the Addendum/Modification Request Form. An Addendum/Modification Request Form **cannot** be used to extend the approval period of a study. All forms may be completed and submitted online at <http://iris.research.ucf.edu>.

Failure to provide a continuing review report could lead to study suspension, a loss of funding and/or publication possibilities, or reporting of noncompliance to sponsors or funding agencies. The IRB maintains the authority under 45 CFR 46.110(e) to observe or have a third party observe the consent process and the research.

On behalf of Tracy Dietz, Ph.D., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 09/30/2008 09:56:14 AM EDT

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX B: ROLLINS COLLEGE IRB APPROVAL



**Institutional Review Board
Rollins College**

To: Sara Walter

From: John Houston, Ph.D.
Chair, Rollins Institutional Review Board

Date: 10/15/08

Re: Permission to Proceed with Research

The Rollins Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved your IRB submission titled:

**Supervision Experience and Ego Development of Counseling Internship Site Supervisors
and Supervisees' Level of Ego Development and Occupational Stress**

If there are any changes to this research, as proposed, please resubmit your request for review. On behalf of the committee, I would like to express our best wishes for the successful completion of your research project.

APPENDIX C: STETSON UNIVERSITY IRB APPROVAL

Stetson University IRB Notification
File No. SWALTER-001-93008

October 3, 2008

Dear Ms. Walter,

The IRB has reviewed and **approved** your study titled, "Supervision Experience and Ego Development of Counseling Interns' Site Supervisors and Supervisees' Level of Ego Development and Occupational Stress", submitted on September 30, 2008. You may begin collecting data immediately.

Sincerely,

Dr. Harry Price, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board for Human Participants
Stetson University

APPENDIX D: INITIAL SUPERVISOR CONTACT

October 15, 2008

My name is Sara Walter and I am a doctoral candidate in counselor education at the University of Central Florida. A few days from now you will receive in the mail a request to fill out a short, semi-projective test along with a brief questionnaire for my dissertation research. This request will be sent to the site supervisors of all counseling internship students in the five CACREP-accredited universities in central Florida, which include the University of Central Florida, Rollins College, Stetson University, Barry University-Orlando, and the University of South Florida.

The study involves examining the supervision experience and socio-cognitive perspectives of counseling intern supervisors.

I am writing in advance because I understand that many people like to know ahead of time that they will be contacted. I believe this study is important, as it will help counselor educators understand more about counseling supervisors and the development of their supervisees.

If you would like to contact me regarding the study, you may call me at (407) 754-9838 or write to me at walter_meghan@hotmail.com. You may also contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Glenn Lambie, at 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu with any questions. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, or if you have questions or concerns about the study, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.

Thank you for your time and consideration. It is only with the generous help of my fellow counseling professionals that my research can be successful.

Sincerely,

Sara Meghan Walter
Doctoral Candidate
University of Central Florida

APPENDIX E: COVER LETTER WITH INSTRUMENT PACKET

I am writing to ask your help in a study of counseling intern supervisors and their supervisees. I am requesting counseling supervisors to fill out a brief questionnaire and a short, semi-projective test which consists of 18 items. This study is part of my doctoral dissertation research, which involves examining the supervision experience of supervisors, their socio-cognitive perspectives, and the development and occupational stress levels of their supervisees.

I understand that you are the clinical supervisor of a counseling internship student. I am contacting the clinical supervisors of internship students from five universities in the central Florida area to ask about their supervision experiences and perspectives.

Results from this research will help counselor educators better understand how to support the development of their counseling interns. By understanding more about counseling supervisors, counselor educators may also learn more about how to support supervisors.

You will notice that the two instruments I have enclosed with this letter are marked with a code. This is to ensure that your answers are kept confidential. When you return the completed instruments, your name, which is connected to the code, will be deleted and never connected to your answers in any way. I have also enclosed two copies of an informed consent form. Please sign and return one with your instruments. The other is for you to keep.

Your participation is voluntary. However, you can be of great help to me by taking a few minutes to share your experiences and perspectives. If for some reason you prefer not to respond, please let me know by returning the blank instruments in the enclosed stamped envelope.

