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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COUNSELING SUPERVISEE
ATTACHMENT ORIENTATION AND SUPERVISION
WORKING ALLIANCE RAPPORT

By

Edina Lynn Renfro-Michel

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
Mississippi State University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Education
in the Department of Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education

Mississippi State, Mississippi

May 2006

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WORKING ALLIANCE RAPPORT

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This study examined the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation, rapport of the supervision working alliance over time, the change of supervisee attachment orientation, and the perceived impact of supervision on the lives of the supervisees. Participants were 117 master's level counseling student at the entry (34), practicum (45), and internship (38) levels, counseling clients with supervision. This study used the Relationship Questionnaire and the Rapport score from the Supervision Working Alliance Inventory. Data were collected via e-mail at the beginning, middle, and end of the semester. Data were examined using Two-Way Factorial ANOVAs, Bowker Tests, and Chi-Square Tests. There were statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time, and a statistically significant relationship between working alliance rapport scores and supervisee attachment. A change in attachment from preoccupied and

fearful toward secure and dismissing orientations occurred. These findings may indicate the importance of considering attachment in the supervision relationship.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my amazing husband Michael, and our wonderful daughter, Faith Jeanette. Michael's love, support, and unending patience have made my accomplishments possible. Watching Faith learn about the world has helped to change my focus in life, to laugh more, and to remember how to play. I am also dedicating this to my mother, who is watching us from heaven, and who was always proud of my journey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Counseling supervision is a complicated process involving interpersonal issues as well as counseling techniques and client conceptualization. Many supervisors are at a loss to explain why some supervision relationships are successful and why others are fraught with power struggles, conflict, and lack of counselor growth. Certainly personalities play a role in the development of the supervision relationship. Yet often supervisors are confused by confrontive or dependent supervisee behaviors when there have been no prior relationship difficulties in other contexts. While the supervision relationship is different than other professor/student relationships, there is a lack of explanation for the seemingly sudden change in behavior when a student enters supervision. Attachment theory may provide additional information for understanding this dichotomy. The supervision relationship may trigger attachment behaviors from the supervisee's family of origin. These behaviors may enhance the relationship by providing a safe atmosphere to explore growth, or damage the relationship if the supervisee is defiant or highly dependent. This study explores attachment theory in relation to the supervision working alliance in counselor supervision.

Counseling supervision relationships are important relationships that often trigger attachment behaviors due to their intimate nature (Foster, 2002; Kim & Birk, 1998; Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). The attachment process begins in infancy as a result of contact with a primary caregiver and continues until the child is five years of age, resulting in a specific attachment orientation. A child's attachment orientation is a biological and learned response to the type of care received, resulting in behaviors exhibited in close relationships or in times of stress. The type of attachment orientation learned in childhood continues to affect important relationships throughout the lifespan (Ainsworth, 1971; Bell, 1998; Bowlby, 1982). Important relationships can be defined as relationships which have meaning for the individual, are emotionally intimate, where change takes place, or where there might be a power differential, and may include relationships such as romantic relationships, friendships and supervision relationships (Ainsworth, 1991; Ainsworth & Marvin, 1995; Bordin, 1983; Bowlby, 1973).

The supervision working alliance is a psychoanalytic concept relating to the supervision relationship as a force for change (Bordin, 1983; Horvath & Greenberg, 1989). While it has been hypothesized that attachment orientations can affect the supervision relationship, and thus the working alliance, there has been a small amount of conflicting research regarding this concept (Epps, 1999; Foster, 2002; Hope, Renfro-Michel, & Sheperis, in press; Kim & Birk, 1998; Ligiero & Gelso, 2002; White & Queener, 2003). The foci of this chapter are: (a) attachment theory, (b) adult attachment, (c) counselor supervision, (d) the supervision relationship as a working alliance,

and (e) attachment, working alliance and supervision. The research problem, purpose and justification for this study, and definitions of terms relevant to this study are also included in this chapter.

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory, developed by Bowlby and Ainsworth, can be defined as a bio-behavioral process (Bowlby, 1988; Bretherton, 1991; Cassidy, 1999; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). This biological process begins at birth and is evidenced by behaviors from the infant toward the primary caregiver (e.g., reaching, crying). These behaviors are often triggered in response to perceived anxiety or danger, and cause the infant to seek protection from the primary caregiver. The reaction of the primary caregiver toward infant behaviors results in behavioral patterns, or attachment orientations. Attachment behaviors introduced in early childhood continue to be used throughout the lifespan.

Phases of Attachment

Bowlby (1982) used qualitative observations of children in order to develop four specific phases of attachment relating to the biological behaviors associated with infant attachment. Each phase of attachment is a building block for the next, and disruption of the process at any phase may cause lifetime attachment difficulties. The process begins at birth, with the first stage lasting up to the infant's 12th week of age. During this stage, the infant uses attachment behaviors (e.g., grasping, crying) to increase proximity to any person available. The second phase of attachment begins between the weeks 8 and 12, and continues until 6 months of age. The infant continues the proximity seeking

attachment behaviors but directs these behaviors more often toward a primary caregiver than other companions. Beginning around 6 months of age and lasting throughout the second year, infants begin to use a primary caregiver as a safe base for exploring. This third phase is also defined by the infant's goal-oriented behavior and some stranger anxiety. The fourth phase begins between the second and third years of life and is characterized by the infant's development of insight into the primary caregiver's feelings and motives. The key during this stagewise process is for the primary caregiver, often the mother, to be consistent. This consistency provides opportunities for the infant to learn to anticipate the caregiver's actions, thereby learning specific attachment behavior patterns. If the primary caregiver is not consistent, or is unable to meet the infant's needs, then the infant may develop an insecure attachment.

Internal Working Model

During the attachment process, an infant begins to develop cognitive schemas regarding themselves and their attachment figures (Bowlby, 1973). The infant begins to build an internal working model of the world and themselves, based on their experiences with their attachment figures. If the infant believes the primary caregiver to be available when the infant is in need, the infant will develop a positive working model of others. That is, I can trust others to be there for me if I am hurt or have needs (e.g., hunger). During this attachment process, the infant also develops an internal working model of self. If the caregivers are reliable, then the infant develops a concept of self-worth (i.e., a positive model of self). If, however, caregivers are not responsive or are unable to meet

the infant's needs (e.g., unable to alleviate pain after surgery) then the infant might develop a negative model of self. Infants with positive models of self and others are secure in their attachments (Bowlby, 1973).

Adult Attachment Orientations

Bowlby (1982) believed that attachment behaviors developed in infancy continue to affect relationships throughout a person's life. These behaviors are subject to experiences beyond infancy, and changes in attachment may be attributed to socio-emotional experiences as well as cognitive, hormonal, and neurophysiological changes (Ainsworth, 1991; Bowlby, 1982; Fraley, 2002). For example, someone with a secure childhood attachment who has been sabotaged by coworkers may exhibit fearful attachment behaviors at work. The model for adult attachment orientations that will be used for this study is based on Bowlby's (1973) concept of the internal working model, and was developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991).

Model of Adult Attachment Orientations

There are four attachment orientations which correspond to the individual's perception of themselves (e.g., worth loving, not worth loving) and others (e.g., trustful, not trustful) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The secure orientation refers to an adult with positive perceptions of self and others. Secure adults have high self-esteem, are warm and caring, and have close emotionally intimate relationships. Adults with preoccupied orientations have positive perceptions of others and negative perceptions of self. Preoccupied adults' self esteem is tied to how others see them. These adults tend to

disclose inappropriately and have a high reliance on others. Adults exhibiting a dismissing orientation have a positive model of themselves and a negative model of others. Dismissing adults have high self-esteem and low levels of intimacy in their relationships. Adults with fearful attachments have negative models of themselves and others. Fearful adults do not believe themselves worthy of love, and do not believe others are trustful. These adults have low self-esteem and lack intimacy in their relationships.

Each attachment orientation has its own attributes that can affect important relationships, such as romantic relationships, friendships and counselor supervision relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Colin, 1996; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Pistole & Watkins, 1995). Securely attached adults may enhance the building and maintaining of important relationships with appropriate boundaries and a caring manner. Conversely, insecurely attached adults may inhibit the building and maintaining of important relationships. Dismissing adults may seem cold or emotionally distant to significant others, while preoccupied adults may appear to be overly involved in the relationships. Fearful adults may exhibit mixed messages of closeness and distance in important relationships. Thus, each attachment orientation may affect the building up or maintenance of important relationships.

Counselor Supervision

The relationship building process is important to the supervision relationship, and can be affected by personalities, theory base, and attachment orientations (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002). Effective supervision is dependent upon the quality of the relationship between the counselor and supervisor. Each supervision

relationship is unique, having its own character as a result of personal history, interpersonal styles, boundaries, and power differential (Heru, Strong, Price, & Recupero, 2004; Holloway, 1997). Trust is an important component in the supervision relationship, and must be developed to ensure a smooth working alliance.

Supervision Working Alliance

Bordin (1979) originally developed the concept of the working alliance for use in the counseling relationship and modified his theory to include the counseling supervision working alliance (Bordin, 1983). The working alliance model of supervision focuses on the relationship between the supervisor and the counselor-in-training. This working alliance is a mutual collaboration for change, both personal and technical, based on perceptions of mutual connections. Supervisors and trainees must come to an understanding of the goals of supervision, as clear goals directly contribute to the amount of change that will take place and the strength of the working alliance. Once goals are defined, specific tasks related to the goals should be identified. These tasks should enhance change and thus the working alliance, and should be reasonable given the trainee's level and expertise. Bordin (1983) also discussed the bond that develops in the process of supervision. Feelings of liking, caring, compassion, trust and understanding, are bonds between the supervisor and trainee created by mutual goals and tasks as well as feelings of collaboration. The amount of time spent in supervision and the degree to which personal information is shared influences the amount of bonds needed to have a working alliance. These bonds are very similar to personal attachments (Bordin, 1983). Bordin also believed that the process of building and repairing the working alliance

precipitates the amount of change that occurs. Conflicts and questions arising during supervision should be addressed and resolved in order for a stronger working alliance to develop. Not addressing or resolving conflicts in supervision can damage the relationship (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001).

Attachment, Working Alliance, and Counselor Supervision

Bordin (1979) initially described the bond of the working alliance in counseling as a complex network of attachments between the counselor and the client, and extended this definition to include the counseling supervision working alliance (Bordin, 1983). Watkins (1995) believed that early attachment behavior can be triggered by the emotional process of supervision. Unresolved attachment issues that trigger attachment behaviors can be interrelated with typical counselor-in-training feelings of anxiety, incompetence, identity diffusion, and autonomy. Supervision may be the first time attachment issues come to light during a counselor-in-training's academic preparation as supervision is the first one-on-one relationship in beginning counselor training. Thus a counselor-in-training may not realize that various issues (e.g., those related to anger with parents) may surface in supervision due to the power differential and close emotional relationship necessary to enhance the supervision working alliance.

Because this supervision process can be very emotionally intimate, attachment orientations are often triggered through the process. Thus it is important to delineate the relationship between attachment and working alliance. Pistole and Watkins (1995) described attachment behaviors in supervision as resulting in the supervisee attaining or retaining proximity to a supervisor. Supervisors should provide a secure base on which

counselors-in-training can be grounded and explore their counseling abilities. Watkins (1995) and Pistole and Watkins (1995) used Bowlby's original theory to describe pathological attachment orientations of supervisees. The following descriptions will be used for this study, with the names of the orientations from Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991).

The compulsively self-reliant supervisee (e.g., dismissive) has a positive sense of self and a negative sense of others (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). Often these supervisees believe that they do not need help because they know best. These supervisees are often resentful or hostile about being supervised and will attempt to place themselves at an emotional distance from the supervisor.

Anxious attached supervisees (e.g., fearful) have a negative model of themselves and others (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). Thus, they may request feedback, only to become self-defeating in the wake of their perceived failure and, not trusting the supervisor, request further feedback from others (Neswald-McCalip, 2001). These supervisees may also become angry at the supervisor because of the overwhelming need of the supervisor's guidance (Pistole & Watkins, 1995).

Compulsive care-giving supervisees (e.g., preoccupied) have a negative model of themselves and a positive model of others (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). These supervisees are uncomfortable with the concept of receiving supervision, as they perceive themselves as not worthy of someone's effort. At the same time, these supervisees may be overly concerned with helping the supervisor. Often these supervisees rescue clients rather than allowing clients to struggle with issues.

Most supervisees, however, do not operate from a pathological attachment orientation (Pistole & Watkins, 1995). Yet insecure attachments can affect the supervision process. Supervisees displaying some behaviors from the aforementioned attachment orientations can disrupt the working alliance and the supervision process. For example, supervisees demonstrating some compulsive care-giving type attachment behaviors may often deflect constructive criticism and hamper the breaking down and building up of the working alliance. Conversely, securely attached supervisees may enhance the working alliance by developing trusting relationships with supervisors, being genuine and open to feedback, and asking for help when encountering stressful events (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Neswald-McCalip, 2001).

Because supervision is an intimate relationship and the effectiveness of said relationship is impacted by the degree of alliance of the participants, it is important to study factors that may impact that alliance. From the perspective of attachment theorists (e.g., Bowlby, Ainsworth, and Main), all relationships are affected by the attachment orientations humans develop in early childhood. Thus, this study focused on the impact of attachment on the supervisory working alliance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between supervisee attachment orientations and the perceived working alliance rapport within and between entry, practicum and internship level master's counseling students over time.

The following questions were investigated:

1. What is the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and supervisee perceived rapport of the working alliance?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientation within each level of supervisee over time?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time?
5. Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time?
6. Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees?

Justification for the Study

Bordin (1983) discussed the importance of the working alliance in counseling supervision as a mutual collaboration for change. A strong working alliance would include a mutual relationship where the supervisee feels safe to explore personal issues related to learning to be a counselor, asking questions regarding the counseling process, and resolving any conflicts relating to supervision. The building up and breaking down of the working alliance is what contributes to a strong relationship. Attachment orientations are often triggered during this process, and may hamper the building of the working alliance, as supervisee behavior becomes a reaction from unresolved attachment issues. If

the supervisee has a dismissing attachment orientation, for example, then the supervisee may ignore or dispute the supervisor's comments thus preventing the building of the working alliance.

Supervisee experience may also contribute to problems in the working alliance. There is some evidence that less experienced supervisees have weaker working alliances than more advanced supervisees (Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002); however, Trad (1995) found few differences between levels of supervisees. Other researchers have concluded that less experienced supervisees are more dependent and anxious, possibly due to an insecure attachment orientation (Hope et al., in press; Reising & Daniels, 1983). Due to the conflicting research, clarification is needed regarding the effect of attachment orientation on the supervision working alliance. More information regarding this issue would help to inform counselor educators and supervisors working with different levels (e.g., entry, practicum, and internship) of supervisees. With an understanding of supervisee attachment and the effects on the working alliance, one more piece of the supervision puzzle would be solved.

Definition of Terms

- 1) Attachment: a biological process with observable behaviors resulting in an emotional bond between an infant with a primary caregiver (e.g., mother). This bond provides the infant with a secure base for exploring his/her environment as well as the understanding of human relationships as being reciprocal (Bowlby, 1982).

- 2) Primary caregiver: an individual who is responsible for meeting the needs of an infant. The primary caregiver is usually the mother but may also be a father, grandmother or other person primarily responsible for the care of the infant and young child.
- 3) Internal working models: Cognitive schemas regarding self and others based on interaction with primary caregivers during the attachment process and evident throughout life. This model depends on the perceived availability of the primary caregiver in times of need (e.g., hunger). Bowlby (1973) defined the model of others as the individual's perception of the primary caregiver or attachment figure as being available when needed. The model of self is the perception that the individual is worthy of love.
- 4) Attachment orientation: The specific pattern of observable attachment behaviors evident with a significant other (e.g., mother, romantic partner, supervisor). For the purpose of this study, the four categories used are based on Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model used in the Relationship Questionnaire. The internal working model is the basis for the specific attachment orientations.
 - a) Secure: adults who have positive models of self and others. Secure adults believe themselves worthy of love and trust others as being available when needed.
 - b) Preoccupied: adults who have a negative model of self and a positive model of others. Thus, preoccupied adults do not believe themselves worthy of love, but trusts others to be available.

- c) Dismissing: adults who have a positive model of self and a negative model of others. Dismissing adults have high self-esteem resulting in their feelings of worthiness, but do not trust others to be available when needed.
 - d) Fearful: adults who have negative models of self and others. Fearful adults perceive themselves to be unworthy of love and see others as not trustful.
- 5) Counselor supervision: a process by which counselors-in-training (e.g., supervisee, counselor-in-training, trainee) are guided by a more experienced counselor (supervisor).
- 6) Supervision working alliance: a positive mutual attachment relationship based on trust and shared experiences that allow change to take place.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Attachment begins in infancy and continues to affect relationships throughout the lifespan (Bowlby, 1988). The type of attachment orientation exhibited by someone is related to specific behaviors in important relationships in adulthood (Ainsworth, 1991). Important relationships are defined as relationships which have meaning for the individual, are emotionally intimate, where change takes place, and/or where there might be a power differential (Ainsworth, 1991). Such relationships may include romantic relationships, friendships, working relationships, counseling relationships, and supervision relationships. Counseling supervision relationships, by their nature, are intimate relationships which may have a relationship to attachment as a process (Epps, 1999; Pistole & Watkins, 1995; White & Queener, 2003). Thus, the type of attachment orientation exhibited by a supervisee would affect the supervision relationship (Ligiero & Gelso, 2002; Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins Jr, 1995). For this study, the emphasis was on supervisee attachment orientation as researchers have reported supervisors generally have stable secure orientations, while supervisees' orientations vary (Hope et al., in press). This chapter contains a discussion of attachment theory, adult attachment, adult attachment instruments, counselor supervision, the supervision relationship, supervision working alliance, supervision working alliance instruments, and the relationship of attachment to supervision.

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory was developed through the joint work of John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth, inspired by research from the fields of ethology, cybernetics, developmental psychology, and psychoanalysis (Bowlby, 1988; Bretherton, 1991; Cassidy, 1999; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). While Bowlby developed the concepts of attachment theory, Ainsworth's work revised and expanded Bowlby's initial hypotheses and research. Ainsworth's empirical research led to the introduction of attachment orientations as well as the concept of the primary caregiver as a secure base (Ainsworth & Marvin, 1995; Bretherton, 1991). As attachment theory was expanded, the definition of attachment became more distinct.

Attachment can be defined as a four stage bio-behavioral process inherent to the survival of the species (Bowlby, 1988). Thus, attachment is a biological process with observable behaviors, meant to give the human species a survival advantage from predators (Bowlby, 1982, 1988; Cassidy, 1999). An infant's organized attachment behaviors indicated preference for a primary caregiver. In times of danger or anxiety, the infant would be predisposed to stay in close proximity to the mother, the source of protection. Additionally, the primary caregiver is perceived to be a secure base providing protection and affection during exploratory behavior. Parents, according to Bowlby, are biologically predisposed to experience strong emotions toward their infant which causes parents to respond to their infant in a positive and nurturing manner (Bowlby, 1982; 1988). Early experiences with the primary caregiver, prior to age 5, determine the infant's

understanding of human relationships and affect the infant's future relationships. Thus, attachment is a normal healthy characteristic of the human species developed in infancy and continually used throughout life.

John Bowlby began his interest in separation and attachment during his volunteer work in children's residential institutions prior to his medical school training (Bowlby, 1988; Bretherton, 1991). During this time he observed maladjusted children separated from their parents. Throughout his career, Bowlby continued to develop attachment theory with his many colleagues. Although Bowlby was a psychoanalyst, his evolutionary perspective contradicted Freud's views regarding infancy and childhood. Freud and his colleagues tended to interview adults to determine childhood issues, coming to conclusions "from an end-product backwards" (Bowlby, 1982, p. 4). However, Bowlby and his colleagues conducted observational research with children guided by an ethological perspective of naturalistic observations regarding these species-specific types of attachment behaviors (Cassidy, 1999). These qualitative observations led Bowlby to develop specific phases of attachment relating to the biological behaviors associated with the process of infant attachment.

