10-14-2009

Perceptions of School Psychology Supervisors and Practitioners about Supervision Practices in the Southeastern Region of the US: An Exploratory Study Using Concept Mapping

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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY SUPERVISORS AND PRACTITIONERS ABOUT SUPERVISION PRACTICES IN THE SOUTHEASTERN REGION OF THE US: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY USING CONCEPT MAPPING, by BRANDI J. WELLS, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

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ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY SUPERVISORS AND
PRACTITIONERS ABOUT SUPERVISION PRACTICES IN THE
SOUTHEASTERN REGION OF THE US: AN EXPLORATORY
STUDY USING CONCEPT MAPPING
by
Brandi J. Wells

Supervision is essential to the development of school psychologists. Effective supervision cultivates professional competence and objectivity, enhances service delivery, encourages critical thinking and problem solving, and supports school psychologists to engage in continuous professional development activities. Yet, there is little information available about how school psychology practitioners and supervisors view supervision and in what ways actual supervision practices can improve. This study employed concept mapping, which is a structured analytic methodology that allows qualitative and quantitative data to be expressed as visual models to explore practicing school psychologists' and supervisors' perceptions about supervision by: (a) investigating what impediments hindered supervision efforts, (b) identifying what advocacy methods may increase supervision opportunities, and (c) examining whether and how school psychologists and supervisors agree on potential impediments and possible facilitators to improve supervision practices. Overall, participants reported that they provided or received supervision and were generally satisfied with it; however, practitioners received much less than the time recommended by national professional associations. Although, participants were generally pleased with supervision, they also believed that supervision

needed more structure, ongoing formal evaluations, setting of goals, and time management. Further, few supervisors follow established models or used clinical techniques during supervision and there was a need for formal training of supervisors. Participants suggested the following to facilitate supervision in authentic school settings: (a) planning and committing to supervision, (b) setting parameters and guidelines, (c) identifying appropriate supervisors, (d) using alternative supervision formats, and (e) seeking guidance and direction from the National Association of School Psychologists. Recommendations for practice and future research are discussed.

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A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the
Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
School Psychology
in
the Department of Counseling and Psychological Services
in
the College of Education
Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA
2009

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this dissertation was no small measure and has not come without great sacrifice and dedication. It truly was a collective effort of family, friends, research mentors and peer support groups. I would like to take the opportunity to acknowledge those who have contributed their time and unyielding support throughout this process.

I would like to acknowledge my committee members. I am especially grateful for the many meticulous readings and revisions provided by my chair, Dr. Truscott, guidance and direction on supervision issues in psychology by Dr. Catherine Cadenhead, introduction to and guidance on my methodology by Dr. Roach, and continued support of this project and how to view supervision from a different perspective by Dr. Julie Dangel. They were also my cheerleaders who not only encouraged me along the way but also challenged me to extend my thinking and scholarship beyond my perceptions. I am grateful to have had the opportunity to learn from these scholars.

I am forever grateful for the sisterhood of friends and peer support that has been given to me from the start of this process until the final hours. It is your strength and energy that I drew upon and enthusiastic vigor that was contagious. Thank you to the wonderful scholars and friends of UGRC and the SBA circle for your spiritual support and prayers of confidence. Thank you to "The Girls" for a wonderful bond filled with laughter, motivation, and inspiration. Thank you to Erica Ransom for being my shoulder to cry on and always making me believe that it is possible and this too shall pass. Additionally I want to thank Dr. Diane Truscott who has supported me from the very beginning and introduced me to publishing research. Special thanks to Tonia Durden for devoting countless hours and words of encouragement to be my second pair of eyes and shoulder of support. Thanks you for seeing me through so many things!

I would also like to take the time to acknowledge a very valuable person in my life, Evangeline Castle, Ph.D. You have been an excellent teacher, mentor, friend, and mother to me. You have shaped so much of what I have dreamed possible. You have been an amazing inspiration and have privileged my life with your presence.

Without the dedication and commitment of the participants, the experiences of school psychology practitioners and supervisors would not have been so eloquently voiced. I therefore would like to extend an appreciative thanks to these participants' for their time and willingness to share their experiences.