I have enclosed a small token of appreciation as a way of saying thanks for your help in my research. As a former professional counselor myself, I know how busy you are and hope this compensates somewhat for the time involved in your participation.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I would be happy to talk with you. You may call me at (407) 754-9838 or e-mail me at walter_meghan@hotmail.com. You may also contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Glenn Lambie, at 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu

Thank you very much for helping me with my research.

Sincerely,
Sara Meghan Walter
Doctoral Candidate, University of Central Florida

APPENDIX F: FOLLOW-UP CONTACT

Last week, a questionnaire and test instrument seeking your responses about your supervision experience and socio-cognitive perspectives was mailed to you. Clinical supervisors of counseling internship students from four central Florida universities were included in the mailing.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire to me, please accept my sincere thanks. I am especially grateful for the help of my fellow counseling professionals in sharing their experiences and perspectives.

If you have not yet returned your questionnaire, **I would sincerely appreciate you completing it and mailing it to the address listed below.** If you did not receive a questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please call me at (407) 754-9838 or e-mail me at walter_meghan@hotmail.com and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). For information about the rights of people who take part in research, or if you have questions or concerns about the study, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901. The researcher's faculty supervisor, Dr. Glenn Lambie, is also available to address questions regarding the study. He may be contacted at (407) 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu.

Sincerely,

Sara Meghan Walter
Doctoral Candidate, University of Central Florida
1181 Eagles Watch Trail
Winter Springs, FL 32708

APPENDIX G: COVER LETTER FOR INSTRUMENT REPLACEMENT PACKET

November, 2008

About three weeks ago I sent a questionnaire and test instrument to you that asked about your perspectives and your experiences with supervision. To the best of my knowledge, it's not yet been returned.

The comments of clinical supervisors who have already responded included a wide variety of perspectives and experiences. I believe the results, which are important to my doctoral dissertation research, will be useful to counselor educators who are interested in learning how to better support both their internship students and their supervisors.

I am writing again because of the importance that your response has for helping to get accurate results. Although I sent the questionnaire and test instrument to clinical supervisors of counseling internship students from five central Florida universities, it's only by hearing from nearly everyone in the sample that I can be sure the results are truly representative.

A comment on the survey procedure. A questionnaire identification number is printed on the instruments so I can check your name off the mailing list when it is returned. The list of names is then destroyed so that individual names can never be connected to the results in any way. Protecting the confidentiality of people's answers is very important to me.

I hope that you will fill out and return the instruments soon, but if for any reason you prefer not to participate, please let me know by returning a note or the blank instruments in the enclosed stamped envelope.

Sincerely,

Sara Meghan Walter
Doctoral Candidate, University of Central Florida
1181 Eagles Watch Trail
Winter Springs, FL 32708

P.S. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me. I can be reached by telephone at (407) 754-9838 or by e-mail at walter_meghan@hotmail.com. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, or if you have questions or concerns about the study, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901. The researcher's faculty supervisor, Dr. Glenn Lambie, is also available to address questions regarding the study. He may be contacted at (407) 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu.

APPENDIX H: SUPERVISOR INFORMED CONSENT



Informed Consent for an Adult in a Non-medical Research Study: Counseling Internship Site Supervisors

Researchers at the University of Central Florida (UCF) study many topics. To do this we need the help of people who agree to take part in a research study. You are being invited to take part in a research study which will include about 150 counseling internship site supervisors. You have been asked to take part in this research study because you are a site supervisor of a counseling intern in a CACREP accredited counselor education program. You can ask questions about the research. You will be told if any new information is learned which may affect your willingness to continue taking part in this study. You must be 18 years of age or older to be included in the research study and sign this form

The person doing this research is Sara Meghan Walter, M.Ed, of the UCF Counselor Education program in the College of Education. This is a study for a doctoral dissertation. Because the researcher is a doctoral student, she is being guided by Dr. Glenn Lambie, Ph.D, and Dr. Stephen Sivo, Ph.D, dissertation committee co-chairs and UCF faculty supervisors in the College of Education.

Study title: Supervision Experience and Ego Development of Counseling Interns' Site Supervisors and Supervisees' Level of Ego Development and Job Stress

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between internship site supervisors' supervision experience and training, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and job stress of their supervisees.