Phases of Attachment

Each phase of attachment is a building block for the next, and disruption during any phase can cause attachment difficulties throughout life (Bowlby, 1982). The first phase of attachment occurs from birth up to the infant's twelfth week. During this time, the infant is unable to discriminate one person from another and uses attachment behaviors (e.g., tracking movements of the eyes, grasping, reaching, smiling, crying) to

increase proximity to any person available (Bowlby). Because attachment behaviors can be observed at such an early age (e.g., a newborn placed on its mother's stomach will find her way to the breast to find sustenance) a genetic predisposition toward becoming attachment is indicated (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

During the second phase of attachment, occurring between 8 to 12 weeks and lasting until 6 months of age, the infant continues the proximity-seeking behaviors but directs more behaviors toward the primary caregiver than other companions. Behaviors include grasping and reaching as well as scooting.

The third phase begins around 6 months of age and continues throughout the second year. During this phase the infant begins to use the mother, or primary caregiver, as a secure base from which to explore. Additionally, the infant's behavior becomes more goal-oriented while the infant becomes more cautious toward strangers. This process may be delayed until past the first birthday if the child has had little contact with the primary caregiver. If the caregiver has been consistent during this time, the infant begins to anticipate the caregiver's actions and adjust his/her actions to this anticipated behavior (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978).

The fourth, and final, phase begins between the second and third years of life and continues throughout the fifth year. During this time, the infant begins to develop insight into the primary caregiver's feelings and motives. This insight lays the foundation for a more sophisticated aspect to the attachment process, what Bowlby (1982) refers to as a complex relationship or a partnership.

Attachment is a stagewise process with much of the attachment occurring at cognitive levels for an infant between stages 1 and 2. During the first two stages, attachment behaviors can be consistently observed by a discernable pattern. These behavior patterns become clearly evident by the third stage (Bowlby, 1982). Bowlby believed that an infant's pattern of attachment was easily recognizable by the first birthday, and that pattern continued for at least several years unless disrupted by a change in events, such as an illness. As the child ages, the attachment becomes more stable and more resistant to change.

Bowlby (1982) also believed that the key to the attachment process is the infant's understanding that the primary caregivers will respond to the infant's needs consistently. Thus, frequent or prolonged separation from the main attachment figure could delay or disrupt the attachment process. Infants who have not had their needs consistently met modify attachment behaviors based on their primary caregivers' responses and as a consequence develop insecure attachments (Kobak, 1999).

Internal Working Model

During the attachment process, an infant begins to develop cognitive schemas regarding themselves and their attachment figures (Bowlby, 1982). Based on experiences with the primary and secondary attachment figures, the infant begins to build an internal working model of the world and themselves. This model depends upon the perceived availability of the primary caregivers and their consistent willingness to respond appropriately when attachment behaviors are triggered. When this internal model of others is positive, an infant believes that if help is needed, it will be provided. According

to Bowlby (1973), this perceived availability of the caregiver reduces the chances that a person will experience intense or chronic fear when compared to an individual with a non-secure attachment. Additionally, Bowlby (1973) believed that the confidence (or lack of confidence) in a primary caregiver's responses builds up thorough adolescence, and this feeling of reliability of others can persist throughout adulthood.

In addition to a model of others, infants begin to develop a model of self based upon the caregiver's reactions to the infant. Infants begin to view themselves as acceptable or unacceptable depending on the caregiver's reactions toward the infant. Again, if the caregiver is reliable, accessible, and responsive toward the infant, then the infant's model of self is positive, because the infant sees him or herself as worth loving. Infants with positive models of self and others experience less fear, and when attachment behaviors are triggered, use the caregivers as a secure base, because the infants feel worthy of accepting love.

Infant Attachment

Bowlby's initial work regarding attachment theory expanded Ainsworth's research regarding mother-child interactions. Ainsworth (1967) began studying infant-mother interaction patterns in Uganda. During this time, Ainsworth recognized specific behaviors, such as differential crying, following, and clinging related to the attachment of the infants. The use of the mother as a secure base from which to explore was observed and identified by Ainsworth. Additionally, Ainsworth noted that "strange situations" (p. 346) or fearful events caused a securely attached infant to return to the mother and cling to her for safety. Events observed to trigger the infant's "flight to the haven of safety"

(p.346) included clinic visits or taking the infants outside of their homes to be photographed for the purposes of the research. Ainsworth documented securely attached and insecurely attached infants, discriminating the type of attachment based on the infant behaviors observed. These naturalistic observations influenced Ainsworth's later research regarding attachment. While Ainsworth was able to identify behaviors of attached and unattached children during her research in Uganda, she needed a more controlled environment in which to study attachment behaviors.

Thus, Ainsworth set out to discover more specific categories for attachment orientations using a controlled clinic setting. The "strange situation" was developed to examine infant attachment behaviors in a 20-minute laboratory procedure. Through the strange situation, Ainsworth manipulated the situation to observe specific behaviors related to attachment. During the research, Ainsworth and her colleagues observed 1-year old infants during a variety of short (i.e., 30 seconds to 3 minutes) episodes including the mother, infant, observer, and a stranger.

Three groups of attachment behaviors were observed during the strange situation research (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Group A infants were observed to have avoidant behaviors. Thus, the infant avoided the use of its mother as a secure base, and was easily comforted by a stranger in the mother's absence. Group B, or securely attached infants, used their mother as a secure base to explore, and sought out their mother for comfort if distressed. A securely attached infant may be somewhat comforted by a stranger, but shows a clear preference for the mother. In fact, securely attached infants welcomed their mother's return and attachment behaviors such as scooting, reaching, and crying

increased upon the mother's return. Group C infants were observed to have anxious-ambivalent attachments and chose not to explore their environment. These infants were ambivalent toward the caregiver, often displaying mixed behaviors (e.g., hugging and looking away) toward their mothers, and were unable to be comforted by the mother upon reunion.

While the majority of Ainsworth's research focused on infants, Ainsworth agreed with Bowlby's assertion that attachment can effect a person's relationships throughout their lifetime (Ainsworth, 1991; Bowlby, 1973; 1982; 1988). Using infant attachment patterns as a base, researchers have defined adult attachment patterns and how those patterns affect adult relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002; Bell, 1998; Bernier & Dozier, 2002; Ciechanowski, Katon, Russo, & Dwight-Johnson, 2002; Diamond, 2001; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; 1994).

Adult Attachment Theory

Adult attachment orientations have been developed based on the initial work of Ainsworth and her colleagues. A student of Ainsworth, Main extended Ainsworth's work into adulthood. George, Kaplan, & Main's (1985) Adult Attachment Interview grouped individuals into one of four attachment categories: Secure/autonomous, Insecure/dismissing, Insecure/preoccupied, and Unresolved. The first three categories were based on Ainsworth's original work with infants. The dismissing category was developed to mirror the avoidant category in infants. Additionally, the preoccupied category was developed from the anxious-ambivalent category of infants.

Attachment orientations have been used to describe categories related to the type of attachment a person demonstrates in his/her relationships. While it is understood that placing people into categories may pigeon hole a person unnecessarily, for the ease of reading and understandability of this document, people will be described based on the orientation they are exhibiting at the time of research (e.g., preoccupied). Bowlby (1982) stated that secure and insecure attachment behaviors, while becoming more stable over time, are subject to experiences beyond infancy. Ainsworth (1991) discussed the theory that changes in attachment may be attributed to socio-emotional experiences, as well as “hormonal , neurophysiological, and cognitive changes” (p. 35). Proponents of the prototype perspective of attachment theory suggest that while the working models of self and others originate from early childhood experience with an attachment figure, these models can be updated and changed as individuals experience new events (Fraley, 2002).

However, the models of self and others from infancy continue to mold relationship experiences (Bowlby, 1973; Fraley, 2002). For example, individuals may become less secure when encountering new situations or events that are inconsistent with their internal working models. Fraley conducted a meta-analysis of research data regarding attachment orientations over time and discovered that the prototype perspective matched the existing data. Thus, he concluded that while attachment orientations begin in infancy, these orientations could change depending on lifetime experiences. Major life transitions, such as a marriage or career change, have been posited to cause adult attachment patterns to change (Caspi & Elder, 1988; Ricks, 1985; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994). Conversely, when Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) investigated

the stability of adult attachment orientations using a multi-dimensional approach, there were no correlations found between life transitions and changes in attachment orientations. The participants in the above study had few transitions, which might account for the high stability of their attachment orientations.

Adult Attachment Orientations

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) developed the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) based on Bowlby's original concepts of the model of self and the model of others. Bartholomew and Horowitz developed the RQ based on the four attachment orientations, which correspond to the individual's perception of self (e.g., worth loving, not worth loving) and others (e.g., trustful, not trustful). Both the model of self and the model of others are independent, yet together they give a complete attachment orientation. The secure orientation refers to an adult with positive perceptions of self and others. Adults in the secure orientation have a high degree of intimacy in their friendships. Additionally, secure adults have high self-esteem, are perceived as warm and caring with high level of involvement in romantic relationships, and balance of control in friendships.

Preoccupied adults have positive perceptions of others and negative perceptions of themselves. Thus, their self-esteem is tied to how others see them, not how they see themselves. Preoccupied adults tend to disclose inappropriately, have a high reliance on others, often use others as a secure base, have high involvement in romantic relationships, have low self-confidence, and lack balance of control in friendships.

Dismissing adults have a positive model of themselves and a negative model of others. Adults with this orientation have high self-confidence, have a high balance in

friendships and romantic relationships, and tend to be less expressive emotionally. In addition, dismissing adults rarely self-disclose, have low levels of intimacy in their relationships, and rarely use others as a secure base.

Adults with fearful attachments have negative models of themselves and others. Thus, they do not believe themselves worthy of love and do not believe others are trustful. Fearful adults rarely self-disclose, lack intimacy in their relationship, rarely rely on others as a secure base, have low self-confidence, and have low balance in their friendships and romantic relationships.

Adult Attachment Assessment

Although the assessment of adult attachment orientations has been based on Bowlby and Ainsworth's attachment theory, two divergent research paths have been evident in the literature (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). Developmental psychologists were interested in clinical problems, focusing their research on parent-child relationships and using interview methods and observational research to study interactions (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). The second group was concerned with personality traits and social interactions, interested in normal populations, focused on adult relationships, and preferred self-report questionnaires. Thus attachment instruments have been developed to include interview methods that focus on parent-child relationships as well as self-report instruments that focus on adult intimate relationships.

Adult Attachment Instruments

George, Kaplan, & Main (1985) developed the Adult Attachment Interview, a semi-structured protocol designed to assess parents' states of mind by identifying current representations of childhood attachment relationships using childhood memories.

Transcripts of the 45-100 minute interview are coded and scored based on the coder's opinion of the attachment relationships and the interviewee's state of mind and discourse style. The transcripts are scored based on the description of childhood experiences, language used in the interview, and the ability to give an integrated, believable account of experiences and their meaning. These scores are used to assign interviewees to one of the following attachment categories: Secure/autonomous, Insecure/dismissing, Insecure/preoccupied, or Unresolved.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) introduced romantic love as relationships affected by adult attachment patterns. Attachment categories were utilized from Ainsworth's research to develop the *love quiz*, which was published in a local newspaper to provide a large heterogeneous population for validity. The love quiz was comprised of three parts designed to gain as much information as possible regarding attachment in romantic relationships. The first part contained 56 statements pertaining to the participant's most important relationship, the second part asked the participant whether the relationship described was in the past or present (61% were current) as well as specifics about the relationship, and the third part related to attachment style and history. In addition to the three parts of the love quiz, three vignettes relating to the three attachment styles were included, and participants were asked to place a check mark next to the vignette which

best described their feelings. An open ended question asking the participant to add anything they wished regarding romantic love was placed at the end of the love quiz. The researchers received over 1200 replies, but only utilized 620 (415 female responses) due to the stabilization of data after the first few hundred replies. Respondents classified themselves as secure (56%), avoidant (24%) and anxious/ambivalent (19%) according to the vignettes provided. These results are similar to reports of infant-mother attachment orientations. Participants who identified themselves as secure stated that their most important love experience was happy, friendly, and trusting. Secure participants tended to have longer relationships than the other orientations, have lower divorce rates, and were able to accept their love interests' faults. Avoidant participants reported fear of intimacy. Participants classified as anxious/ambivalent described love as being an obsession having extreme sexual attraction with a desire for reciprocation and union. Both avoidant participants and anxious/ambivalent participants experienced emotional highs and lows as well as jealousy in their relationships.

Relationship Questionnaire

The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) is an adult attachment self-report measure developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). Their model of attachment consists of the model of self and the model of others. The RQ scores are used to identify four attachment styles based on the two dimensions of the attachment model. Each attachment orientation is described in a brief statement with a seven-point scale underneath each statement (i.e., 1 = not at all like me). Participants rate themselves on the four attachment orientations (i.e., secure, preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing).

For the purposes of the RQ, secure attachment is defined as a positive model of self and a positive model of others and signifies a sense of worthiness and lovability, and an expectation that others are accepting, responsive and trustworthy. Persons with secure attachments are comfortable in emotionally intimate relationships. A negative model of self and a positive model of others indicate a preoccupied attachment and signify a sense of worthlessness and not worth loving, and an expectation that others are accepting, responsive, and trustworthy. Persons with preoccupied attachments evaluate their own self-worth based on the opinions of significant others and tend to be the pursuer in relationships. Fearful individuals have a negative model of themselves and a negative model of others, causing them to view themselves unlovable and others untrustworthy and rejecting. Like preoccupied individuals, fearful people rely on others for their self-worth, but they avoid intimate relationships as a protection against anticipated rejection. Similarly, dismissing individuals avoid relationships due to the negative view of others and the anticipation of rejection. However, dismissing individuals have a positive model of themselves that enables them to rely on inner dialogue for self esteem. Dismissing persons are opposite in models of preoccupied individuals, often running from relationships because they deny the importance of intimate relationships.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) used the models of self and others to develop and validate the Relationship Questionnaire in two multi-dimensional studies. Each study utilized participant interviews and self-report instruments. The initial study also utilized friend interviews and friend-report instruments. In their original study, 77 college students (40 female) and their same-sex friends participated in the research. Participants'

ages ranged from 18 to 22 ($M = 19.6$), and their friends' ages ranged from 18 to 23 ($M = 19.8$). The majority of participants were Caucasian (67%), 16% were Asian, 5% Hispanic, 8% African American, and 4% Other. Same-sex friends had similar ethnicities: 65% were Caucasian, 13% were Asian, 13% were Hispanic, 4% were African American, and 5% described themselves as Other. The participants' attachment orientations from the interviews, self-report instruments, and friends' reports were similar. Results of the initial study indicated 47% of the participants endorsed a Secure orientation, 21% were Fearful, 18% were Dismissing, and 14% were Preoccupied.

Sixty-nine college students (33 female) participated in Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) follow-up study. Participants' ages ranged from 17 to 24 ($M = 19.5$) and 79% were Caucasian, 9% were Hispanic, 6% were Asian, 3% were African American, and 3% were Other. Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) follow-up study reported 57% of the participants endorsed a Secure orientation, 15% were Fearful, 18% were Dismissing, and 10% endorsed a Preoccupied attachment orientation.

Similar attachment orientations were reported by Lapsley and Edgerton (2002) with 46% Secure, 24% Fearful, 18% Dismissing, and 13% Preoccupied ($N = 156$), and Searle and Meara (1999) with 40% Secure, 24% Fearful, 17% Dismissing, and 19% Preoccupied ($N = 670$). However, contradictory percentages were reported by Pistole (1995) with 29% Secure, 40.2% Fearful, 12% Dismissing, and 18.8% Preoccupied ($N = 118$).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) established reliability and validity of the RQ using a multi-trait, multi-dimensional approach. During the initial study, researchers gained information through interviews as well as administering self and other report assessment instruments. Participants were rated on the following 15 dimensions based on the Adult Attachment Interview: (a) elaboration, (b) coherence, (c) self-disclosure in friendships, (d) intimacy in friendships, (e) balance of control in friendships, (f) highest level of involvement in romantic relationships, (g) balance of control in romantic relationships, (h) self-confidence, (i) emotional expressiveness, (j) crying frequency, (k) warmth, (l) reliance on others, (m) using others as a secure base, (n) nonsocial vs. social crying, and (o) care giving. Participants utilizing a secure orientation received high scores on coherence, degree of intimacy of their friendships, warmth, balance of control in friendships, and level of involvement in romantic relationships. Participants utilizing a fearful orientation scored significantly lower than secure and preoccupied participants on self-disclosure, intimacy, level of romantic involvement, reliance on others, and use of others as a secure base. Participants with a fearful attachment had low self-confidence and balance of control scales. Participants utilizing a dismissing orientation had high self-confidence and control in relationships but scored low on emotional expressiveness, frequency of crying, warmth, and all scales related to closeness in personal relationships (e.g., self-disclosure, intimacy, level of romantic involvements, capacity to rely on others, others as a secure base, elaboration, and care giving). Participants utilizing a preoccupied orientation had scores opposite of dismissing orientations. Preoccupied participants had high scores for elaboration, self-disclosure, emotional expressiveness, frequency of

crying, reliance on others, use of others as a secure base, crying in the presence of others, care giving, and romantic involvement. These participants scored low on coherence and balance of control in friendships.

During the initial study, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) reported alpha coefficients for the Relationship Questionnaire ranging from .87 to .95 for each of the four attachment orientations. Each of the different measures used to assess attachment reported similar results in attachment orientations. Self and other report assessment instruments resulted in consistent identification of interpersonal problems. Herzberg, Hammen, Burge, Daley, Davila, & Lindberg (1999) administered the RQ at 3 and 4-year intervals to 129 female adolescents in their study of attachment and perceptions of emotional support. The data from the 3-year administration were used to test the research hypothesis, while the data from the 4-year administration were used to assess test-retest correlations. These correlations averaged .53, with a range from .44 to .68. Similar correlations were reported by Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) at an 8-month follow-up. These results are lower than the recommended correlation of .80 for test-retest reliabilities.

The RQ is the instrument that was used in this research project. The RQ was designed to measure continuous attachment orientations as they related to important relationships and can be modified to specify a non-romantic relationship (e.g., supervision) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Stein, Jacobs, Ferguson, Allen, & Fonagy, 1998). This self-report instrument is easily understood by participants, quick to administer, and has high reliability and validity. Rest-retest reliability rates are lower than

recommended. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) acknowledged the fact that many participants may classify themselves as having more than one attachment orientation. In order to avoid this difficulty, Searle and Meara (1999) recommend asking the participants to identify one statement which most sound like themselves. In a large study of college students, women were more likely than men to classify themselves as secure or fearful, and men were more likely to classify themselves as dismissing and preoccupied (Brennan, Shaver, & Tobey, 1991). However, participants, regardless of gender, who classified themselves as fearful were more likely to report that one of their parents had a drinking problem (Brennan et al., 1991).

Ainsworth (1991) and Bowlby (1988) postulated that childhood relationship experiences develop attachment styles that are related to the expectations regarding responsiveness and accessibility of attachment figures. These expectations continue into adulthood and generalize to adult relationships. For example, if a child learns that the primary caregiver responds when the child is under stress, as an adult the individual would expect that significant others would respond similarly. Thus, counselors-in-training may have comparable expectations of supervisors that were developed in childhood. The RQ was used in this study to identify the attachment orientations of supervisees.