Last, but never least, I would like to thank my family whose shoulders I stand on and whose words of encouragement was my inspiration throughout this journey. To my

husband whose words, actions, support, and understanding were endless. Thank you for your faith in me and tough love to see me through these rewarding and challenging times. Special thanks to my parents, Reginald and Debra Wilson, for their continued support. To my grandparents on whose shoulders I stand now and always in pursuit of excellence. And to my children, Savion, Christian, Cameron and Regan, thank you for allowing me to pursue my dreams and being patient with me when I was researching, writing, and working on this great endeavor. Your support has allowed me to shine.

Because there was a village to support this effort, I dedicate this dissertation in honor of all of you. I am because we are.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APA	American Psychological Association
ATI	Aptitude by Treatment
ESOL	English as a Second Language
IDM	Integrated Developmental Model
MAPS	Metro Area Psychological Services
NASP	National Association of School Psychologists
NCSP	Nationally Certified School Psychologist
PI	Primary Investigator
RESA	Regional Education Service Agency
RSM	Rønnestad and Skovholt Model
RTI	Response to Intervention

CHAPTER 1

SUPERVISION PRACTICES OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

SUPERVISORS AND PRACTITIONERS

Introduction

Supervision is a fundamental part of professional training and development for

school-based educators and mental health professionals, especially during the early years

of practice (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Crespi & Dube, 2005; Crespi, 1997; Everett &

Koerpel, 1986; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Kaufman &

Schwartz, 2003; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins, Murphy & Wess, 1989). Researchers have

posited that supervision can improve professional competency, skill and knowledge

(Knoff, 1986; Ross & Goh; Ross-Reynolds & Grimes, 1981; Zins et al., 1989). In school

psychology, supervision has been cited in conceptual and empirical literature as

instrumental in the development of professional competency and enhancing the delivery

of services (Chafouleas, Clonan, & Vanauken, 2002; Franklin & Duley, 2002; Ross &

Goh; Welsh, Stanley & Wilmoth, 2003), ethical decision making skills (Bersoff, 2003;

Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Jacob-Timm & Hartshorne, 1998), evaluation skills (Harvey

& Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008), and

counseling and communication techniques (Blair & Peake, 1995; Campbell, 2000, 2006;

Haynes, Corey, & Moulton, 2003; Wood & Rayle, 2006). Chafouleas et al. (2002)

reported that school psychologists felt supervision improved their professional

competency and current practices, and that supervisees were more satisfied with their delivery of psychological services.

The purpose of this paper is to review the need for supervision in school psychology, describe characteristics of effective supervisors and supervisees, and examine challenges and barriers that may impede effective supervisory practices. Furthermore, this paper explores commonly used supervision models, formats and activities. This paper proposes potential research inquiries to extend the current literature and inform current supervision practices in school psychology.

<div align="center">Defining Supervision</div>

It is important to define supervision, briefly describe the purpose of supervision, and present general supervision goals as an introduction to common terms and concepts.

Supervision Defined

Supervision in school psychology is generally viewed as a way to improve one's professional knowledge base, skills, competency, and delivery of services. However, a universal definition has not been reached. In general, supervision in mental health has been defined as,

> "an intervention provided by a senior member of a profession to a more junior member or members of the same profession. This relationship is evaluative, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional functioning of the more junior person(s), monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the clients that she, he , or they see, and serving as a gatekeeper for those who are to enter the particular profession" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004, p. 8).

McIntosh and Phelps (2000) summarized supervision in school psychology as "an interpersonal interaction between two or more individuals for the purpose of sharing knowledge, assessing professional competencies, and providing objective feedback with the terminal goals of developing new competencies, facilitating effective delivery of psychological services, and maintaining professional competencies" (p. 33-34). Complementary to this definition, the National Association of School Psychologists' (NASP, 2000a) professional conduct guidelines, described supervision as "an ongoing, positive, systematic, collaborative process between the school psychologist and the school psychology supervisor. This process focuses on promoting professional growth and exemplary professional practice leading to improved performance by all concerned including the school psychologist, supervisor, students, and the entire school community" (p. 56). Despite variation among the definitions of supervision, one consistent theme remains—effective supervision can improve school psychological services and promote professional development for both the supervisor and supervisee.

Purpose of Supervision

Researchers have described the purpose of supervision from different viewpoints and orientations. For some mental health professionals, the purpose of supervision is to focus on the professional development of a novice professional to more advanced practitioner (Cramer & Rosenfield, 2003; Maki & Delworth, 1995; Rosenfield, 2002). Others view supervision as a means to "promote adherence to high standards, assure appropriate, high quality services to children and youth, and provide appropriate evaluation of personnel" (NASP, 2004, p. 1). Yet, others may refer to supervision as a training intervention, conducted over a specified time period, that is designed to evaluate

the suitability of those entering the field (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Some authors suggest that the purpose of supervision can include a combination of some or all of these elements (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Haynes et al., 2003). Although all of these may apply to school psychology, school psychology authors (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008) assert that the purpose of supervision is to observe, monitor and evaluate services being provided by school psychologists as well as "protect the public and improve educational outcomes" (NASP, p. 1).