What you will be asked to do in the study: You are asked to complete the short form of the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT; Hy & Loevinger, 1996) and a questionnaire which includes questions concerned with your experiences in clinical supervision and basic demographic information. You are asked to complete the two instruments and return them, along with this signed consent form, in the enclosed return envelope.

Voluntary participation: You should take part in this study only because you want to. There is no penalty for not taking part, and you will not lose any benefits.

Time required: The WUSCT is a semi-projective instrument, and individuals will vary in terms of the time they use to complete the 18 sentence stems. The questionnaire consists of 16 questions and should take only a few moments to complete.

Risks: There are no expected risks for taking part in this study. You do not have to answer every question or complete every task. You will not lose any benefits if you skip questions or tasks. You do not have to answer any questions that make you feel uncomfortable.

Benefits: As a research participant you will not benefit directly from this research. Your participation will contribute to a greater understanding of the relationship between supervision experience, ego development, and job stress in counselors-in-training.

Compensation or payment: A small cash amount (\$5.00) is included with the test instrument packet as an incentive for your participation in this study. If you choose not to participate, there will be no penalty.

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential. The researcher will make every effort to prevent anyone who is not on the research team from knowing that you gave us information, or what that information is. For example, your name will be kept separate from the information you give, and these two things will be stored in different places.

Your responses will never be shared with your supervisee or with the supervisee's university. Internship students will also be included in the study and their supervisor's and universities will likewise not have access to their responses.

Your information will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this number and to the name of your supervisee will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my faculty supervisor's office or in a password protected computer. When the study is done and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed. Your information will be combined with information from other people who took part in this study. When the researcher writes about this study to share what was learned with other researchers, she will write about this combined information. Your name will not be used in any report, so people will not know how you answered or what you did.

There are times when the researcher may have to show **your** research responses (but not your name) to the faculty supervisors of this project at the University of Central Florida, Dr. Glenn Lambie and Dr. Stephen Sivo, in order to be sure the research was done right.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: Sara Meghan Walter, Graduate Student, Counselor Education Program, College of Education, at (407) 754-9838 or walter_meghan@hotmail.com, or Dr. Glenn Lambie, Faculty Supervisor, Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences at (407) 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). For information about the rights of people who take

part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.

How to return this consent form to the researcher: Please sign and return this consent form along with the test instruments to the researcher in the enclosed return envelope. A second copy is provided for your records. By signing this letter, you give me permission to report your responses anonymously in the final manuscript to be submitted to my faculty supervisor as part of my dissertation.

- I have read the procedure described above**
- I voluntarily agree to take part in the research study.**
 - I am at least 18 years of age or older**

Signature of participant

Printed name of participant

Date

Principal Investigator

Date

APPENDIX I: SUPERVISEE INFORMED CONSENT



Informed Consent for an Adult in a Non-medical Research Study: Counseling Interns

Researchers at the University of Central Florida (UCF) study many topics. To do this we need the help of people who agree to take part in a research study. You are being invited to take part in a research study which will include about 150 counseling interns. You can ask questions about the research. You can read this form and agree to take part right now, or take the form home with you to study before you decide. You will be told if any new information is learned which may affect your willingness to continue taking part in this study. You have been asked to take part in this research study because you are a student in a counseling internship class in a CACREP accredited counselor education program. You must be 18 years of age or older to be included in the research study and sign this form.

The person doing this research is Sara Meghan Walter, M.Ed, of the UCF Counselor Education program in the College of Education. This is a study for a doctoral dissertation. Because the researcher is a doctoral student, she is being guided by Dr. Glenn Lambie, Ph.D, and Dr. Stephen Sivo, Ph.D, dissertation committee co-chairs and UCF faculty supervisors in the College of Education.

Study title: Supervision Experience and Ego Development of Counseling Interns' Site Supervisors and Supervisees' Level of Ego Development and Job Stress

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between internship site supervisors' supervision experience and training, their ego development levels, and the ego development levels and job stress of their supervisees.

What you will be asked to do in the study: During your internship class period, you will be asked to complete the short form of the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT; Hy & Loewinger, 1996) and the Occupational Stress Inventory – Revised (Osipow, 1998). You will also be asked to fill out a brief demographics questionnaire.