Counselor Supervision

Supervision is an essential component of counselor preparation. Supervisors guide trainees into the world of counseling. While there are varied definitions of counseling supervision, at its most basic supervision is a process by which a counselor oversees a

counselor-in-training (Watkins, 1997). A broad goal of counselor supervision is to facilitate counselor development (Pistole & Watkins, 1995). This broad goal may be divided into three main purposes (Bradley & Boyd, 1989): (a) to facilitate the counselor's professional and personal development; (b) to increase counselor competencies; and (c) to ensure that counselors are competent and ethical in their practice. Within each of these purposes lies the supervision relationship. An ideal supervisor/supervisee relationship enhances the supervisee skills and allows for a deeper understanding of self and clients. However, a difficult relationship may cause a supervisee to be less open to the learning process of beginning counseling, and lead to a less competent counselor.

The supervision relationship is complicated by the fact that the supervisor has many roles during the supervision process (Bradley & Boyd, 1989; Watkins, 1997). The supervisor is a teacher of counseling knowledge and skills, determining deficiencies to be corrected. Consultation is often provided in supervision, resulting in a supervisee's better understanding of themselves and their professional development. A consulting supervisor is a resource for information, creating a context for learning and encouraging trainees to trust their own skills, insights, feelings, and thoughts (Bernard, 1997). During supervision it may be necessary for the supervisor to take on a counselor role, addressing personal developmental tasks, stages, adjustment as well as personal exploration of feelings or issues brought about by the counseling or supervision sessions. As the trainee continues to develop into a more effective counselor, it is imperative that the supervision relationship manage conflict to provide a working alliance beneficial to the supervisor, trainee, and client (Gray, Ladany, Walker, & Ancis, 2001).

The Supervision Relationship

Each supervision relationship is unique, having its own character as a result of personal history, interpersonal styles, boundaries, and power differential (Heru et al., 2004; Holloway, 1997). While each supervisory relationship is unique, it is imperative for the relationship to develop trust in order for the supervisee to feel comfortable disclosing faults and emotions related to supervision and counseling (Chen & Bernstein, 2000; Heru et al., 2004). Positive supervisory relationships also include warmth, acceptance, respect, understanding, and trust (Worthen & McNeill, 1996). Complicating this process further, the supervision relationship has been compared to a parental relationship often triggering past parental difficulties (Heru et al., 2004). Resolution of conflicts from the parental-type power differential, as well as from the supervision process in general, has been acknowledged to delineate successful supervision (Holloway, 1997; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001).

Worthen and McNeill (1996) conducted a phenomenological study exploring *good* supervision as perceived by eight Caucasian supervisees (four female) with a variety of experience and ages. Four phases for successful supervision emerged during their research. The first phase was the ground on which the rest of the positive events emerged, often relating to the supervisee's past experiences such as feeling grounded or a sense of disillusionment with the process of counseling. The themes that emerged during this first stage were found to directly influence how the themes of other phases emerged and how they were resolved. *Setting the stage* was the second phase, when supervisees felt a sense of inadequacy consisting of anxiety and an emotional unbalanced feeling

which set the stage for learning to occur. The quality of the supervisory relationship was a critical component of *good supervision experience*, the third phase. The positive supervisory relationship included a supervisor who was nonjudgmental, manifested empathy, validated or affirmed the supervisee, and encouraged exploration and experimentation. Supervisees continued to have a sense of inadequacy, but the strong positive supervisory relationship seemed to enhance the learning experiences initiated by this sense of inadequacy. These first three phases laid the foundation for the last phase *Outcomes of good supervision*. During this phase, supervisees experienced “strengthened confidence, refined professional identity, increased therapeutic perception, expanded ability to conceptualize and intervene, positive anticipation to reengage their previous learning struggle, and a strengthened supervisory alliance” (p. 28). The trust that developed throughout supervision enhanced the learning process and provided the supervisee with a basis for intense personal discussions. Without this trust, supervisees would not have experienced the growth needed during this process, as supervisees would not have felt comfortable self-disclosing personal information and resolving conflicts. While this study had a small number of participants and investigated only the supervisee’s perceptions, the underlying components of successful supervision were discovered.

Sometimes conflicts are unable to be resolved, damaging the supervision relationship. Nelson and Friedlander (2001) investigated conflictual supervisory relationships from the supervisee’s perspective using a mixed quantitative and qualitative design. The researchers utilized a semi-structured interview to gather information

regarding the supervisees' perceptions of supervision relationships, supervision conflicts, the resolution of the conflicts, and the overall effects of these conflicts. For purposes of triangulation of the qualitative data, two self-report instruments were administered, the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory, and the Supervisory Styles Inventory. The 13 participants were a nationwide sample, primarily Caucasian (11 participants) and female (9 participants) who experienced a conflict or negative impasse in supervision within the last 3 years. Eight categories were revealed relating to supervisees' experiences of conflictual supervision: (a) initiation of relationship, (b) impasse characteristics, (c) contributing factors, (d) supervisee's perception of supervisor's reactions, (e) supervisee reactions, (f) supervisee coping strategies, (g) negative outcomes, and (h) positive outcomes. The initiation of the relationship was perceived in two main patterns. Supervisees most commonly perceived supervisors as remote and uncommitted to the supervision relationship, viewing supervisors as too busy to bother with the process. This often led to feelings of disappointment with the supervisors from the onset of supervision.

The second pattern experienced involved the perception that supervisors were too friendly, lacking some boundaries in the relationship. Impasse characteristics, events that led to the inability to resolve conflicts, also included boundary violations. Participants felt that they had to function in more than one role with their supervisor, being the supervisor's trainee, counselor, friend, and employee. Relationship difficulties also included the occurrence of a power struggle; with the supervisee feeling that the supervisors reacted as if threatened by the supervisee's extended experience or age. A

disagreement regarding the goals and purpose of supervision was identified by a majority of the participants, including a desire for more time and input, uncertainty regarding the supervisor's commitment, and an unclear supervision contract.

Contributing factors to the conflictual supervision relationship included many training site-based issues described by participants. Training sites were described as biased against counseling psychology students contributing to the disrespect perceived by supervisees. Also described were site-based conflicts, often triangulating participants between the site and home program. Many training sites had unstable conditions such as staff conflicts, financial difficulties, and a lack of staffing. Participants suggested that more staff would have provided a buffer or an on-site support system that could provide mediation.

Participants perceived ongoing, extensive anger as a reaction from their supervisors when conflicts were discussed. Supervisors were unwilling to take responsibility for their actions, refusing to discuss conflicts or being unable to move on from conflicts while often criticizing supervisees in front of peers, and threatening to withhold (or withholding) evaluations. Participants also described supervisors as having mood swings such as unpredictable anger, and disclosing personal information inappropriately, including explicit sexual information. Reactions to the conflicts and supervisor behaviors included losing trust in their supervisors, feeling unsafe, pulling back emotionally, and maintaining a guarded stance during supervision. A sense of powerlessness and feelings of being manipulated along with boundary violations combined with the conflictual relationships led many participants to experience extreme

stress, developing health problems, and having moderate to extreme feelings of self-doubt such as obsessively analyzing their behavior believing they were the cause of the conflicts. Fears were also experienced by participants, including fears related to the unpredictable supervisor behavior as well as fears of failing professionally or finishing their program late.

Coping strategies used by the supervisees included confronting supervisors, requesting mediation from clinic or training directors, receiving support from partners or peers, engaging in therapy, consulting with home site or training directors, and seeking support from other counselors or psychologists. Perspective taking was also a coping strategy used by participants who acknowledged their own and their supervisors' responsibilities for the problem, often discussing the difficulties with supportive others.

There were negative outcomes experienced by the participants if the supervision conflicts were never resolved. Participants continued to experience anxiety when avoided by their former supervisors, and many participants continued to be wary of supervision and considered changing their professional plans (one did). One participant described the negative experience as "psychologically and physically" damaging (p. 391). Several participants took breaks from school and returned to their programs at a later date.

Although the conflicts were difficult, there were positive outcomes related to the relationships. Participants were proud of their resilience and strength, feeling positive about their assertiveness. Knowledge gained about organizational dynamics and handling difficult people were described as positive outcomes. Validation received from others

during this time was “an unexpected gift” (p. 391). Often participants were surprised and grateful for the support they received from their site administrators and home departments.

This study used supervisees’ perspectives only, with a small number of similar participants, so it might not be generalizable. The information gathered can inform supervisors regarding the events supervisees consider difficult. It may not occur to supervisors that there are lasting effects from negative events and unresolved conflicts in supervision. However it is evident from the research that a supportive, trustful working alliance with appropriate boundaries in supervision is the ultimate goal, providing supervisees with counseling skills as well as personal reflection in a safe environment (Bordin, 1983; Bradley & Boyd, 1989; Gray et al., 2001; Heru et al., 2004; Nelson & Friedlander, 2001; Worthen & McNeill, 1996).

Working Alliance in Counselor Supervision

Bordin (1979) initially developed the concept of working alliance for use with counselors and clients. Bordin’s work was based on the psychoanalytic idea of a therapeutic relationship including the attachment the client has for the therapist as a force for change (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989). Greenson (1967) initiated the term *working alliance* as a positive therapeutic alliance allowing the client to benefit from the interaction with the therapist resulting in effective therapeutic change. Bordin extended Greenson’s working alliance from psychoanalysis to all psychotherapies, and then into psychotherapy supervision (Bordin, 1983). The working alliance model of supervision focuses on the relationship between the supervisor and the trainee. Bordin defined the

working alliance as a three-component collaboration for change, both personal and technical, based on perceptions of mutual connections. Supervisors and trainees must first come to a “mutual agreement” regarding the goals being strived for during supervision. The agreement of clear goals directly contributes to the amount of change that will take place and the strength of the working alliance.

Bordin (1983) named eight goals for supervision from the supervisee’s perspective. *Mastery of specific skills*, usually related to a beginning trainee, includes basic skills such as reflection and open-ended questions, as well as more complex skills such as cognitive restructuring. The second goal *enlarging one’s understanding of clients* is a deepening of observational skills with a more mature, broadened understanding of the client as a person, not just as the client. *Enlarging one’s awareness of process issues* is defined as trainees’ increased understanding of the counseling process, being able to connect past sessions and increase awareness of the total process of counseling, not just what is occurring in a specific session. As learning continues, trainees increase their awareness of themselves and their impact on the counseling process. This awareness of self was evidenced in Trad’s (1995) qualitative research regarding supervision working alliance. The most common critical incident reported by supervisees dealt with reporting supervisee’s personal issues interfering with the counseling process. These incidents were associated with a deeper understanding of self and the supervisee’s influence in the therapeutic relationship. This fourth goal is highlighted by the fact that trainees begin to understand that personal and technical elements contribute to successful counseling and what the trainee brings to the process can enhance or decrease client change. The fifth

goal, *overcoming personal and intellectual obstacles toward learning and mastery* is when a trainee encounters a general reaction from their own issues such as reacting by emotionally withdrawing when a client expresses anger, thus interfering with the counseling process and client outcomes. Working through personal issues as they relate to the supervision process can enhance a trainee's understanding of herself and her clients. The sixth goal states that the trainee deepens their understanding of concepts and theory usually provided by self and guided process observations. While deepening their understanding of theory, trainees may begin to research specific aspects of counseling to answer individual researchable questions. The seventh goal of *providing a stimulus to research* refers to identifying researchable questions in the supervision and counseling process. The last goal of the supervision process is the maintenance of standards of service. While this is not a personal goal for change, without the ethical standards relating to counseling, the supervision process and working alliance would be weak or absent.

Once goals are defined, specific tasks related to the goals should be identified. Both the supervisor and trainee should have a clear understanding of the tasks and their responsibilities for the implementation of each task. Tasks can be all-encompassing such as describing the counseling process, or more specific such as completing session notes. Tasks that enhance change and the working alliance should be within each person's expertise and able to be completed. Tasks that are frustrating or too difficult may lead to an impasse, and damage the working alliance. For example, if a supervisor requests a trainee to use a double-chair Gestalt exercise with a client but does not provide support,

the trainee could become overwhelmed if the exercise is not within their knowledge base. The trainee might become frustrated and refuse to complete other assigned tasks as well, thus putting a halt to the supervision process.

The last component associated with the working alliance model is the bond that develops from shared experiences. Feelings of liking, caring, compassion, trust, and understanding are bonds between the supervisor and trainee created by the mutual goals and tasks as well as feelings of collaboration. Borden (1983) posited that the amount of time spent in supervision as well as the degree to which personal information is shared would influence the amount of bonds needed to have a working alliance. These personal attachments contribute to the strength of the alliance. There is some evidence that beginning trainees with low levels of development may report weaker supervisory alliances than more advanced trainees (Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002). Other researchers discovered beginning level supervisees reported being more dependent, anxious, technique oriented and less ready for confrontation than more advanced supervisees (Reising & Daniels, 1983). These studies indicate that supervisors may need to take additional time to increase the bonds of the supervisory working alliance with beginning or developmentally low-level supervisees. However, Trad (1995) conducted a study exploring the development of the supervisory working alliance, and discovered no difference in measured working alliance between novice and advanced supervisees. Participants included five beginning doctoral practicum supervisees, four advanced (completed practicum training) doctoral supervisees, and their nine supervisors.

Differences were found between supervision dyads who disagreed about their perceptions of the working alliance, and dyads who agreed. Supervision dyads who reported different perceptions had lower working alliance scores than dyads whose perceptions agreed. By the end of supervision, dyads reported a strong working alliance. Although the findings of this study are interesting, the researcher use of doctoral supervisees may be the reason for the differences in outcomes from other reported research. Doctoral supervisees, by their nature, have experienced supervision during their master's programs, and may not be considered beginning supervisees. Regardless, Borden believed that the bond in the supervisory working alliance was the glue that held the working alliance together.

Additionally, Borden believed that the process of building and repairing the strong alliance precipitates the amount of change. Thus conflicts and questions arising during the supervision process should be addressed and resolved. The process of resolution then adds to the supervisory working alliance as a shared experience and a deeper understanding of each other.

Assessment of Supervisory Working Alliance

Horvath and Greenberg (1989) developed the Working Alliance Inventory (WAI) based on Bordin's theory, in order to measure the quality of the counseling alliance relating to bond development, goal agreement and task agreement. The 36 items (12 per domain) consisted of statements such as "I feel comfortable with..." and "I find what I am doing in therapy confusing" which were to be rated on a 7-point scale (e.g., 7= always) by the counselor and client. Horvath and Greenberg (1989) conducted three

studies related to the validity and reliability of the WAI, utilizing counselors from a variety of theoretical backgrounds. The researchers found a statistically positive significant relationship between measured working alliance and client outcome. Bahrlick (1989) modified the WAI (WAI-M) for use with counselor supervision by changing *client* to *supervisee*, *counselor* to *supervisor*, and *client problems* to *supervises concerns*.

The Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory

The Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI) was developed by Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) as a self-report instrument to measure the perceived strength of the supervisory relationship from the perspective of the supervisor and supervisee. The instrument's items were based on works by Bordin (1979), Greenson (1967), Gelso and Carter (1985), Patton (1984), and Pepinsky and Patton (1971). Based on the ideas of these authors, Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) generated the idea that the supervisory working alliance is a composite of tasks and behaviors specific to the supervisor and trainee. The SWAI, unlike the SWI, was specifically developed for use in counselor supervision. There are two forms, one for the supervisor and one for the supervisee. The supervisor form consists of 23 items such as "I teach my trainee through direct suggestion," divided into the factors of Rapport (7 items), Client Focus (9 items), and Identification (7 items). Rapport is the supervisors' effort to build a relationship with the supervisee using support and encouragement. Client focus refers to the emphasis the supervisors place on advancing the supervisees' understanding of the client. How the supervisors perceive the trainees' identification with the supervisor is labeled Identification. The supervisee 19-item form is divided into the factors of rapport (12

items) and client focus (7 items) and contains items such as “I feel comfortable working with my supervisor.” Rapport is defined as “the trainee’s perception of support from the supervisor” (p. 325). Client focus is defined as “the emphasis the supervisors placed on promoting the trainees’ understanding of the client” (p. 325). Participants are asked to rate each statement from 1 to 7 on a scale (e.g., 7 = almost always). The average of the total scores for each factor is used as the factor score, with high scores representing perceptions of a strong working alliance.

Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) developed and validated the SWAI utilizing a two-step process. The items were developed by 10 experienced supervisors working at an American Psychological Association (APA) approved university counseling center. The supervisors generated lists of activities attributed to supervisors and supervisees during the supervision process. The second step of the process was to administer the SWAI to supervisors and supervisees throughout the United States (e.g., 42 states, Washington, DC, and Canada). 185 doctoral-level psychologist supervisors from various settings completed the SWAI as well as the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI). Supervisors’ mean age was 41.96 ($SD = 10.19$), and consisted of 114 men, 69 women, and 2 gender-unidentified supervisors with an average of 15 years ($SD = 8.82$) of therapy experience. The mean score for supervisor Rapport was 5.97 ($SD = 0.58$), for Client Focus was 5.48 ($SD = .063$), and for Identification was 5.41 ($SD = .065$). The alpha coefficients for Rapport, Client Focus, and Identification were .73, .71, and .77 respectively. Item-scale correlations for the supervisor SWAI ranged from .29 to .56 for Rapport, from .29 to .54 for Client Focus, and from .38 to .57 for Identification.

Correlations between the three supervisor's scales on the SWAI ranged from .23 to .36, in the low but significant range. Correlations between the SWAI and the SSI were: .49 for Rapport and Attractive, .32 for Rapport and Interpersonally Sensitive, -.06 for Rapport and Task-Oriented (the only correlation not statistically significant), .20 for Client Focus and Attractive, .30 for Client Focus and Interpersonally Sensitive, .50 for Client Focus and Task-Oriented, .47 for Identification and Attractive, .39 for Identification and Interpersonally Sensitive, and .17 for Identification and Task-Oriented.

178 supervisees completed a supervision outcome measure and the Self-Efficacy Inventory in addition to the SWAI and SSI instruments. The supervisees' mean age was 29.95 ($SD = 10.50$), and the participants consisted of 73 men, 103 women, and 2 gender-unidentified supervisees. Beginning practicum students were not included in this study as Efstation, Patton and Kardash wanted to utilize supervisees with background knowledge of the supervision process. The mean score for supervisee Rapport was 5.85 ($SD = 0.83$), and for Client Focus was 5.44 ($SD = .84$), while the alpha coefficients were .90 and .77 respectively. SWAI item-scale correlations for the supervisee Rapport scale ranged from .44 to .77, and from .37 to .53 for the Client Focus scale. The correlation between the two factors on the Trainee version of the SWAI was .47, significant at the .001 level.

Correlations between the SWAI and SSI were: .78 for Rapport and Attractive, .66 for Rapport and Interpersonally Sensitive, .12 for Rapport and Task-Oriented (the only correlation not statistically significant), .40 for Client Focus and Attractive, .51 for Client

Focus and Interpersonally Sensitive, and .52 for Client Focus and Task-Oriented. These correlations of the SWAI and SSI supervisee and supervisor forms support convergent and divergent validity of the SWAI.

Attachment, the Working Alliance and Counselor Supervision

Bordin, (1979) in his original description of the working alliance in counseling, described the bond experienced as a complex network of attachments between the counselor and the client including mutual trust, acceptance, and confidence. Bordin (1983) then extended his work to include counseling supervision stating, “the bonds required in the supervisory alliance typically fall somewhere between those of teacher to class members and therapist to patient” (p. 38). Bordin continued to explain that trust is imperative in counselor supervision in order for supervisees to confront their own innermost experiences and the impact of those experiences upon the therapeutic process. Thus, the counselor-in-training needs to have the perception of trust toward the supervisor and feelings of worthiness in themselves in order to be open to change during the counseling supervision process. This trust in others and selves is akin to Bowlby’s (1973) concept of the model of self and others.

Watkins (1995) introduced the concept of attachment in the supervision relationship. He believed that early attachment behavior can be triggered by the process of supervision “because supervision can be an intensely affective experience” (p.335) as the focus of supervision includes the relationship as well as supervisee’s inner processes. This experience can touch upon unresolved attachment issues, interrelating them with typical counselor-in-training feelings of anxiety, incompetence, identity diffusion, and

autonomy issues as well as the highs and lows of success and failure. Complicating these issues further, counseling supervision is usually the first one-on-one relationship counselors-in-training experience during their master's programs. Thus problematic attachment orientations may not surface until the supervision process begins.

Pistole and Watkins (1995) also extended Bowlby's attachment theory to supervision. They described attachment behavior as resulting in the supervisee attaining or retaining proximity to a supervisor, a preferred individual, who is perceived of as stronger and wiser. Supervision, like the process of attachment, can be described as developmental in nature (Pistole & Watkins, 1995). Supporting this process with a secure base, according to Pistole and Watkins (1995), helps ground the supervisee, and can serve a protective function. The supervisee begins to realize that: "(a) they are not alone in their counseling efforts, (b) their work will be monitored and reviewed across clients, and (c) they have a ready resource or beacon – the supervisor – who will be available to them in times of need" (p.469). Thus, with a secure base, supervisees can trust that the supervisor will be available in times of stress or anxiety, just as securely attached infants can trust that their primary caregiver will respond in times of danger or need. This is especially important with beginning supervisees, who tend to rely on their supervisors for support and monitoring more than experienced supervisees. This secure base also promotes exploratory behavior by the supervisee (e.g., trying out different theory bases in counseling), who understands that the supervisor will provide a safety net. Another function of the secure base in supervision, according to Pistole and Watkins (1995), is to "stimulate a sense of wonder, awe, and curiosity in supervisees;... a deep, abiding

appreciation of, or awe for, the diversity of the counseling enterprise” (p.469) such as theories, techniques, and client individuality. A secure base provides supervisees with the space to safely explore becoming a counselor. Supervisors exhibiting behaviors such as openness, availability, consistency responsiveness, and flexibility, while being nonjudgmental, manifesting empathy, validating the supervisee, and encouraging exploration and experimentation would provide the supervisee with a safe, trustful environment enhancing the working alliance (Bordin, 1983; Pistole & Watkins, 1995). While it is important for a supervisor to provide a safe base for supervisees, the supervisees’ attachment orientations may affect the supervision process (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins Jr, 1995).

Watkins (1995) and Pistole and Watkins (1995) described pathological attachment orientations of supervisees based on Bowlby’s original theory. The compulsively self-reliant supervisee (e.g., dismissive; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), having a positive sense of self and a negative sense of others, believes that they need no help because they know best and are often defiant, resistant (e.g., directly and indirectly), and may challenge the supervisor’s comments or suggestions, sometimes in the presence of others (Neswald-McCalip, 2001; Pistole, 1989; Watkins Jr, 1995). Supervisees exhibiting this orientation are often resentful or hostile about being supervised and attempt to place themselves at a distance from the supervisor. When given directions from the supervisor, dismissive supervisees will ignore the instructions and continue on their own path because accepting the supervisor’s feedback is to relinquish their autonomy and trust in others, something that threatens their models of self and others.

Anxious attached supervisees (e.g. fearful) have a negative model of themselves and others (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). They may request feedback, only to become despondent at their perceived failure, and then not trusting the supervisor, elicit others' feedback regarding the same situation (Neswald-McCalip, 2001). Anxiously attached supervisees are often clingy, demanding of attention, highly dependent on the supervisor, want to be the supervisor's favorite, and test the strength of the working alliance with perceived crises (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins Jr, 1995). This same supervisee may also become angry at the supervisor because of the overwhelming need of the supervisor, but try to conceal this anger, demonstrating passive aggressive behaviors.

Compulsive care-giving supervisees (e.g. preoccupied) have a negative model of self and a positive model of other and are able to give but unable to receive because they are not worthy of the supervisor's efforts (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). Thus, these supervisees feel uncomfortable or anxious receiving supervision, can be overly concerned with the supervisor's perceived needs and want to help the supervisor, feel the need to rescue the client with advice rather than letting the client struggle with issues, and jump in immediately to soften the client's pain rather than getting an overall picture of the situation (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins Jr, 1995).

While most supervisees will not operate from a pathological attachment orientation, insecure attachment orientations that are not pathological may also affect the supervision process. Supervisees displaying some behaviors from the aforementioned attachment orientations can disrupt the working alliance and thus, the supervision

process. For example, supervisees who have a negative model of others, and thus see help as inaccessible or unreliable, may have difficulty establishing a working alliance and receiving feedback (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Neswald-McCalip, 2001).

Securely attached supervisees may enhance the working alliance, and thus the supervision process. Supervisees who are securely attached develop trusting relationships appropriately, are genuine and open to feedback, ask for help when encountering stressful events, are open to exploring themselves and open to making changes to facilitate the counseling and supervision processes (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Neswald-McCalip, 2001).

Supervision and Attachment Research

There is a paucity of research regarding supervision and attachment. To date, few studies attempt to measure the effect of attachment of the supervisor or supervisee on the supervision process. Kim and Birk (1998) were the first researchers to empirically examine the effect of supervisee attachment on supervisee satisfaction with supervision, supervisee perceptions of the supervision relationship, and supervisory style. Two hundred and thirty-three graduate students (76% female) receiving individual supervision responded to the surveys. The majority of the participants classified themselves as Caucasian (75%), 11% were African American, 4% were Asian-American/Asian Indian/Pacific Islander, 3% classified themselves as Biracial/Multiracial, 3% were Hispanic-American/Latino/Latina, 1% were Native American/American Indian, and 2% classified themselves as other. Participants ages ranged from 22 to 57 years, with a mean of 30 (SD = 8), and were from various graduate study programs: Counseling Psychology

(38%), Clinical Psychology (19%), Rehabilitation Counseling (9%), Community Counseling (6%), School Counseling (6%), School Psychology (6%), Counselor Education (5%), and other programs such as Social Work (11%). Counseling experience was also varied, ranging from one month to over 170 months, with a mean of 34 months and a mode of 8 months. Participants experienced from 3 to over 99 sessions with their current supervisors, with a mean of 19 sessions ($SD = 15$) and a mode of 15. Participants completed a packet which included the Attachment Style Questionnaire (reporting the attachment dimensions of Confidence, Discomfort with Closeness, Need for Approval, Reoccupation with Relationships and Relationships as Secondary), Supervisory Satisfaction Questionnaire, Supervisory Styles Inventory – Trainee Version, Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale – Short Form, and the Working Alliance Inventory – Trainee Version .

Using a four-multiple regression analysis, supervisee attachment dimensions explained a significant amount of the variance of satisfaction with supervision, perceived supervisory bond, perceived supervisory style as attractive and interpersonally sensitive. However, only two attachment dimensions had statistically significant regression coefficients, suggesting some attachment dimensions were more important than others. The results indicated that trainees who scored high on the attachment dimension of *Confidence* (e.g., confident about relating or are secure) were more likely to be satisfied with supervision, and to see their supervisor's style as attractive and interpersonally sensitive. Supervisees who scored high on the attachment dimension of *Preoccupation with Relationships* (e.g., worry about their relationships or are preoccupied) tended to be

less satisfied with supervision. Thus, supervisee who rated themselves as secure were more satisfied with supervision and their supervision relationship than supervisees who rated themselves as Preoccupied. Results were limited because supervisees choosing to complete the research packets might have been significantly different than those who chose not to participate. Further, the attachment orientations were measured based on an external relationship instead of the actual supervision relationship. Also, by placing all of the supervisees in one group, regardless of experience may have limited the results. There is a chance that more experience supervisees may be more secure in their counseling, and thus rate their supervision relationships higher. While this study marked the beginning of research regarding attachment and supervision, it was not, by all means, conclusive.

Epps (1999) examined the effect of attachment styles on the working alliance in counselor supervision. Participants were 96 supervision dyads (16 supervisors, 96 supervisees) from practicum classes conducted by the supervisors and collected data beginning in the third week of the semester until the last week of the semester, when an adequate number of dyads was attained. The majority of the supervisors were female (10), all were Caucasian ranging in ages from 20-59 with the average supervisor being between 40-49 years of age. Supervisees were also between the ages of 20 and 59, with an average age range of 30-39. The majority of supervisees were female (84) and Caucasian (80), with 13 being African American, and 3 being Hispanic. Both the supervisors and supervisees identified with various counseling styles. The participants completed a demographics questionnaire, the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (Supervisor or Supervisee version) and the Attachment Style Questionnaire. Attachment

orientations were reported as secure or insecure, with no differentiation between different insecure orientations. Nine supervisors and fifty-four rated themselves as securely attached, with 37 of the dyads having secure supervisors and supervisees, 23 having insecure supervisors and supervisees, 19 having insecure supervisors and secure supervisees, and 17 having secure supervisors and insecure supervisees. The researchers found a statistically significant relationship between supervisee attachment style and supervisee rating of the working alliance rapport score on the SWAI ($F = 5.539$ with and $p = .05$). Securely attached supervisees rated the working alliance rapport in the supervision relationship higher than insecurely attached supervisees. A moderate correlation was reported between the supervisor's age and supervisor's working alliance rapport scale ($r = .237$), indicating an older supervisor rated the supervision relationship higher. Another moderate correlation was reported between supervisee gender and supervisor rapport scale ($r = .211$), indicating a higher working alliance rapport rating from supervisors with female supervisees. There were no other statistically significant results, indicating that supervisor attachment was not indicative of supervisee perceived rapport. Flaws in this study included using only practicum students rather than a variety of supervisees, as well as collecting data in a classroom situation rather than with one-on-one dyads. Also Bordin (1983) hypothesized that supervision changes over time so results collected from dyads at the beginning of the semester might be different than results attained at the end of the semester.

Epps' (1999) conclusions mirror Kim and Birk's (1998) conclusions that supervisee attachment style affects supervisee perceived working alliance rapport or bond in the relationship. However when White and Queener (2003) investigated supervisor and supervisee attachments and their relationship to social provisions and the supervisory working alliance, no relationship was found between supervisees' attachment orientations and supervisor working alliance. White and Queener (2003) administered the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory, the Adult Attachment Scale, and the Social Provisions Scale to 67 supervision dyads. Preliminary regression analysis indicated no predictive effect for gender, theoretical orientation, number of sessions and experience. Supervisors who reported a positive supervisory working alliance were found to be more comfortable with closeness in relationships and dependence on others than supervisors who reported a negative working alliance. Attachment orientation and social support levels of the supervisors and supervisees did not predict the type of supervisory working alliance.

Ligiero and Gelso (2002) also found no relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and any working alliance component. The WAI – short form, and observer versions, the RQ the Countertransference Index, and the ICB were administered with 50 counselors-in-training (23 doctoral students) and 46 of their supervisors. The majority of supervisees were female (37) and Caucasian (35). The majority of the supervisors were female (29) and Caucasian (33). One limitation of Ligiero and Gelso's (2002) study was the fact that the attachment orientations on the RQ were rated independently, and some supervisees rated themselves as having more than one dominate

attachment orientation. Another limitation was no differentiation between different level supervisees. Both of these limitations could be the reason there was no significant difference found.

Foster (2002) developed an instrument to measure specific attachment behaviors in supervision based on supervisor observations, and used this instrument to examine the relationship between supervisees' level of development as therapists and attachment, psychological reactance, and the length of the supervision relationship. The Attachment Behaviors Checklist was constructed and validated by a focus group of five therapists, as well as two doctoral-licensed psychologists. Interestingly enough, the supervisors rated supervisees as being securely attached regardless of supervisee attachment orientation. In the second phase of his research, results indicated that supervisees with a Fearful attachment orientation were less advanced in their overall development, were less able to use self-perceptions to understand their clients, and were less invested in the counseling and supervision process than supervisees who were securely attached. It may be important to study specific insecure attachment orientations and their relationship with supervision.

Hope et. al. (in press) investigated the relationship between supervisor and supervisee attachment orientations and supervision working alliance. Fifteen dyads were administered a packet including the Experiences in Close Relationships – Revised and the Working Alliance Inventory – Supervisor or Supervisee versions. The supervisees were from an introductory counseling skills class, and the supervisors were doctoral level students or faculty. The only statistically significant difference found was between

anxiously attached supervisees ($M = 56.20$, $SD = 26.22$) and securely attached supervisors ($M = 34.87$, $SD = 10.89$), indicating that supervisees may enter supervision from an anxious attachment and may become more securely attached with more experience, as supervisors were securely attached. This research was conducted with a small number of participants. As with the study conducted by Kim and Birk (1998), attachment orientation was evaluated using a romantic relationship rather than the supervision relationship.

Based on the empirical research, there continue to be questions regarding supervisee's attachment and their perceived working alliance. While some research indicates securely attached supervisees perceive the supervision working alliance more positively than insecure attached supervisees, not all research supports this finding. There is also some indication that the type of insecure attachment (e.g., fearful) may be correlated with a negative supervisory working alliance. In many of the investigations, attachment was measured using instruments that referred the participant to a romantic relationship rather than the present supervisory relationship. Many of the studies also used the WAI, which was developed for use with counselors and clients, not with supervisors and supervisees. Also, the studies have failed to differentiate between the experience levels of supervisees, and none of the studies measured the attachment and working alliance over time. In this study, I investigated the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and supervisee perceived working alliance rapport over the course of the semester (beginning of semester, midsemester, and end of semester),

with three levels of supervisees (entry, practicum and internship). The RQ was modified to specify the supervision relationship, and the SWAI was used because it was specifically developed to measure the supervision working alliance.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Counseling supervision is an essential component of counselor preparation. It involves the development of intimate relationships between counselors and supervisors. Hope, Renfro-Michel, and Sheperis. (in press) found differences between supervisors and beginning counselors with regard to attachment orientation. Based on the results of their study, Hope, Renfro-Michel, and Sheperis, determined that beginning counselors have difficulty trusting the reciprocal nature of relationships, while supervisors do not demonstrate evidence of anxiety or avoidance in relationships. Although their study was limited in sample size, the results indicate that counselors tend to develop a greater ability for intimacy and tend to rely on different attachment orientations over the course of their training. An examination of the timing of change regarding the attachment style of counselors-in-training may be beneficial for counselor supervisors and educators.

Attachment is a critical process in the development of healthy relationships (Bowlby, 1988). Because clinical supervision is a central relationship for counselor development, the examination of attachment orientation among counselors and supervisors is important. However, few have examined the attachment styles of counselors in supervision, and there is a paucity of research connecting attachment styles

of supervisees and perceived supervision working alliance. This chapter contains the following sections: (a) research design, (b) statistical analyses, (c) instrumentation, (d) procedures for data collection, and (e) data analyses.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to investigate the state of attachment orientation of master's level counselor education students in CACREP programs at three levels of experience (entry, practicum, and internship) over time, and the students' perceived supervision working alliance rapport during the supervision process. This design was a 3 x 3 quasi-experimental mixed design, examining change within and between each of the three groups. The design was quasi-experimental due to the fact that the participants were not randomly assigned to groups. The design was a mixed design because participants' attachment orientations and perceived supervision relationship were measured within each group (change over time) and between each of the 3 groups. A mixed, or split plot design, combines between subjects factor(s) and within subjects factor(s) (Shavelson, 1996). Thus, this design measured the differences between each of the 3 levels of counselors over time, and within each group over time. A mixed design is considered the best approach for determining difference within and between participants (Shavelson, 1996).

There are advantages and disadvantages of both within and between group designs. Within subjects designs allow for differences between participants, and thus recognize small differences in independent variables. This recognition increases the power of the design, and decreases the possibility of Type II errors. In addition, within

subjects group designs permit subjects to be observed multiple times. However, results of within designs are often limited due to practice effects, order effects, maturation, and differential carry-over effects. In contrast, between group designs help researchers avoid the effects of testing. However, between group designs limit participants to one treatment condition. In order to reduce the possibility of error and to obtain the best possibility of determining true differences in experimental outcomes, the designs were combined, thus comparing each group to itself over time (within subjects) while comparing all three groups (between subjects). A mixed design provided the researcher with the advantage of observing where change takes place and how each level of experience builds upon the next (Shavelson, 1996).

Each participant's attachment orientation and perceived supervision rapport were measured within the first month of the academic semester, within a week of midsemesters, and within a week of final exams. The independent variables were time and the experience level of counselor. The dependent variables were the scores on the Relationship Questionnaire (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and The Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (Efstation et al., 1990). The relationship, over time, of each participant's attachment orientation in relation to the participant's perceived supervisory rapport was examined to determine level of relationship between the scores. In addition, each level of supervisee was compared to examine the differences between supervisee attachment orientation, working alliance rapport, and level of experience. In order to

determine the perceived importance of the supervision relationship, the descriptive statistics from a question specific to the impactfulness of the supervision relationship were described.

Statistical Analyses

Three types of analysis were used to answer the following research questions.

1. What is the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and supervisee perceived rapport of the working alliance?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientation within each level of supervisee over time?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time?
5. Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time?
6. Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees?

Two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the relationship of perceived working alliance rapport with attachment and level of supervisee for the beginning of semester and end of semester administrations of the instruments. Bowker tests of symmetry were used to determine change in attachment orientations within each level of supervisee over time. Additionally, Bowker tests were performed to determine if there was any significant change of attachment orientation over

time. In order to determine if there were significant differences in frequencies between the levels of supervisee for each of the Relationship Questionnaires, three Chi-square tests were performed, one for each administration of the Relationship Questionnaire. Finally, the descriptive statistics were used to determine the perceived impact of the supervision relationship.

Two-Way Factorial Analysis of Variance

Two two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVAS) were used to examine the relationship of perceived working alliance rapport with attachment and level of supervisee for the administrations of the SWAI Rapport scale (e.g., questions one and four). Two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) allows for the comparison of means of two independent variables with a dependent variable (Howell, 1997).

Advantages to the factorial model include the ability to compare the means of independent variables separately and as an interaction with each other. Additionally, “there is more precision in the estimation of the error variance than with one-way ANOVAs of the factors separately” (Ruiz-Primo, Mitchell, & Shavelson, 1981, p. 339). The two-way factorial ANOVAS were used because they allowed for the examination of categorical data (e.g. level and attachment orientation) and continuous data (e.g. supervision working alliance rapport) with more precision than using separate one-way anovas. There are four assumptions for two-way factorial ANOVAs; independence, sphericity, normality and homogeneity of variances (Howell, 1997). The assumption of independence was met as all participants’ scores for the independent variables were independent of each other, thus knowing how one participant completed the RQ was not

connected to another participant's scores on the RQ. The assumption of sphericity was tested with Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the midsemester ($p = .486$) and end of semester ($p = .918$). As neither test was statistically significant, the assumption of sphericity was met.

The assumption of normality was tested with the Shapiro-Wilks' test using SPSS (Statistical Packet for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Inc., 2001). For the midsemester collection of data, the preoccupied (.867(7), $p = .175$) and fearful (.940(8), $p = .608$) attachment orientations and the internship level of participants had normal distributions on working alliance rapport scores. The secure (.975(74), $p = .012$) and the dismissing (.876 (27), $p = .004$) had non-normal distributions on working alliance rapport scores. Histograms for the secure and dismissing attachment orientations showed a trend in high scores (e.g., above four) for working alliance rapport scores. Higher working alliance rapport scores for high confidence were reported by Kim and Birk (1998) so no corrections were performed on the data. For the end of semester collection of data, the dismissing, ($F = 943 (36), p = .063$) preoccupied ($F = .874 (3), p = .306$), and fearful ($F = .957 (8), p = .786$) attachment orientations had normal distributions on working alliance rapport scores. The secure attachment (.885 (70), $p = .000$) had a non-normal distribution. Examination of histogram indicated that securely attached supervisees tended to rate supervision working alliance rapport at the upper end of the scale (e.g. above four). As this trend is similar to previous research (Epps, 1999) no corrections were performed on

this data. These violations of normality may be due to the low cell size of preoccupied and fearful participants. However, ANOVAs are robust to violations of normality, so no corrections were performed on the data.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances requires that the variances in scores in the populations underlying all the cells of the design be equal. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested by Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances which assesses if the variances of a single variable (e.g., working alliance rapport scores) are equal across a number of groups (e.g., level of supervisee, attachment orientation) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). ANOVAs are most robust to violations of homogeneity of variance when the cell sizes are equal. However, the cell sizes for this study were not equal. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was significant for the midsemester two-way ANOVA, $F = 1.965 (11, 104), p = .039$. Thus, the variances were not equal, and the assumption was violated, and there is an increase in the probability of a Type I error, rejecting the null hypothesis when it might be true.

The Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was not significant for the end of semester 2-way ANOVA, $F = 1.548 (10, 106), p = .133$. Assumption judged to have been met satisfactorily.

Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) was used to determine specific significant differences revealed by the Two-Way Factorial ANOVAs. Tukey's HSD examines differences between all possible pairs of means of pairwise differences (Ruiz-Primo et al., 1981)

Bowker Tests

In order to determine any significant change in attachment orientation within each level of supervisee over time to answer question two, nine Bowker tests of internal change were conducted, three tests for each of the levels of supervisee. The Bowker test is a nonparametric test which is an extension of the McNemar test, testing all possible McNemar tables (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). Nonparametric tests are often used with data that does not follow the normal distribution, and which uses ranks or other values for the data (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). The McNemar test is a nonparametric test, which tests for changes in responses of related dichotomous variables from repeated measures designs using the chi-square distribution (Statistical Packet for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Inc., 2001). The Bowker test extends the number of variables beyond dichotomous variables, as long as the row and column variables have the same number of levels (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988)

The fearful and preoccupied attachments were combined due to the low frequencies in each cell from the low sample size of each category. The attachment orientation data used for this comparison were categorical, which is appropriate for the Bowker test (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). The Bowker test is an omnibus test of internal change with independent related variables such as repeated measures (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). The assumption for the Bowker test is independence of observations (D. Morse, personal communication, January 31, 2006). As the results of one RQ are independent of the results of another RQ, and the results of one participant are independent of the results of another participant, this assumption was met.

Three additional Bowker tests were performed on the RQ data to determine the pattern of change over time (e.g., question five). For each test the observations of two RQ administrations were compared. Thus the beginning of semester and midsemester phases, the midsemester and end of semester phases, and the beginning of semester and end of semester phases were compared. The data were categorical and from repeated measures, which is appropriate for use with the Bowker test (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). The observer independence was assumed as one participant's scores should not have had an effect on other participant's scores, and one administration of the RQ did not determine the results of another administration of the RQ. Three additional Stuart-Maxwell tests were performed on the RQ data to determine the pattern of change over time. For each test, the frequencies of two RQ administrations were compared. Thus the beginning of semester and midsemester phases, the midsemester and end of semester phases, and the beginning of semester and end of semester phases were compared. The data were categorical, and related, as the design was repeated measures, and one participant could have chosen different attachment orientations for each RQ administration. This type of related are appropriate for the Stuart-Maxwell test (Uebersax, 2000). The observer independence was assumed as one participant's scores should not have had an effect on the other participant's scores.

In order to determine where movements from one attachment orientation to another occurred between RQ administrations, four crosstabs were run on the data, one for each of the four attachment orientations. Crosstabs calculated the frequencies for each

attachment orientation in relation to each RQ administration. A visual examination then determined where the frequencies changed indicating changes in attachment orientation.

Stuart-Maxwell Tests

When Bowker tests revealed significance, Stuart-Maxwell tests were performed using The MH Program (Uebersax, 2000). Stuart-Maxwell tests are also McNemar extensions, and measure the change in frequencies from row to column in variables. Thus Bowker would reveal specific cell frequency changes, and Stuart-Maxwell would reveal changes in frequencies within attachment orientations.

The Stuart-Maxwell test is a nonparametric test which is an extension of the McNemar test. The McNemar test is a nonparametric test, which tests for changes in responses of related dichotomous variables from repeated measures designs using the chi-square distribution (Statistical Packet for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Inc., 2001). The Stuart-Maxwell test extends the number of variables beyond dichotomous variables, as long as the row and column variables have the same number of levels (Uebersax, 2000).

The fearful and preoccupied attachments were combined in order to provide the Stuart-Maxwell with a 3 (RQ administration) x 3 (attachment orientation) square. The data used for this comparison was categorical, attachment orientation and level of supervisee, which is appropriate for the Stuart-Maxwell test, as categorical or nominal data may be used to determine if the frequencies of one category (attachment) do not differ significantly between the row and column variables, or expected frequencies (Uebersax, 2000). The assumption for the Stuart-Maxwell test is independence of observations (D. Morse, personal communication, January 31, 2006). As the results of one RQ are

independent of the results of another RQ, and the results of one participant are independent of the results of another participant, this assumption was met.

Chi-Square Tests

Three two-way design Chi-square tests were performed, to determine if there were significant differences in frequencies between experience levels of supervisee for each of the Relationship Questionnaires (e.g., question three). Chi-square tests of independence were used to determine if the two independent variables (e.g., level of supervisee and attachment orientation) were independent of each other. Chi-square tests utilize categorical data often in the form of frequency counts (Ruiz-Primo et al., 1981). Participants can only appear in one category of each independent variable, therefore the levels of supervisee experience were compared to one administration of the RQ at a time. Ruiz-Primo et al. (1981) defined three assumptions for Chi-square tests with more than 2 degrees of freedom: (1) independence of observations, (2) frequencies of dependent (observations) variable, and (3) expected frequency minimums. The independence of observations assumption was met as one participant's experience level or attachment orientation were not dependent on another participant's experience level or attachment orientation. The second assumption states that the observations are reported in frequencies. The data used in the Chi-square tests were reported as frequencies. The final assumption is that the expected frequency for each category (with the degrees of freedom ≥ 2) is not less than five. This assumption was violated, as 3 cells in the Chi-square comparing level and the first RQ, and 6 cells in the Chi-square tests comparing level and the second and third RQ administrations had expected frequencies that were below five.

Due to the distribution of the data, combining attachment orientations would not have been productive, as all of the low frequencies would not have been eliminated. In addition, combining the attachment orientations would adversely impact the ability to answer the research question.

Instrumentation

Relationship Questionnaire

The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) is an adult attachment self-report measure developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). Their model of attachment consists of the model of self and the model of others. In other words, how the participant views themselves (e.g. worthy of love), and others (e.g. trustful). The RQ measures four attachment styles based on the two dimensions of the attachment model. Each attachment orientation is described in one of brief statements with seven-point scales underneath the statements (7 = very much like me, 1 = not at all like me). Participants rate themselves on the four attachment orientations.

In this study, the name of the questionnaire was changed to “Supervision Relationship Questionnaire” in order to specify the supervision relationship. Bartholomew (personal communication, November 23 1995, as cited in Stein et al., 1998) stated that the directions can be modified for other close relationships. In the initial packet, participants were instructed to type the number that best describes the degree to which the statement is like the participant. as well as type the number of the paragraph that sounds most like them (Searle & Meara, 1999). In the second and third packets, the

wording of the RQ was changed to indicate the supervisory relationship specifically in order to differentiate between the supervision relationship and other significant relationships in the participant's life at the time of the study. Additionally, the participants were asked to type the number of the paragraph which is most like their relationship with their supervisor. The attachment orientation paragraph stated by the participant to be the most like them was assigned as that participant's attachment orientation. Each packet includes an RQ, thus a participant may have chosen different attachment orientations for each packet.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) acknowledged the fact that many participants may show elements of more than one attachment style. Therefore, for each of the packets, the participants were asked to type the number of the paragraph which best described them (packet one) or their relationship with their supervisor (packets two and three). For continuity purposes the same procedures were used to identify the participant's attachment orientation in this present study, even when it was different from what the participant completed in the RQ. When participants did not answer the last question on the instrument, the numbers next to the paragraphs were used to identify the participant's attachment orientation. In the event that there was a tie in the RQ paragraphs, and the participant did not specify a paragraph, the participant was requested to choose a paragraph through an additional e-mail. This additional e-mail was sent upon receipt of the completed packet.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) developed and validated the Relationship Questionnaire in two multi-dimensional studies. Each study utilized participant

interviews and self-report instruments. The initial study also utilized friend interviews and friend-report instruments based on the participant. Results of the initial study indicated 47% of the participants endorsed a Secure orientation, 21% were Fearful, 18% were Dismissing, and 14% were Preoccupied.

During the initial study, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) reported alpha coefficients for the Relationship Questionnaire ranging from .87 to .95 for each of the four attachment orientations. Each of the different measures used to assess attachment reported similar results in attachment orientations. Friend and personal reports were consistent in describing interpersonal problems. Herzberg, Hammen, Burge, Daley, Davila, & Lindberg (1999) administered the RQ at 3 and 4-year intervals to 129 female adolescents in their study of attachment and perceptions of emotional support. The data from the 3-year administration were used to test the research hypothesis, while the data from the 4-year administration were used to assess test-retest correlations. These correlations averaged .53, with a range from .44 to .68. Similar correlations were reported by Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) at an 8-month follow-up. These results are lower than the recommended correlation of .80 for test-retest reliabilities (Bernard, 2000). However, it has been hypothesized that attachment orientation can change over time and in different situations (Roisman, Padron, Sroufe, & Egeland, 2002). As one of the hypotheses of this study is that attachment orientations change as a counselor-in-training is exposed to more experiences, the low correlation is expected.

While some researchers consider assessing adult attachment orientations to be more effective using a multi-dimensional, multiple assessment approach (e.g., interviews,

self-reports, parent-reports, and friend-reports) (Bell, 1998; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1987), other researchers have found similar results between the RQ and other attachment assessment instruments (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998).

The Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory

The Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI) was developed by Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990) to measure the perceived strength of the supervisory relationship from the perspective of the supervisor and supervisee. As this study is focusing on the supervisee, only the supervisee form of the SWAI was used. The supervisee form is divided into the factors of working alliance rapport and client focus. Rapport is defined as “the trainee’s perception of support from the supervisor” (p. 325) and equivalent to Bordin’s (1983) bond element in supervision. Client focus is defined as “the emphasis the supervisors placed on promoting the trainees’ understanding of the client” (p. 325). The researcher chose to focus solely on the Rapport scale, as this study is concentrating on the supervisee’s perceived bond with the supervisor. Only the Rapport scale was administered to the participants.

The SWAI is a self-report 19-item instrument (12 items relate to Rapport). The participant is asked to rate each statement on a scale from 1 to 7 (7 = almost always, 1 = almost never). The average of the total scores of the rapport factor is used as the working alliance rapport score. If item is not completed in the working alliance rapport section, the mean of the other 11 scores may be used as the missing score. However, more than one missing score may disrupt the overall working alliance rapport score. For this study,

if one score was missing, the mean was substituted. If a participant failed to complete more than one score, the working alliance rapport results were eliminated from the statistical analysis.

Efstation, Patton and Kardash (1990) developed and validated the SWAI utilizing a two-step process. The items were developed by 10 experienced supervisors working at an American Psychological Association-approved university counseling center. The supervisors generated lists of activities attributed to supervisors and supervisees during the supervision process. The second step of the process was to administer the SWAI to supervisors and supervisees throughout the United States. The mean score for supervisee Rapport was 5.85 ($SD = 0.83$), while the alpha coefficient was .90. Correlations with the Supervisory Styles Inventory for the supervisee Rapport scale ranged from .44 to .77.

Procedures for Data Collection

Participants

The sample for this study included 117 master's level counseling students (102 females) at the entry (34), practicum (45), and internship (38) experience levels, attending CACREP accredited programs at southern, eastern, and midwestern universities. The entry level of experience involved students taking a beginning counseling skills (or equivalent) class. Students entering practicum were the second level. The highest level of experience included students entering a counseling internship. The participants were enrolled in community (23), school (70), student development (9), rehabilitation (7), marriage and family (4), mental health (3) and college counseling (1)

programs, and were receiving counseling supervision. Participants' ages ranged from 22 to 54, with a median of 25, a mean of 27.83 and a standard deviation of 7.52. One participant chose not to complete the age information. The majority of the students (69%) were between the ages of 22 and 27. Participants identified themselves as African American (14), Asian American (2), Caucasian (79), and Latino (22).

All appropriate university officials and professors were contacted to request participation. Professors who agreed to participate received an e-mail packet describing the procedures which included a flyer for the students and a participation form for students agreeing to participate (Appendix A). Professors distributed description flyers to the students, and asked all students wishing to participate to write their email on the participation form. Professors were then requested to e-mail, fax, or mail the form. All instruments to participants were administered by e-mail. As an incentive to complete all three packets, a raffle for participants was conducted. The raffle winners were also notified by email, and identified only by their e-mail addresses. It took approximately 15 minutes for participants to read the attached letter and to complete each e-mail packet.

Sampling Procedures

This study was conducted with the approval of the Institutional Review Board of Mississippi State University, and with the approval of the other universities involved. All ethical guidelines of the American Counseling Association (2005) were followed. Upon receipt of the e-mail addresses from participating professors, an informed consent letter was e-mailed to all potential participants. When the consent letter was returned the first packet was e-mailed (Appendix A). If the consent letter was not returned within 5 days,

potential participants were sent the consent letter up to 2 more times. The first packet included a letter to participants, a personal information sheet, and the RQ (Appendix A). The two end of semester packets included an attached letter to participants, the Supervision Relationship Questionnaire, and the SWAI (Appendix A). The last packet also included a question related to the impact of the supervision relationship on the participant's life.

As many of the students may not have met with their supervisors during the first few weeks of classes, the SWAI was eliminated from the pre-packet. It is hypothesized that within 1 week to 10 days the supervisory relationship would remain similar, thus packets completed within 7 to 10 days of the initial e-mail were included in the study. One reminder e-mail was sent by day 4 if a participant has not returned the instruments, and an additional reminder e-mail was sent on day 6 if the packet had not been returned. All returned packets were completed within 7-10 days of the initial e-mail.

Participants were informed of the purpose of the research through the consent letter that was included in packet one (Appendix A). The letter included information regarding student's voluntary participation. Because the research was conducted over time, participants were asked to complete a researcher developed demographic sheet to include their email in order to link all packets (Appendix A). The extra precaution of the written e-mail was included in the event that a student had one e-mail account forwarded to another, and the address on the returned e-mail did not match the information from the participation form. Once the completed data were entered into a data base, the linking data were removed from the packets, and any hard copies were shredded. Students were

informed that there was a drawing for three \$50.00 Amazon.com gift certificates upon the completion of the research. Participants completing and returning one packet had one ticket placed in the drawings. Participants completing and returning two packets had two tickets placed in the raffle. Participants completing all three packets had six tickets placed in the raffle. All raffle winners were notified through e-mail by Amazon.com.

Data were collected over the course of two semesters, Spring 2005 and Fall 2005. In the Spring of 2005, participating professors sent 168 e-mail addresses of students agreeing to participate in this study to the researcher. One hundred and thirteen (67.3%) of these participants returned the consent form. Ninety-nine participants (87.6%) returned a completed first packet. Eighty-eight (88.9%) returned the second packet, and 77 (87.5%) returned the final packet. For the Fall 2005 collection, 92 initial e-mail addresses were received. Of the 92, 51 (55.4%) returned the consent. Forty-six (90.2%) returned the first packet. Of those 46, 42 (91.3%) completed the second packet. There were 40 (95.2%) final packets completed. Thus, there were a 117 participants who completed all three packets during the two semesters of data collection.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between supervisee attachment orientations and the perceived rapport of the working alliance within and between entry, practicum and internship level master's counseling students. There were six questions in this study:

1. What is the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and supervisee perceived rapport of the working alliance?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientation within each level of supervisee over time?
3. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time?
5. Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time?
6. Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees?

Question Numbers One and Four

What is the relationship between supervisee attachment orientation and supervisee perceived rapport of the working alliance? Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time? A Two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the relationship of perceived working alliance rapport with attachment and level for the midsemester administration of the instruments. One participant chose not to answer two of the working alliance rapport items and was eliminated from this analysis. The results for the midsemester administration of the instruments indicated no statistically significant difference between level of supervisee and perceived working alliance rapport scores, $F(2, 116) = .702, p = .498$, and the interaction of level of supervisee and attachment orientation as they relate to working alliance rapport scores, $F(6, 116) = .669, p = .675$. However, the results for attachment orientation and working alliance rapport scores were statistically significant, $F = 10.282(3, 116) p = .000, \eta_p^2 = 0.229$. Thus, 22.9% of the variance in working alliance rapport scores can be attributed to supervisee attachment orientation at the midsemester administration of instruments.

Table 4.1 Factorial ANOVA Statistics - Midsemester

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Level of Supervisee	1.014	2	.507	.702	.489	.013
RQ2	22.271	3	7.424	10.282	.000	.229
Level * RQ2	2.898	6	.483	.669	.675	.037

Alpha = .05

Due to this significance, a Tukey HSD post hoc test was used to find the specific significant differences. There was no statistically significant difference in working alliance rapport scores between preoccupied ($n = 7$, $M = 4.345$) and fearful ($n = 8$, $M = 4.854$), $p = .665$, and between dismissing ($n = 27$, $M = 5.380$) and fearful, $p = .420$. There were statistically significant differences in working alliance rapport scores between the secure attachment orientation ($n = 74$, $M = 6.029$) and preoccupied, $p = .000$, between secure and fearful, $p = .002$, between secure and dismissing, $p = .005$, and between the dismissing orientation and preoccupied, $p = .025$.

Table 4.2 Tukey HSD Statistics - Midsemester

(I) RQ2	(J) RQ2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Secure (M = 6.029)	Dismissing	.650	.191	.005	.151	1.149
	Preoccupied	1.684	.336	.000	.807	2.561
	Fearful	1.175	.316	.002	.350	2.001
Dismissing (M = 5.380)	Secure	-.650	.191	.005	-1.149	-.151
	Preoccupied	1.034	.360	.025	.093	1.975
	Fearful	.526	.342	.420	-.368	1.419
Preoccupied (M = 4.345)	Secure	-1.684	.336	.000	-2.651	-.807
	Dismissing	-1.034	.360	.025	-1.975	-.093
	Fearful	-.509	.440	.655	-1.657	.639
Fearful (M = 4.854)	Secure	-1.175	.316	.002	-2.001	-.349
	Dismissing	-.526	.342	.420	-1.419	.368
	Preoccupied	.509	.440	.655	-.639	1.657

Alpha = .05

A second Two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the relationship of perceived working alliance rapport with attachment and level for the end of semester administration of the instruments. The results for the midsemester administration of the instruments indicated no statistically significant difference between level of supervisee and perceived working alliance rapport scores, $F = .1240 (2, 117) p = .294$, and the interaction of level of supervisee and attachment orientation as they relate to working alliance rapport scores, $F = 2.168 (6, 117) p = .2168$. However, the results for attachment orientation and working alliance rapport scores were statistically significant, $F = 4.626 (3, 117) p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.116$. Thus only 11.6% of the variance in working alliance rapport scores can be attributed to the supervisee's attachment orientation.

Table 4.3 Factorial ANOVA Statistics – End of Semester

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Level of Supervisee	1.740	2	.870	1.240	.294	.023
RQ3	9.739	3	3.246	4.626	.004	.116
Level * RQ3	7.607	6	1.521	.702	.063	.093

Alpha = .05

Due to this significance, a Tukey HSD post hoc test was used to find the specific significant differences in attachment orientation frequencies and working alliance rapport scores. There were no statistically significant differences between preoccupied ($n = 3$, $M = 4.750$) and secure ($n = 70$, $M = 5.976$, $p = .068$), dismissing ($n = 36$, $M = 5.500$, $p =$

.447), or fearful ($n = 8$, $M = 5.042$, $p = .956$). There were also no statistically significant differences between dismissing and fearful attachment orientations, $p = .502$. There were statistically significant differences between secure and dismissing, $p = .033$, as well as secure and fearful, $p = .018$.