Voluntary participation: You should take part in this study only because you want to. There is no penalty for not taking part, and you will not lose any benefits. You have the right to stop at any time. Just tell the researcher that you want to stop.

Location: You will be asked to complete the three instruments in the classroom where your internship class usually meets unless. Depending on your institution, you may be asked to complete the instruments with members of other internship classes, in which case, you may be directed to a different classroom.

Time required: The WUSCT is a semi-projective instrument, and students will vary in terms of the time they use to complete the 18 sentence stems. The OSI-R takes about 25 minutes to complete. The demographics questionnaire consists of 13 short questions and should take only a few moments to complete.

Risks: There are no expected risks for taking part in this study. You do not have to answer every question or complete every task. You will not lose any benefits if you skip questions or tasks. You do not have to answer any questions that make you feel uncomfortable.

Benefits: As a research participant you will not benefit directly from this research, besides learning more about how research is conducted. Your participation will contribute to a greater understanding of the relationship between supervision experience, ego development, and job stress in counselors-in-training.

Compensation or payment: There is no compensation, payment or extra credit for taking part in this study. However, participants will be offered refreshments while taking part in the study. There is no direct compensation for taking part in this study. It is possible, however, that extra credit may be offered for your participation, but this benefit is at the discretion of your instructor.

If you choose not to participate, you may notify the researcher. There will be no penalty.

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential. The researcher will make every effort to prevent anyone who is not on the research team from knowing that you gave us information, or what that information is. For example, your name will be kept separate from the information you give, and these two things will be stored in different places.

Your responses will not be shared with your supervisor or with anyone else at your university or internship site.

Your information will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this number and to the name of your internship supervisor will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my faculty supervisor's office or in a password protected computer. When the study is done and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed. Your information will be combined with information from other people who took part in this study. When the researcher writes about this study to share what was learned with other researchers, she will write about this combined information. Your name will not be used in any report, so people will not know how you answered or what you did.

There are times when the researcher may have to show **your** research responses (but not your name) to the faculty supervisors of this project at the University of Central Florida, Dr. Glenn Lambie and Dr. Stephen Sivo, in order to be sure the research was done right.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: Sara Meghan Walter, Graduate Student, Counselor Education Program, College of Education, at (407) 754-9838 or walter_meghan@hotmail.com., or Dr. Glenn Lambie, Faculty Supervisor, Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences at (407) 823-2233 or by email at glambie@mail.ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.

How to return this consent form to the researcher: Please sign and return this consent form along with the test instruments to the researcher. A second copy is provided for your records. By signing this letter, you give me permission to report your responses anonymously in the final manuscript to be submitted to my faculty supervisor as part of my course work.

- I have read the procedure described above**
- I voluntarily agree to take part in the research study.**
- I am at least 18 years of age or older**

Signature of participant

Printed name of participant

Date

Principal Investigator

Date

APPENDIX J: SUPERVISOR EXPERIENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Supervisor Experience Questionnaire

Instructions: Your responses to all the items in this questionnaire are strictly confidential. They will be used in the statistical summaries and will not be disclosed to any individual or group. Furthermore, all information that would permit identification of individuals will be suppressed from the survey files. The code associated with your name will be deleted upon receipt of your completed survey. The questionnaire contains 16 short questions. *Thank you for completing the questionnaire.*

START HERE

We are interested in your own experiences as a supervisee as well as your experiences as a clinical supervisor. Please refer to the following definition of clinical supervision as it relates to your work setting as you answer the following questions.

Clinical supervision: a process in which a senior member of the counseling profession who is appropriately prepared, licensed, or certified provides regular and consistent instruction, support, feedback, and evaluation to a junior member of the profession. *Clinical supervision is distinguished from administrative supervision*, which is an ongoing process in which the supervisor oversees staff and staff communications, planning, and implementation and evaluation of individuals and/or programs.

1. How long have you provided **clinical supervision** to counseling interns or other professional counselors?

Number of months _____ Number of years _____

2. Do you currently receive **clinical supervision** in your position?

___ No.

___ Yes. *If yes:* Who provides your clinical supervision? _____

How often do you receive clinical supervision? _____

Please continue on the next page.

CONTINUE HERE

Think about your experiences as a practicing counselor after graduation from your counselor preparation program.

3. How many professional counseling positions have you held? _____
4. How many years have you been a practicing counselor (50% time or more), counting this year: _____ year(s)
5. Did you receive **clinical supervision** in your counseling position(s) after graduation?

___ No. *If no:* please skip to question 6.

___ Yes. *If yes,* please answer the following two questions:

How many months did you receive clinical supervision in your work setting *after* graduation from your counseling preparation program (master's program)? (Note: do not count clinical supervision received as part of your counseling internship).

- ___ less than 2 months.
___ between 2 months and six months.
___ between 12 months and 18 months.
___ between 18 months and two years.
___ more than two years.

Overall, how would you rate the quality of the clinical supervision you have received?

- ___ (4) Excellent
___ (3) Good
___ (2) Fair
___ (1) Poor

Think now about your current status as a clinical supervisor.

6. Please identify your area of counseling specialty:
- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| ___ Marriage and Family Therapy | ___ School Counseling |
| ___ Community/Mental Health Counseling | ___ Career Counseling |
| ___ Other (please specify): _____ | |

Please continue on the next page.

CONTINUE HERE

7. Please indicate your current job title: _____

8. Please indicate the highest academic degree you completed:

- baccalaureate
- masters
- specialist (Ed.S)
- doctorate

9. Please indicate the area of concentration of your highest academic degree.

10. Please identify the professional certification(s) and license(s) you hold:

- National Certified Counselor (NCC)
- Licensed Mental Health Counselor (LMHC)
- Licensed Marriage and Family Counselor (LMFT)
- National Certified School Counselor (NCSC)

Other (Please specify): _____

11. Please indicate the total number of graduate credits earned in the field of counseling: _____

12. How qualified do you feel you are to provide **clinical supervision**?

- (4) Very qualified
- (3) Somewhat qualified
- (2) Not particularly qualified
- (1) Not at all qualified

13. Have you received formal training in **clinical supervision**?

No.

Yes. *If yes:* What type of formal training?

- Graduate (for credit) course
- Professional development through workplace
- Workshop(s) at professional conference(s)

Other (please specify): _____

Please continue on the next page.

CONTINUE HERE

14. Please identify your gender: Female Male

15. Please identify your ethnicity.

- African American/Black
- Asian
- Caucasian
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Other

16. Please identify your age: years.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

APPENDIX K: INTERN/SUPERVISEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Intern/Supervisee Questionnaire

Instructions: Your responses to all the items in this questionnaire are strictly confidential. They will be used in the statistical summaries and will not be disclosed to any individual or group. Furthermore, all information that would permit identification of individuals will be suppressed from the survey files. The code associated with your name will be deleted upon receipt of your completed survey. The questionnaire contains 13 short questions. *Thank you for completing the questionnaire.*

START HERE

Part I

1. Please identify your area of counseling specialty:
 Marriage and Family Therapy School Counseling
 Community/Mental Health Counseling Career Counseling
 Other (please specify): _____
2. Please indicate how many credit hours you have completed in your graduate program to date: _____
3. Please indicate how many internship hours (clock hours on site) you have completed to date: _____
4. How would you rate the quality of supervision you have received at your internship site?
1 2 3 4
Poor Fair Good Excellent
5. How would you rate the quality of supervision you have received at your university during your internship?
1 2 3 4
Poor Fair Good Excellent
6. In an overall, general sense, how satisfied are you with the supervision you have received at your internship site?
1 2 3 4
Poor Fair Good Excellent

Please Continue on the Next Page.

CONTINUE HERE

7. In an overall, general sense, how satisfied are you with the supervision you have received at your university during your internship class?

1	2	3	4
Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent

8. In an overall, general sense, how would you rate your relationship with your internship site supervisor?

1	2	3	4
Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent

9. In an overall, general sense, how would you rate your relationship with your university supervisor?

1	2	3	4
Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent

10. Do you have experience, other than your present internship, as a practicing professional counselor?

No. *If no:* please skip to question 11.

Yes. *If yes,* please indicate how many years: _____

11. Please identify your gender: Female Male

12. Please identify your ethnicity.

- African American/Black
- Asian
- Caucasian
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Other

13. Please identify your age: _____ years.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

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