Table 4.4 Tukey HSD Statistics – End of Semester

(I) RQ3	(J) RQ3	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Secure (M = 5.977)	Dismissing	.477	.172	.033	.028	.925
	Preoccupied	1.227	.494	.068	-.063	2.516
	Fearful	.935	.313	.018	.119	1.751
Dismissing (M = 5.500)	Secure	-.477	.172	.033	-.925	-.028
	Preoccupied	.750	.503	.447	-.564	2.064
	Fearful	.458	.327	.502	-.396	1.313
Preoccupied (M = 4.750)	Secure	-1.227	.494	.068	-2.516	.063
	Dismissing	-.750	.503	.447	-2.064	.564
	Fearful	-.293	.567	.956	-1.772	1.189
Fearful (M = 5.042)	Secure	-.935	.313	.018	-1.751	-.119
	Dismissing	-.458	.327	.502	-1.313	.396
	Preoccupied	.292	.567	.956	-1.189	1.771

Alpha = .05

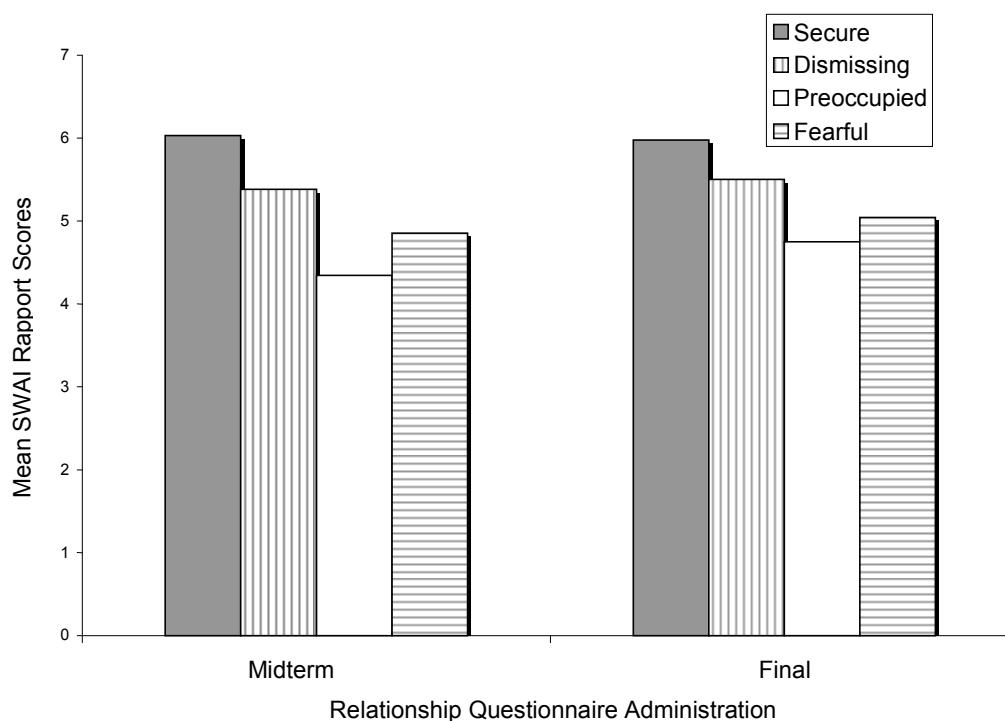


Figure 4.1 Supervisee Working Alliance Rapport Scores by Attachment Relationship Orientation

Question Number Two

Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientation within each level of supervisee over time? Nine Bowker's Extensions of the McNemar Test were performed using Bowker2 (2003) to determine the proportions of change in attachment orientations within the levels of supervisee over time. The Bowker test is a nonparametric test which is an extension of the McNemar test, testing all possible McNemar tables (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). The McNemar test is a nonparametric test, which tests for changes in responses of related dichotomous variables from repeated measures designs using the chi-square distribution (Statistical Packet for the Social

Sciences (SPSS) Inc., 2001). The Bowker test extends the number of variables beyond dichotomous variables, as long as the row and column variables have the same number of levels (Marascuilo & Serlin, 1988). Three Bowker tests were performed for each level of supervisee, comparing the first (RQ1) and second (RQ2) administrations of the Relationship Questionnaire, the second and third (RQ3) administrations, and the first and third administrations. Due to the small cell size, the preoccupied and fearful attachment orientations were combined, producing a 3x3 table, and the significance value was lowered to .01 to reduce Type I error. Frequencies for attachment by level for RQ1 x RQ2 are displayed in Table 4.5. Frequencies for attachment by level for RQ2 x RQ3 are displayed in Table 4.6. Frequencies for attachment by level for RQ1 x RQ3 are displayed in Table 4.7.

The Bowker tests for the entry level counselors-in-training, showed no significances. For the first Bowker, comparing RQ1 and RQ2, $Q_B = 2.800 (3)$, $p = 0.4235$. Thus the table was symmetric, and there were not significant changes in cell frequencies for attachment style from RQ1 to RQ2. The second Bowker test, comparing RQ2 and RQ3 had a $Q_B = 4.500 (3)$, $p = 0.212$, identifying no statistically significant change between cell frequencies, or attachment styles from RQ2 to RQ3. For the third Bowker test, comparing RQ1 to RQ3, $Q_B = 4.467 (3)$, $p = 0.215$, thus there was no statistically significant change in the frequencies of cells between the two administrations of the RQs.

The Bowker tests for the practicum level counselors-in-training found statistical significance for the RQ1 and RQ3 comparisons. No other statistical significances were found. The first Bowker test, had a $Q_B = 8.038 (3), p = 0.045$. The second Bowker test comparing RQ2 and RQ3 was also not statistically significant, $Q_B = 3.333 (3), p = 0.343$. Thus, for practicum students, the Bowker tables for the first and second tests were symmetric, and there was little frequency cell change between RQ1 and RQ2, as well as RQ 2 and RQ 3. The third Bowker test comparing the administrations of RQ1 and RQ3 was statistically significant, $Q_B = 13.371 (3), p = 0.004$. Thus, the table for RQ1 and RQ3 was asymmetrical, and there was change between cells. There was no statistical significance between attachment orientations, secure with dismissing ($Z^2 = 3.571, p = .3116$), secure with preoccupied/fearful ($Z^2 = 1.800, p = .6114$), or dismissing and preoccupied/fearful ($Z^2 = 8.00, p = 0.046$). A Stuart-Maxwell was used to determine statistically significant differences in frequencies within attachment orientations. The Stuart-Maxwell found significant differences between the dismissing ($Z^2 = -3.356, p < .01$) attachment frequencies between RQ1 ($n = 4$) and RQ3 ($n = 13$), and between the preoccupied/fearful ($Z^2 = 3.051, p < .01$) attachment frequencies of the RQ1 ($n = 13$) and RQ3 ($n = 2$). Thus, there were more dismissing attachments and fewer fearful/preoccupied attachments for the third administration of the Relationship Questionnaire in the practicum level supervisee.

The Bowker tests for symmetry for the internship level counselors-in-training found no statistical significances. The first test, comparing RQ1 and RQ2 had a $Q_B = 4.00 (3), p = 0.2615$. The second Bowker test for the internship level which compared RQ2

and RQ3 had a $Q_B = 3.143 (3), p = 0.370$. The third Bowker test comparing RQ1 and RQ3 had a $Q_B = 5.533 (3), p = 0.137$. Thus the tables were symmetric, and there were no statistically significant changes in cell, thus no statistically significant changes in attachment orientation in the internship level over time.

Table 4.5 Attachment Orientation by Level and RQ1 x RQ2

Attachment and Level For RQ1	Secure for RQ2	Dismissing for RQ2	Preoccupied/Fearful for RQ2	Total for RQ1
Entry				
Secure	11	3	3	17
Dismissing	3	2	1	6
Preoccupied/Fearful	6	4	1	11
Total	20	9	5	36
Practicum				
Secure	23	4	1	28
Dismissing	1	2	1	4
Preoccupied/Fearful	5	6	2	13
Total	29	12	4	45
Internship				
Secure	16	2	2	20
Dismissing	3	1	1	5
Preoccupied/Fearful	6	4	3	13
Total	25	7	6	38
All				
Secure	50	9	6	65
Dismissing	7	5	3	15
Preoccupied/Fearful	17	14	6	37
Total	74	28	15	117

Table 4.6 Attachment Orientation by Level and RQ2 x RQ3

Attachment and Level For RQ2	Secure for RQ3	Dismissing for RQ3	Preoccupied/Fearful for RQ3	Total for RQ2
Entry				
Secure	15	5	0	20
Dismissing	3	3	3	9
Preoccupied/Fearful	3	1	1	5
Total	21	9	4	34
Practicum				
Secure	22	6	1	29
Dismissing	2	10	0	12
Preoccupied/Fearful	2	1	1	4
Total	26	17	2	45
Internship				
Secure	20	4	1	25
Dismissing	3	4	0	7
Preoccupied/Fearful	0	2	4	6
Total	23	10	5	38
All				
Secure	57	15	2	74
Dismissing	8	17	3	28
Preoccupied/Fearful	5	4	6	15
Total	70	36	11	117

Table 4.7 Attachment Orientation by Level and RQ1 x RQ3

Attachment and Level For RQ1	Secure for RQ3	Dismissing for RQ3	Preoccupied/Fearful for RQ3	Total for RQ1
Entry				
Secure	14	2	1	17
Dismissing	2	3	1	6
Preoccupied/Fearful	5	4	2	11
Total	21	9	4	34
Practicum				
Secure	21	6	1	28
Dismissing	1	3	0	4
Preoccupied/Fearful	4	8	1	13
Total	26	17	2	45
Internship				
Secure	16	3	1	20
Dismissing	2	2	1	5
Preoccupied/Fearful	5	5	3	13
Total	23	10	5	38
All				
Secure	51	11	3	65
Dismissing	5	8	2	15
Preoccupied/Fearful	14	17	6	37
Total	70	36	11	117

Question Number Three

Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time? In order to determine if there were significant differences in frequencies between the levels of supervisee for each of the Relationship Questionnaires, three Chi-Square tests were performed, one for each administration of the Relationship Questionnaire. There were no statistically significant differences in frequencies between levels of supervisee for the any of the Relationship Questionnaires. The Pearson Chi-Square value for the first RQ was 4.443, $p = .617$. The Pearson Chi-Square value for the second RQ was 7.920, $p = .244$. The Pearson Chi-Square value for the third RQ was 4.111, $p = .662$. Thus, there was no relationship between the level of supervisee and attachment orientation. Frequencies of attachment orientation by level for each administration of the RQ are in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Frequencies of Attachment by Level and RQ

Relationship Questionnaire/ Level of Supervisee	Secure	Dismissing	Preoccupied	Fearful
RQ1				
Entry	17	6	5	6
Practicum	28	4	4	9
Internship	20	5	8	5
RQ2				
Entry	20	9	1	4
Practicum	29	12	1	3
Internship	25	7	5	1
RQ3				
Entry	21	9	1	3
Practicum	26	17	0	2
Internship	23	10	2	3

Question Number Five

Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time? Three Bowker tests of symmetry were performed using SAS 9.1 (SAS Institute Inc., 2002) to determine if there was any significant change between administrations of the RQ over time. The first test compared the first (RQ1) and second (RQ2) administrations of the RQ. The second test compared the second and third (RQ3) administrations of the RQ. The third test compared the first and third administrations of the RQ.

The first Bowker test comparing the cells of RQ1 and RQ2 was statistically significant ($Q_B = 13.523 (6), p = .035$). A Stuart-Maxwell was used to determine the specific frequency changes of attachment orientations. The test revealed no statistically significant differences in the frequencies of secure attachment between the first ($n = 65$) and second ($n = 74$) RQ administrations, $X^2 = 2.077, p = .1495$. However there were statistically significant differences in the frequencies of dismissing attachment between the first ($n = 15$) and second ($n = 28$) administrations, $X^2 = 5.121, p = .0236$, in preoccupied attachment between the first ($n = 17$) and second ($n = 7$) RQs, $X^2 = 5.556, p = .0184$, and in fearful attachment between the first ($n = 20$) and second ($n = 8$) administrations, $X^2 = 5.538, p = .0186$. Thus, the change between the first and second administrations took place within the insecure attachment orientations.

The second Bowker test comparing RQ2 and RQ3 revealed no statistically significant differences ($Q_B = 6.130 (6), p = 0.409$). Thus, there were no statistically significant changes in cells from the second to the third administrations.

The third Bowker test comparing RQ1 and RQ3 was statistically significant ($Q_B = 24.6522$ (6), $p = 0.0004$). The third Stuart-Maxwell test, conducted on the data from the first and third administrations of the RQ, had a Bonferroni adjusted significance of .017. There were no statistically significant differences in frequencies for secure, $X^2 = .758$, $p = .3841$ or fearful, $X^2 = 5.538$, $p = .0186$ attachment orientations. There were statistically significant differences in frequencies for the dismissing, $X^2 = 12.600$, $p = .0004$, and preoccupied, $X^2 = 12.250$, $p = .0005$ attachment orientations.

In order to determine the actual change in attachment orientation over time, four crosstabs were run, one for each attachment orientation. Of the 65 supervisees who were securely attached in the first administration, 51 remained secure for the third administration, 11 moved to dismissing, 1 moved toward preoccupied, and 2 moved toward fearful. Table 4.9 displays frequency changes from RQ1 to RQ2 and RQ3 for the secure attachment orientation. Table 4.10 displays frequency changes from RQ1 to RQ2 and RQ3 for the dismissing attachment orientation. Table 4.11 presents frequency changes from RQ1 to RQ2 and RQ3 for the preoccupied attachment orientation. Table 4.12 displays frequency changes from RQ1 to RQ2 and RQ3 for the fearful attachment orientation.

Table 4.9 Change of Secure Attachment Orientation From RQ1 Over Time

Instrument	Stayed Secure	Moved to Dismissing	Moved to Preoccupied	Moved to Fearful
RQ2	50	9	3	3
RQ3	51	11	1	2

RQ1 n = 65

Table 4.10 Change of Dismissing Attachment Orientation From RQ 1 Over Time

Instrument	Moved to Secure	Stayed Dismissing	Moved to Preoccupied	Moved to Fearful
RQ2	7	5	0	3
RQ3	5	8	0	2

RQ1 n = 15

Table 4.11 Change of Preoccupied Attachment Orientation From RQ 1 Over Time

Instrument	Moved to Secure	Moved to Dismissing	Stayed Preoccupied	Moved to Fearful
RQ2	8	5	3	1
RQ3	6	6	2	3

RQ1 n = 17

Table 4.12 Change of Fearful Attachment Orientation From RQ 1 Over Time

Instrument	Moved to Secure	Moved to Dismissing	Moved to Preoccupied	Stayed Fearful
RQ2	9	9	1	1
RQ3	8	11	0	1

RQ1 n = 20

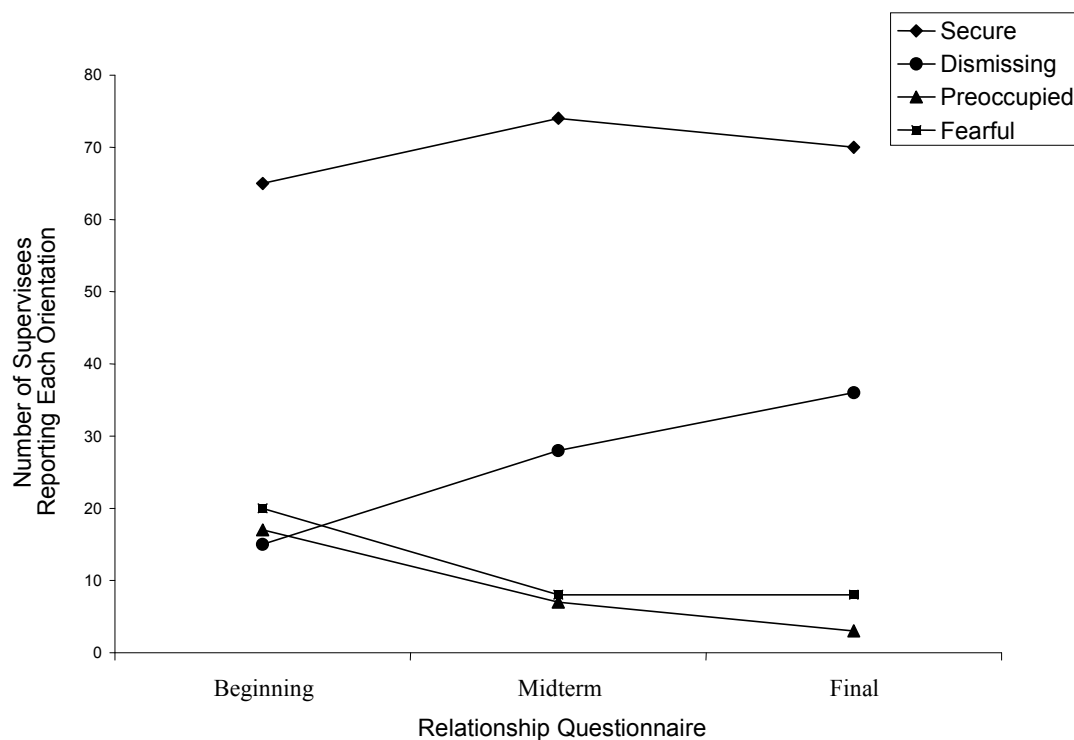


Figure 4.2 Supervisee Self Perception of Change in Attachment Relationship to Supervisor Over Semester

Question Number Six

Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees? Students rated the importance of the supervision through the rating of the question, “How impactful has the relationship with your supervisor been at this time in your life?” on a 1-7 scale (1 = not impactful, 7 = very impactful). Four participants chose not to complete the impact question. Of the 113 participants who completed this question, 74 (65%) chose 5, 6, or 7. Thus, the majority of supervisees believed that the supervision relationship had an impact on their life. Frequencies of the impact question are in table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Frequencies of Perceived Supervision Impact on Supervisees' Lives

Level of Impact	Frequency	Percent
1	5	4.4
2	6	5.3
3	12	10.6
4	16	14.2
5	28	24.8
6	36	31.9
7	10	8.8

n = 113

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter is a summary of the first four chapters of the study. Limitations, implications, and recommendations for further research based on the conclusions from the results of this research are also provided.

Summary

Attachment theory, developed by Bowlby (1973; 1982; 1988) and Ainsworth (1967; 1991; 1970) describes behavioral patterns learned by the infant as a result of the primary caregiver's reactions and care of the child. These patterns of attachment, while developed in childhood, extend to important adult relationships (Ainsworth, 1991; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bowlby, 1982). Important relationships include relationships which are emotionally intimate, have meaning for the individual, where change takes place, or where there might be a power differential (Ainsworth & Marvin, 1995; Bordin, 1983; Bowlby, 1973). These relationships may include romantic relationships, friendships, or supervision relationships. During these important relationships, securely attached individuals have positive perceptions of themselves and others, are warm and caring, and welcome emotional intimacy. Insecurely attached adults may have negative perceptions of themselves or others and either avoid intimacy or inappropriately display intimacy.

Counseling supervision may be considered an intimate relationship due to the bond of the working alliance and the breaking down and building up of this alliance (Bordin, 1983). The intimate nature of counseling supervision relationships may bring forth early attachment behaviors (Pistole & Watkins, 1995; Watkins, 1995). Often supervision is the first time childhood attachment issues are triggered in a master's program, because supervision is often the first time students have one-to-one relationships during their training. Counselors who display insecure attachment patterns may become overly dependent on their supervisor or place themselves at an emotional distance from the supervisor. Thus, attachment behaviors may hinder the supervision process.

The present study was designed to examine the relationship between supervisee attachment orientations, perceived working alliance rapport of the working alliance, and level of counselor-in-training (e.g., Entry, Practicum, and Internship) over the course of the semester. The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) was used to assess the pre-supervision attachment style of the supervisee. The RQ is based on Bowlby's two dimensions of attachment, the internal working model of self (positive or negative) and the internal working model of others (positive or negative). These models of self and others correspond to the four adult attachment orientations used in the RQ: (a) Secure (i.e., positive models of self and others), (b) Dismissing (i.e., positive model of self, negative model of others), (c) Preoccupied (i.e., negative model of self, positive model of others), and (d) Fearful (i.e., negative models of self and others). The RQ was then modified to be more specific to the

supervision relationship and was used to assess the midsemester and end of semester supervision attachment orientations of the supervisees. Additionally, the Rapport Scale of the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory (SWAI), developed by Efstation, Patton, and Kardash (1990), was used to measure the supervisee's perceived strength of working alliance rapport with the supervisor.

The participants for this study were 117 master's level counseling students (102 female) at the entry (34), practicum (45), and internship (38) experience levels. Participants completed e-mail research packets. The first packet was completed within the first month of the semester, the second packet was completed within a week of midterms, and the third packet was completed within a week of final exams. Two, Two-way Factorial Analysis of Variance were used to examine the relationship of perceived working alliance rapport with attachment and level of supervisee for the midsemester and end of semester administrations of instruments. Twelve Bowker tests of symmetry were used to examine attachment orientation within each level of supervisee and Three Bowker tests were used to examine the change in attachment orientation over time. Additionally, three Chi-Square tests were used to determine if there were any significant differences in frequencies between the levels of supervisee for each of the RQs. There were six questions addressed in this study:

1. What is the relationship between supervisee attachment orientations and supervisee perceived working alliance rapport?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations within each level of supervisee over time?

3. Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time?
5. Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientations over time?
6. Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees?

Overview of Findings

The analysis of the data were used to answer the six research questions. The results of the analysis were significant in relation to a number of the research questions. The results of each research question are explained in this section.

Research Question Number One

Is there a relationship between supervisee attachment orientations and supervisee perceived rapport of the working alliance? The two-way factorial ANOVA resulted in statistically significant differences in working alliance rapport scores between attachment orientations for the midsemester and end of semester administration of the RQ and SWAI instruments. During the midsemester administration, securely attached supervisees rated the working alliance rapport with their supervisor significantly higher than did insecurely attached supervisees. Additionally, dismissing attached supervisees' working alliance rapport scores were significantly higher than the working alliance rapport scores of preoccupied supervisees. The end of semester administration of instruments revealed

statistically significantly higher working alliance rapport scores for securely attached supervisees than dismissing and fearful attached supervisees. Thus, according to these findings, there is a relationship between working alliance rapport scores and supervisee attachment orientation. Descriptively, securely attached supervisees tend to rate perceived working alliance rapport higher than insecurely attached supervisees, dismissing attached supervisees tend to have higher working alliance rapport scores than preoccupied or fearful supervisees, and fearful supervisees tend to have higher working alliance rapport scores than preoccupied supervisees.

One possible explanation for these differences is that securely attached adults have more emotionally intimate relationships than insecurely attached adults, due to their positive model of self and others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Thus, the securely attached supervisees would welcome input from supervisors, be invested in the working alliance, and have more appropriate relationship boundaries (Bordin, 1983; Pistole & Watkins, 1995). Furthermore, securely attached supervisees would participate in the building up and breaking down of the working alliance, and as a result of that process, would feel a stronger and more emotionally connected working alliance rapport with their supervisor.

Supervisees who indicated a dismissing attachment had a positive model of self and a negative model of their supervisor. This model of self and others indicates that dismissing supervisees would not be invested in the supervision working alliance, may ignore critical feedback due to the lack of trust in the supervisor because of overconfidence in themselves, and not participate in the building up and breaking down

of the supervision working alliance. These relationship building experiences according to Borden (1983) are the foundations of the supervision working alliance. Borden postulates that without these experiences, a weak supervision working alliance, and thus less effective supervision, will result. Due to the lack of working alliance and lack of trust, dismissing supervisees may rate working alliance rapport lower than securely attached supervisees. However, dismissing supervisees devalue the need for a supervision relationship and are not emotionally tied to the supervisor. Thus, dismissing supervisees would tend to rate the overall working alliance rapport higher than other insecurely attached supervisees, as dismissive individuals do not require intimacy, and therefore, tend to perceive the supervisory relationship as acceptable.

Since the model of self and others for preoccupied attachment is the exact opposite of the dismissing attachment model, these supervisees would be excessively invested in the supervision working alliance. As the majority of supervisors are securely attached, the boundaries imposed on preoccupied supervisees by their supervisors may be interpreted as rejecting. Therefore it is conceivable that preoccupied supervisees would rate the supervision working alliance rapport lower than all other attached supervisees.

Supervisees with fearful attachments have a negative model of self and their supervisor. Fearful supervisees want to be emotionally close to their supervisors but are afraid of the intimacy of the working alliance. This emotional tug-of-war within themselves places them between the dismissing attachment (avoiding intimacy) and the preoccupied attachment (wanting intimacy) orientations. As a result, fearful attached

supervisees would rate supervision working alliance rapport lower than secure and dismissing attached supervisees due to the lack of wanted intimacy. Conversely, fearful attached supervisees would rate rapport higher than preoccupied supervisees because the supervisor may not be seen as actively rejecting the supervisee.

Research Question Number Two

Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations within each level of supervisee over time? The results of the Bowker's tests of symmetry for each of the levels of supervisee found no significant difference in the cells of attachment orientations over time within entry and internship level counselors-in-training. There were statistically significant differences in dismissing and fearful/preoccupied attachment orientations between RQ1 and RQ3 within the level of practicum. From RQ1 to RQ3, the number of dismissing attached supervisees increased from 4 to 13, and the number of preoccupied/fearful supervises diminished from 13 to 2. There were no statistically significant differences between RQ1 and RQ2, or between RQ2 and RQ3 within the practicum level.

The overall lack of significance may be attributed to the fact that the sample sizes within groups were small. Additionally, the cell sizes for the preoccupied/fearful category were smaller than the other attachment orientations. Descriptively, there was a reduction in preoccupied/fearful and an increase in dismissing within each of the supervisee experience levels. The lack of significance may also be attributed to the fact that there may not be any differences within experience levels of supervisees over time.

The lack of significance could indicate a lack of differences regarding attachment orientation change between experience levels of supervisees. Initially, supervisees with different experience levels may have a negative sense of self and as supervision progresses, become to feel independent and self-contained as a result of their increased self-confidence. This indicates that supervisors may need to take into consideration that all supervisees, regardless of experience level, may lack trust in themselves as counselors at the beginning of supervision. As supervision progresses supervisees need to be allowed to rely on themselves more than their supervisor. Thus, supervision, for these supervisees, was successful. The supervisees became more confident in themselves and relied less on their supervisors.

Research Question Number Three

Are there statistically significant differences in supervisee attachment orientations between each level of supervisee over time? Examination of the relationship between levels of supervisee with regard to attachment orientation over time indicated no statistical significant difference. The Bowker test results indicate that there is no relationship between level of experience of supervisee and attachment style. Regardless of experience level, supervisees tended to follow the same pattern, from fearful and preoccupied toward dismissing attachment orientation. Thus, master's level counselors-in-training, regardless of experience, may exhibit insecure attachments at the onset of the supervisory relationship. Supervisors need to take into account that even internship students may be having self-doubt or lack of trust regarding themselves or their supervisors. As the supervision experience continues, the supervisee become more secure

of themselves or their supervisor. This cycle appears to emerge for every new supervision experience. The attachment style of the supervisee may be more affected by the actual supervision relationship than the amount of experience (i.e., entry, practicum, internship).

Research Question Number Four

Are there statistically significant differences in the perceived working alliance rapport of the working alliance between each level of supervisee over time? The results of the two-way factorial ANOVA for midsemester and end of semester administrations of the SWAI indicate no statistically significant differences in working alliance rapport scores between level of supervisees. Level of supervisee was not an indicator of working alliance rapport scores. One reason for the lack of significance may be the fact that there was a low sample size ($n = 116$) for this test. Additionally, experience level may not make a difference in how the supervisee sees their relationship with their supervisor. Often supervisors believe that more experienced supervisees need less guidance from the supervisor. However the results indicate that this might not be the case. Preoccupied and fearful supervisees at all levels had the same pattern toward dismissing and secure attachment orientations, and thus would need more guidance from supervisors at the beginning of the semester, and less guidance as the semester progresses. This process of dependence to independence may repeat itself each semester a supervisee receives supervision.

Research Question Number Five

Are there statistically significant changes in attachment orientations over time?

Chi-square statistical analysis of attachment orientations between the three administrations of the RQ found statistically significant differences between the first and second administrations of the RQ, and between the first and third RQs. The statistically significant changes in attachment orientations between the first and second RQs occurred in the insecure attachments. The preoccupied and fearful categories reduced, while the dismissing category increased. The statistical analysis of RQ1 and RQ3 had a statistically significant increase in the dismissing attachment and a statistically significant decrease in the preoccupied attachment orientations. There were no statistically significant changes in attachment orientation between RQ2 and RQ3.

Given the change that occurred, a crosstabs was run on the attachment orientations over time. The descriptive statistics showed movement within each of the four attachment orientations, with the largest percentage of movement occurring with the insecure attachments. Thus, the overall movement of the insecure attachments was toward secure and dismissing. Secure supervisees tended to stay secure or move toward dismissing.

One explanation regarding the changes in attachment orientations between RQ1 and RQ2 may be due to the timing of the administration of the instruments. It is possible that the first part of the semester, where the supervision relationship begins to develop, may be more important in relation to the attachment orientation than the second half of the semester. This getting to know you time may include the most building up and

breaking down of the supervision relationship, triggering a change in attachment behaviors toward the supervisor. Additionally, the significant changes toward secure and dismissing from the insecure attachment orientations may be due to the fact that by mid-semester the supervisees began to trust themselves as counselors. This may trigger a change in model of self from lack of trust in themselves to increased self trust and feelings of self-efficacy.

However, this would only explain why fearful supervisees moved toward dismissing, and why preoccupied supervisees moved toward secure, not why preoccupied and secure supervisees moved toward dismissing, or why dismissing supervisees moved toward secure. Therefore, there must also have been a change in trust toward the supervisor. Possible explanations may include the fact that the boundaries set by secure supervisors were felt as rejecting by preoccupied supervisees, and in order to protect themselves emotionally, supervisees chose to not have an emotional relationship with their supervisors. Likewise, the increase in self esteem may cause supervisees to mistrust their supervisors if the supervisees' interpretations of counseling are different than the critical feedback from the supervisors, or if the supervisor is not giving the newly confident supervisee opportunities to become more independent counselors. Trust in the supervisor may diminish, and the attachment behaviors change. Additionally, there is a power differential in the supervision relationship. Supervisees may have chosen not to have an emotionally close relationship with their supervisor because of the necessary constructive criticism from the supervisor.

Another explanation for the significant change between RQ1 and RQ2, and the lack of change between RQ2 and RQ3 might be due to the differences in wording of the RQ instruments. For the second and third administrations of the instruments, the word “supervisor” was substituted for the word “others”. The changed RQ was more specific towards the supervisor, and the original RQ was regarding intimate relationships in general. The two versions of the RQ may produce different attachment orientations because the RQs are measuring different relationships. Individuals may demonstrate different attachment orientations in different situations, so the differences in attachment may be due to the different circumstances of the relationships being referenced.

Research Question Number Six

Is the supervision relationship perceived as having an impact on the lives of the supervisees? The assumption of this study was the idea that supervision is an important relationship, and as such is impactful to the lives of the supervisees. In order to determine the efficacy of this statement, a question was developed for the third instrument packet. This question stated: “How impactful has the relationship with your supervisor been at this time in your life?” Students were asked to rate their answer on a scale from one (not impactful) to seven (very impactful). While the mean of the impactful question was below 5 (4.81), the majority of students (65.49%) indicated the supervision relationship was impactful by choosing a 5, 6 or 7. This indicates what has been hypothesized by Bordin (1983) and Pistole and Watkins (1995) regarding the importance of the relationship during supervision. Supervisees find the relationship with their supervisor

important in their life. The impact of supervision may be a long lasting effect, and supervisors need to realize that seeming insignificant discussions or events could be extremely important for the supervisee.

Relationship of Results to Previous Research

Attachment theory stipulates that models of self and others are developed in infancy and can affect relationships throughout adulthood (Ainsworth, 1991; Bowlby, 1973). Bowlby (1982) stated that attachment behaviors are subject to experiences beyond infancy and changes in attachment behaviors may be related to socio-emotional experiences and cognitive changes. Fraley (2002) states proponents of the prototype perspective of attachment theory believe attachment models developed in early childhood can be updated and changed while the childhood models continue to mold relationship experiences. Fraley (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of research regarding attachment orientations over time and discovered that attachment orientations change depending on life experiences. The data from the current study suggest that counseling supervision may promote changes in attachment behaviors during the supervision process. The counselors-in-training who had preoccupied or fearful attachments at the beginning of supervision tended to have secure or dismissing attachments at the end of the semester. This change may be due to becoming more independent of the supervisor and increasing self-efficacy as a counselor.

Borden's (1983) theory of working alliance encompasses the change from dependence to independence as the working alliance is built up through the development of goals, tasks, and bond. This bond is similar to attachments between the supervisor and

supervisee. Rapport (Efstation et al., 1990) is another name for this bond developed during the supervision process. Reising & Daniels (1983) suggest through their research on the supervisory working alliance that beginning supervisees are more dependent and anxious than more advanced supervisees. However, the findings of the current study report no statistically significant difference between levels of supervisee in relation to working alliance rapport scores. Trad's (1995) research supports the view that novice and advanced supervisees rate the working alliance similarly. Thus, a supervisee at any level could report a high working alliance rapport with their supervisor. As working alliance rapport can be considered a feeling of trust or attachment, there may be a relationship between attachment and working alliance rapport scores.

Supervision and attachment literature supports some of the findings of this study. Kim and Birk (1998) found supervisees with higher confidence ratings (e.g., positive model of self) were more satisfied with supervision, and supervisees with a preoccupation with relationships (e.g., preoccupied) were less satisfied with supervision than other attachment dimensions. Similarly, the current study discovered that supervisees with a positive model of self (e.g., secure and dismissing) rated the supervision working alliance rapport higher than supervisees with a negative model of self (e.g., fearful or preoccupied). Additionally, secure supervisees had statistically significantly higher working alliance rapport scores than the insecure supervisees, and preoccupied supervisees had the lowest mean of supervisory working alliance rapport scores. Higher supervision working alliance rapport scores in secure supervisees were also found by Epps (1999). Because the current study used all four attachment

orientations related to the model of self and others, there was a specific pattern to the working alliance rapport scores not discovered by other researchers. The order of supervisory working alliance rapport score mean from highest to lowest was: secure, dismissing, fearful, and preoccupied. Foster (2002) found that fearful supervisees were less invested in the supervision process, which may explain why in the current study fearful supervisees had higher supervision working alliance rapport scores than preoccupied supervisees who are overly involved in the supervision relationship.

Some results from the current study were not comparable to research because the current study examined new aspects of attachment and supervision. None of the above studies examined attachment orientations over time or between levels of experience. This researcher chose to examine attachment over time with specific focus of attachment with the supervisor. Thus, the pattern of movement from fearful and preoccupied to secure and dismissing over the course of the semester, is new information. This shift was hypothesized by Hope et. al., (in press) during their study when practicum students were found to have anxious attachments and supervisors were found to have secure attachments. Additionally, Pistole and Watkins (1995) hypothesized that beginning supervisees rely more on their supervisors for support and monitoring than experienced supervisees. However the experience level of supervisees was not an indication of attachment orientation. Each level of supervisee (e.g., entry, practicum, internship) began with similar attachment orientations and had similar patterns of movement toward secure and dismissing over the course of the semester.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of the study is the small sample size. Due to this small sample size, Type II errors may have occurred. More significance may have been found if the sample size had been increased. Additionally, the use of convenience sampling may have affected external validity by restricting the generalizability of the results. The sample was comprised of volunteers from southern, eastern, and midwestern universities. Because the participants were from specific areas of the United States, the results might not be generalizable to other areas of the country. Because e-mail was used for the collection of data, participants may have been more comfortable with e-mail than students who chose not to participate. Furthermore, there is a possibility that the students who chose to complete all three packets were different than students who chose not to complete the research, or who chose not to participate at all. Thus, the students participating in the research might be qualitatively different than other counseling students, and create a biased sample. Self-report instruments are limited by the participants' subjective experience and their truthful responses, which create a potential for bias. This study made no differentiation between individuals receiving individual, or group supervision. There may have been different attachment results for supervisees receiving individual supervision versus individuals receiving group supervision. Additionally, this researcher chose not to include supervisor theoretical orientation or communication style, which may also affect the supervision working alliance and supervisee attachment.

The RQ was changed for the midsemester and end of semester instrument packets. This change may have produced differences in attachment orientation due to

instrument differences. The original RQ was specific to intimate relationships such as friendships and romantic relationships. Changing the wording to reflect the supervision relationship would also change the attachment focus to a relationship with a power differential. Thus, participants who would evidence a secure attachment in a romantic relationship may evidence a fearful attachment because they believe they are being judged.

Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between supervisee attachment orientations and perceived supervision working alliance rapport with entry, practicum and internship students over time. Findings from this study have implications and recommendations for counselor supervision. The relationship between working alliance rapport scores and attachment orientation suggests that secure and dismissing attached supervisees may have higher working alliance rapport scores than supervisees with preoccupied or fearful attachments. These results indicate that preoccupied and fearful attached supervisees may have difficulties establishing working alliance rapport with their supervisor. Supervisors working with these supervisees may need to take into consideration more working alliance rapport building activities with preoccupied and fearful supervisees. Additionally, the fact that there were no statistically significant differences in level of supervisee with regard to working alliance rapport scores indicates that establishing the working alliance is important for every level of supervisee. Supervisors who supervise internship level supervisees should work just as hard establishing working alliance rapport as supervisors who work with first time

supervisees. Supervisors should not assume that because a supervisee has had supervised counseling experience that the supervision relationship would be easier to establish than the relationship with less experienced supervisees.

Other results also indicate that the need for facilitating increased confidence within the supervisee is not limited to less experienced supervisees, as attachment orientations did not differ significantly between levels of supervisee. Supervisors should take the time to help the supervisee build up self-efficacy no matter the level of supervisee. Additionally, supervisors need to be just as delicate when giving constructive feedback to all levels of supervisees, as not just new counselors are vulnerable to lack of trust in themselves. Supervisors should take into account that different experience levels of supervisee do not necessarily require different types of relationships with their supervisors. This was also reinforced by the fact that supervisees tended to become more secure or dismissive as supervision progressed. This increase in self-esteem (model of self) may indicate a need for supervisees at all experience levels to have a chance to use their own intuition and be given some freedom with experimentation when working with clients.

The change in attachment orientations may also be a result of using two different attachment instruments. While only the word “others” was changed to “supervisor” in the second and third RQs, the focus of the attachment changed. Instead of referencing a peer relationship, a relationship with power differential was indicated. Supervisees who may have been preoccupied in a romantic relationship, may become dismissing in a supervision relationship. However, another explanation regarding the changes in

attachment orientation over the course of the semester may be that supervisees reference different attachment schemas in different situations. These schemas are connected with specific attachment behaviors learned for different situations. While attachment theory experts agree that humans form an attachment orientation base in early childhood, different situations may increase the likelihood of using different learned attachment behaviors (Ainsworth, 1991; Bowlby, 1973; Fraley, 2002). For example, a supervisee who is normally displays secure orientation behaviors may display preoccupied behaviors when faced with the schema of supervision because past power differential experiences have taught her not to trust in herself to interpret her performance. Thus a normally self-confident person may develop preoccupied orientation behaviors and become overly involved in the supervision relationship until self-confidence is returned through positive experiences in counselor supervision. Explanations regarding what supervisors can expect and what type of interventions may help increase supervision working alliance are shown in Chart 5.1. Further research is necessary to determine the specific effect changing the RQ may have on assessing supervisee attachment.

Supervision Issues Related To Attachment

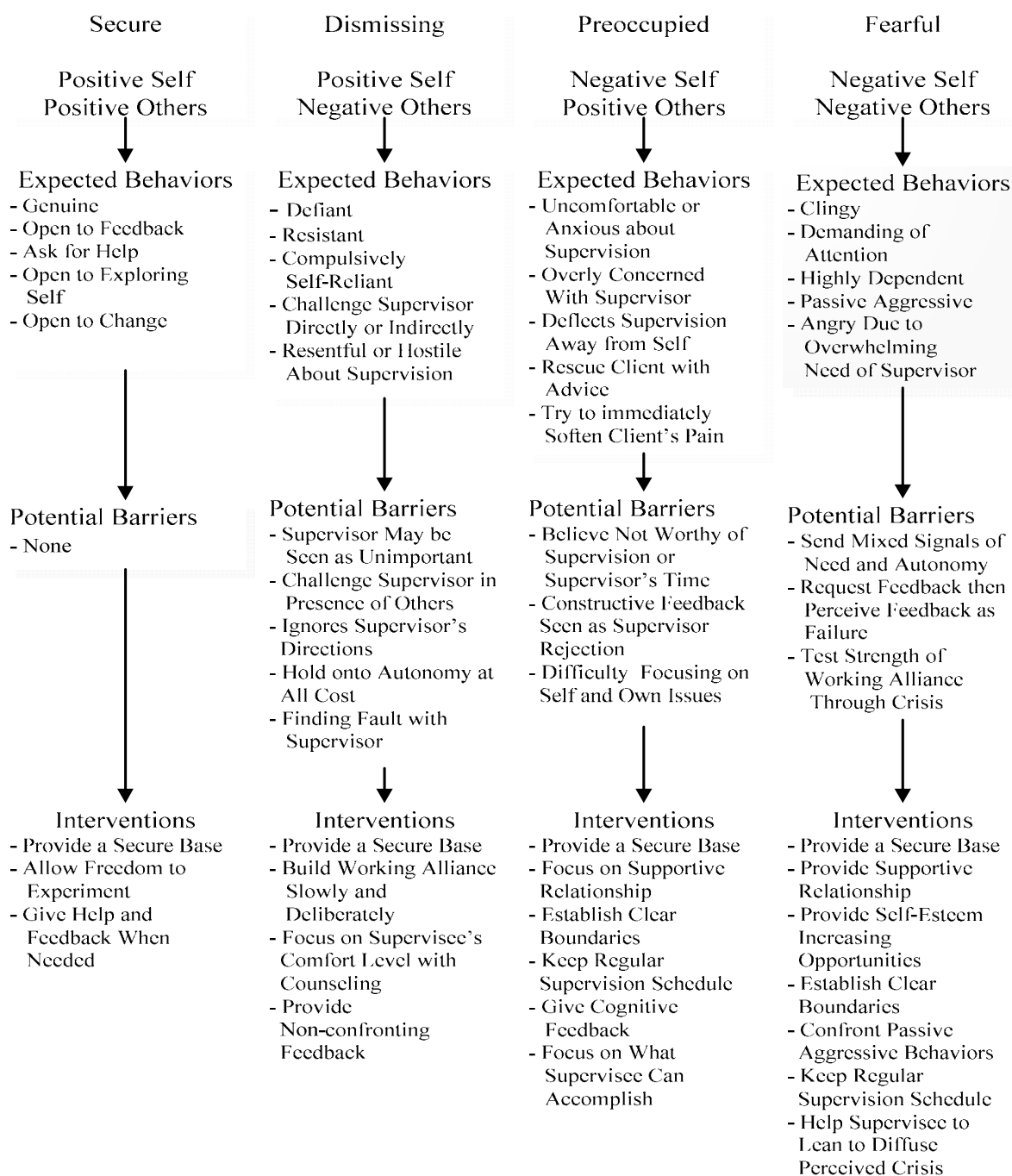


Figure 5.1 Supervision Issues Related to Attachment

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is needed to confirm the results of this study and to answer the questions resulting from these results. While this study determined a relationship between working alliance rapport and attachment, this study was restricted in several ways. Similar research with larger, more diverse sample sizes should be conducted. Studies which focus on supervisees receiving only individual or group supervision may determine that the type of supervision has an affect on attachment style. Additionally, supervisors' theoretical orientation or communication style may play a factor in the supervisees' feeling of working alliance rapport or attachment. It would be interesting to determine if learning about attachment orientations improves the supervision relationship or supervisees' client conceptualization skills.

Due to the changes made in the RQ, further research is needed to indicate the exact nature of supervisee attachment in supervision. Thus, the revised RQ should be used as in beginning of semester as well as midsemester and end of semester administrations to determine if the change in attachment was relative to the nature of supervision or the different instruments. It would also be interesting to administer both versions of the RQ, one relating to a peer relationship and one to supervision, to determine if the supervisee evidences similar attachment orientations with different types of relationships over time. Determining if the counselor exhibits different attachment orientations toward the supervisor and client may also be an avenue for future research. Due to the power differential, additional research may include a parental attachment RQ, to determine if the supervisee evidences similar attachment orientations with parents and

supervisors. Conducting similar research with a self-efficacy in counseling scale may help to determine the reason for the change in attachment orientations over time. If a supervisee felt higher self-efficacy regarding counseling skills, then the change in self-esteem might be indicative of the supervision experience. While this research focused on counselors before the acquisition of their master's degree, future research should extend to graduates receiving supervision for licensure. Future research may also include the development of an attachment instrument specific to the supervision relationship and the counselor-client relationship.

In seeking to explain why student behaviors may shift when entering supervision, this study explored supervisee attachment and supervisees' perceptions of the supervision working alliance rapport in relation to supervisee attachment orientations. There were statistically significant changes in attachment orientation over time, as well as a statistically significant relationship between working alliance rapport scores and supervisee attachment orientation. These findings may indicate the importance of the supervision relationship with regard to attachment orientation. Supervisees tend to move from preoccupied or fearful attachments toward secure and dismissing attachments during supervision. However, as a supervisee re-enters supervision in a future semester, the student may revert back to their previous attachment orientation. Again, as the semester progresses, supervisees move toward dismissing and secure orientations with relation to their supervisor. Supervisors should take into consideration that all supervisees, regardless of experience, may have lack of trust in themselves or their supervisors at the beginning of the supervision relationship, but may become more secure

in themselves or their supervisors as the working alliance rapport increases. Thus, all supervisors should focus on building working alliance rapport throughout the supervision relationship. Additional research needs to be conducted to determine if these statistical significances are generalizable to other master's level counselors-in-training.

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APPENDEX A
PACKET FOR PROFESSORS

Letter to Professors

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
932 N. Tolliver Road
Morehead, KY 40351
mikedina@juno.com

Date

Dear

Thank you so much for agreeing to help me find participants for my dissertation research titled "Supervisee Attachment Orientation and the Supervision Working Alliance." I would appreciate your help requesting participants in counseling masters' level pre-practicum classes in which students work with clients, as well as practicum, and internship classes. If I need to send this information to another professor, or if you are unable to help collect the information needed, please e-mail me back and let me know.

Attached are copies of the flyer with information for the students, and a form for their e-mail addresses. Please hand out the fliers in class, and request students to write their e-mail addresses (in pen) on the form. Then fax the form back to me at 606-783-5032 or mail it to me at: 932 N. Tolliver Road, Morehead KY, 40351. I will e-mail you when I receive the fax and then request that you shred your copy.

I really appreciate your help.

Edina L. Renfro-Michel

For information regarding the rights of human subjects in research, the Office for Regulatory Compliance at Mississippi State University may be contacted at 662-325-5220

Flyer for Professors

Want a chance at winning a \$50 Amazon.com gift certificate?

What's the catch?

I am asking that you participate in my dissertation research about attachment orientations and supervision rapport. If you complete the research, your e-mail address will be entered in a raffle for one of three \$50 Amazon.com gift certificates. Complete one packet, and you have one chance. Complete two packets, you have 2 chances. Complete three packets, and you have 6 chances!

What do I have to do?

If you place your e-mail (NO NAMES, PLEASE!) on the form provided by your professor, I will send you the first research packet within the next week. I will then ask you to complete 2 more research packets, one around midsemesters and one in December. It will take you less than 15 minutes to complete each e-mail. You may choose not to participate at any time, but in order to be entered 6 times in the raffle, you need to complete all 3 research packets.

Who will see this information?

Only my supervisor and I will see your specific information. All information will be kept confidential. All winners will be notified by e-mail. At the end of the study I will compile the data, and destroy the specific e-mail responses.

Who do I contact if I have questions?

Me! Edina L. Renfro-Michel, at the e-mail: mikedina@juno.com

APPENDEX B
RESEARCH PACKETS

Consent Letter

Dear Counseling Student:

My name is Edina Renfro-Michel, and I am a doctoral candidate completing dissertation requirements in the Department of Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education at Mississippi State University. The purpose of my research project is to investigate how attachment style effects supervisory alliance. Hopefully, this information will help counselor educators understand how attachment style influences the supervision process.

Your participation is completely voluntary. You may skip any items you do not wish to answer, and you may withdraw at any time. If you request that your data not be used in the study, it will be destroyed. If you fail to reply to one of the packets, your e-mail address will be removed from your data but your data will be retained. You will still be entered in the raffle for each packet you complete. Should you wish not to participate, there will be no penalty or loss to which you are already entitled.

I am collecting data over the course of the semester. I will collect data this week, near midsemesters, and the first week of December. Each time you will be sent an e-mail asking to complete some forms and e-mail the forms back to me. It should take you no longer than 15 minutes to complete each set of forms. **Sending a reply regarding this e-mail will be your consent to participate. You may withdraw that consent at any time by e-mailing me, or not filling out the packet of forms.**

As an incentive, students completing and returning packets will be eligible for a raffle of three \$50 Amazon.com gift certificates. If you complete 1 packet, you have one entry, if you complete 2 packets you have 2 entries, and if you complete all three packets you will have 6 entries. Your e-mail address will automatically be placed in the raffle when each packet is received. If you win the gift certificate, you will be sent the certificate by e-mail. If you choose not to complete one of the three packets, your information will not be used in this study.

While completing the packets, you may experience a small amount of psychological stress. I do not anticipate any other risks on your part as a result of your participation. Your information will be kept confidential (your professors will not have access to your information), and when the data is compiled, your e-mail addresses will be destroyed. However, we are using e-mail, and there is a slight chance the information may be compromised. I have taken every precaution to protect your confidentiality. If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to use the contact information provided. For information regarding human participation in research, contact the MSU Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-5220. Please keep this letter for your records.

In order to consent to be a participant in this research, reply to this e-mail and state you would like to participate. I will then send you the first set of information to complete.

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
Doctoral Candidate
Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
(606) 356-6152
mikedina@juno.com

Carl Sheperis, Ph.D., NCC, LPC
Committee Chair
Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
csheperis@colled.msstate.edu

Letter to Participants – Packet One

Dear Student:

Thank you for signing up for my research. This is the first of 3 e-mail packets you will receive. Please complete the following 2 pages of forms and e-mail them back to me. You may skip any questions or choose to not participate at any time. If you complete the packets, you will be entered in a raffle for one of three \$50 Amazon.com gift certificates. If you choose to complete the first e-mail packet, you will have one entry in the raffle. If you complete the second packet, you will then have two entries in the raffle. If you choose to participate and fill out all 3 e-mails, however, your e-mail address will be entered 6 times.

Before you begin to fill out the forms, please follow these steps:

- 1) Choose “**reply**” to create a new e-mail
- 2) A message pop-up box should appear
- 3) Make sure “**reply to sender**” is marked in the message pop-up box
- 4) Make sure “**include text of message in reply**” is also marked
- 5) Complete the forms and hit “**send**”

If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to use the contact information provided. For information regarding human participation in research, contact the MSU Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-5220. Please keep this letter for your records.

Thank you so much for helping in my research!

Please e-mail me this packet by the following due date:

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
 Doctoral Candidate
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 (606) 356-6152
 mikedina@juno.com

Carl Sheperis, Ph.D., NCC, LPC
 Committee Chair
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 csheperis@colled.msstate.edu

Letter to Participants – Packet Two

Dear Student:

Thank you for filling out the first set of information for my research. This is the second of three e-mails. Please fill in the following 2 pages of forms, and e-mail them back to me, you will be eligible to be entered two more times in the Amazon.com raffle!

You may skip any questions or choose to not participate at any time. If you choose to participate and fill out all 3 e-mails, however, your e-mail address will be entered 6 times in a raffle for one of three \$50 Amazon.com gift certificates.

Before you begin to fill out the forms, please follow these steps:

- 1) Choose “**reply**” to create a new e-mail
- 2) A message pop-up message box should appear
- 3) Make sure “**reply to sender**” is marked in the message pop-up box
- 4) Make sure “**include text of message in reply**” is also marked
- 5) Complete the forms and hit “**send**”

If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to use the contact information provided. For information regarding human participation in research, contact the MSU Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-5220. Please keep this letter for your records.

Thank you so much for helping in my research!

Please e-mail me this packet by the following due date:

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
 Doctoral Candidate
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 (606) 356-6152
 mikedina@juno.com

Carl Sheperis, Ph.D., NCC, LPC
 Committee Chair
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 csheperis@colled.msstate.edu

Letter to Participants – Packet Three

Dear Student:

Thank you for choosing to participate in my research. I appreciate the time you have invested in the first two packets. Attached is the last packet of information. It should take you about 15 minutes to complete this packet. When you have completed the packet, please e-mail it back to me. **In order to be entered 6 times in the raffle of \$50 amazon.com gift certificates, you need to complete and return this packet.**

Your participation is completely voluntary. You may skip any items you do not wish to answer, and you may withdraw at any time. Should you wish not to participate, there will be no penalty or loss to which you are already entitled.

If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to use the contact information provided. For information regarding human participation in research, contact the MSU Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-5220. Please keep this letter for your records.

Before you begin to fill out the forms, please follow these steps:

- 1) Choose “**reply**” to create a new e-mail
- 2) A message pop-up message box should appear
- 3) Make sure “**reply to sender**” is marked in the message pop-up box
- 4) Make sure “**include text of message in reply**” is also marked
- 5) Complete the forms and hit “**send**”

Winners will be notified by e-mail!

Please e-mail the packet by the following due date:

Thank you very much for your time,

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
 Doctoral Candidate
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 (606) 356-6152
 mikedina@juno.com

Carl Sheperis, Ph.D., NCC, LPC
 Committee Chair
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 csheperis@colled.msstate.edu

Reminder E-mail to Participants

Dear Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research. This is a reminder that the e-mail sent to you on: is due by: . Remember, if you complete all 3 packets, you will be entered **6 times** in the Amazon.com raffle!

If you have decided not to participate, simply ignore this e-mail or send me an e-mail letting me know of your decision.

If you have any questions regarding this research project, please feel free to use the contact information provided. For information regarding human participation in research, contact the MSU Regulatory Compliance Office at (662) 325-5220. Please keep this letter for your records.

Before you begin to fill out the forms, please follow these steps:

- 6) Choose “**reply**” to create a new e-mail
- 7) A pop-up message box should appear.
- 8) Make sure “**reply to sender**” is marked in the message pop-up box
- 9) Make sure “**include text of message in reply**” is also marked
- 10) Complete the forms and hit “**send**”

Thank you very much for your time,

Edina L. Renfro-Michel, M.Ed., NCC, LPC
 Doctoral Candidate
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 (606) 356-6152
 mikedina@juno.com

Carl Sheperis, Ph.D., NCC, LPC
 Committee Chair
 Counseling, Educational Psychology, and Special Education
 csheperis@colled.msstate.edu

Demographic Information

1. Age: _____

2. Sex: (Place an X on the appropriate line.) _____ Male _____ Female

3. Ethnic Origin: (Place an X on the appropriate line. You may choose more than one)
_____ African American _____ Asian American _____ Caucasian _____ Latino
_____ Other (Please Specify): _____

4. Program of Study (Choose one and place an X on the appropriate line):
_____ Community _____ School _____ Student Development
_____ Rehabilitation _____ Other (specify): _____

5. Which one of the following currently reflects your status? (Place an X on the appropriate line.)
_____ Pre-Practicum (counseling clients this semester)
_____ Practicum _____ Internship

6. Please print your email (as verification):

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire – Packet One

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire*

Carefully read the paragraphs below. Using the scale below each description, type in the blank the number (1-7) that corresponds with the degree to which that statement is like you.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.

___2. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___3. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without a close relationship, but I sometimes worry that others do not value me as much as I value them.

___4. I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

NEXT: Of the 4 paragraphs above, please type in the blank provided, the number (1, 2, 3, 4) of the description that you feel best describes you. _____

*Adapted from Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991)

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire – Packet Two

Please read the attached letter before completing these forms. Thanks!

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire*

Carefully read the paragraphs below. Using the scale below each description, type in the blank the number (1-7) that corresponds with the degree to which that statement is like your perceptions of your relationship to your supervisor.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___ 1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my supervisor. I am comfortable depending on my supervisor and having my supervisor depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having my supervisor not accept me.

___ 2. I am comfortable without a close emotional relationship to my supervisor. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on my supervisor or have my supervisor depend on me.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___ 3. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with my supervisor, but I often find that he/she is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without a close supervision relationship, but I sometimes worry that my supervisor does not value me as much as I value him/her.

___ 4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my supervisor. I want an emotionally close supervision relationship, but I find it difficult to trust my supervisor completely, or to depend on him/her. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my supervisor.

NEXT: Of the 4 paragraphs above, please type in the blank provided, the number (1, 2, 3, 4) of the description that you feel best describes your relationship with your supervisor. _____

Please continue!

*Adapted from Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991)

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire – Packet Three

Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire*

Carefully read the paragraphs below. Using the scale below each description, type in the blank the number (1-7) that corresponds with the degree to which that statement is like your perceptions of your relationship to your supervisor.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___ 1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to my supervisor. I am comfortable depending on my supervisor and having my supervisor depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having my supervisor not accept me.

___ 2. I am comfortable without a close emotional relationship to my supervisor. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on my supervisor or have others depend on me.

(1 = not at all like me, 7 = very much like me)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

___ 3. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with my supervisor, but I often find that he/she is reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without a close supervision relationship, but I sometimes worry that my supervisor does not value me as much as I value him/her.

___ 4. I am uncomfortable getting close to my supervisor. I want an emotionally close supervision relationship, but I find it difficult to trust my supervisor completely, or to depend on him/her. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my supervisor.

NEXT: Of the 4 paragraphs above, please type in the blank provided, the number (1, 2, 3, 4) of the description that you feel best describes your relationship with your supervisor. _____

Please answer this question:

How impactful has the relationship with your supervisor been at this time in your life? _____

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(1=not impactful, 7=very impactful)

Please continue!

* Adapted from Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991)

Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory*

Read each item and type the number (1 – 7) which indicates the frequency with which the behavior seems characteristic of your work with your supervisor in the box next to the statement.

(1 = Almost Never, 7 = Almost Always)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I feel comfortable working with my supervisor.							
2. My supervisor welcomes my explanations about my client's behavior.							
3. My supervisor makes the effort to understand me.							
4. My supervisor encourages me to talk about my work with clients in ways that are comfortable for me.							
5. My supervisor is tactful when commenting about my performance.							
1 = Almost Never, 7 = Almost Always	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My supervisor encourages me to formulate my own interventions with the client.							
7. My supervisor helps me talk freely in our sessions.							
8. My supervisor stays in tune with me during supervision.							
9. I understand client behavior and treatment technique similar to the way my supervisor does.							
10. I feel free to mention to my supervisor any troublesome feelings I might have about him/her.							
11. My supervisor treats me like a colleague in our supervisory sessions.							
12. In supervision, I am more curious than anxious when discussing my difficulties with clients.							
1 = Almost Never, 7 = Almost Always	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

*Adapted from Efstation, Patton, & Kardash, 1990

Thank you for your participation!