Goals of Supervision

There are four primary goals of supervision in school psychology (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Knoff, 1986). First, supervision provides the opportunity for the supervisee to improve professionally. Second, supervision provides ongoing evaluations of the supervisee's professional strengths and weaknesses. Third, supervision monitors and protects the welfare of the students the supervisee serves. Finally, supervision provides the structure to help the supervisee make appropriate and ethical professional decision independently.

In any specific situation, goals established by the supervisee and the supervisor may differ based on multiple variables. Perceptions of the purpose of supervision, one's theoretical orientation, supervision model, setting, type of supervision provided, or supervision techniques can all impact the goals and the process (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; McIntosh & Phelps, 2000). For example, in differing circumstances, a supervisee's goals may focus on (a) stress management, (b) learning a specific skill or technique, (c) searching for validation, (d) support and reinforcement, (e) seeking personal growth and development, or (f) evaluating one's own suitability for the profession.

Conversely, a supervisor's goals may include (a) improving the professional development of the supervisee to a more advanced level, (b) providing opportunities for the supervisee to learn the daily intricacies of the job, (c) evaluating the supervisee's professional strengths and weaknesses and readiness for the profession, and (d) monitoring the welfare of the students (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008; Knoff, 1986). Stoltenberg, McNeill, and Delworth (1998) suggest that supervision goals may also change depending on the developmental needs of the supervisee. For example, entry-level school psychologists may want and need supervision that requires training and experiences reflective of best practices in school psychological services. Whereas, more advanced practitioners may have supervision goals that reflect the development of a new specific skill, assist in maintaining objectivity, or even ways to think about their own supervision practice. In sum, while the purpose and goals of supervision may vary depending on the intent of the supervisory relationship and needs of the supervisor-supervisee; there is an underlying theme of bolstering professional development and protecting the welfare of the students, schools and communities served by the supervisee that holds constant.

<div align="center">The Need for Supervision in School Psychology</div>

The importance of supervision has been well documented in the fields of clinical and counseling psychology (Everett & Koerpel, 1986; Haynes et al., 2003; Neufeldt, 2007; Robiner & Schofield, 1990; Stoltenberg et al., 1998; Wasik & Fishbein, 1982; Welsh et al., 2003; Wood & Rayle, 2006). In addition, the need for supervision is documented in psychotherapy (e.g., Blair & Peake, 1995; Wasik & Fishbein, 1982) and marriage and family therapy (e.g., American Association for Marriage & Family

Therapy, 1990; Everett & Koerpel, 1986). There are numerous articles and books on clinical supervision in educational settings such as school social work (Garrett & Barretta-Herman, 1995; Kadushin & Harkness, 2002), school counseling (Murphy & Kaffenberger, 2007; Wood & Rayle, 2006) and teacher education (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 1998, 2007). However, research on supervision in school psychology has received scant attention despite such acknowledged importance in allied fields (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; 2008; Knoff, 1986; McIntosh & Phelps, 2000; Robiner & Schofield, 1990; Welsh et al., 2003).

It is, however, possible to distill several themes from the nascent literature on supervision in school psychology as presented in Table 1. This section will review the need for supervision in school psychology by examining the complex roles and developmental trajectory of school psychologists, exploring the job characteristics of school psychology practitioners, and reviewing the evolving paradigms in school psychology.

Complex Role of School Psychologists

School psychologists have complex and challenging roles. School psychologists are expected to be competent and knowledgeable in several areas. Ysseldyke and colleagues (2006) suggested that school psychologists should:

(a) improve competencies for all students, and (b) build and maintain the capacities of systems to meet the needs of all students as they traverse the path to successful adulthood. School psychologists should be instructional consultants who can assist parents and teachers to understand how students learn and what

Table 1

Overview of Supervision in School Psychology (selected authors)

Supervision Findings in School Psychology Literature:	Fischetti & Crespi (1999)[a]; Crespi & Fischetti (1997)[b]	Chafouleas, Clonan, & Vanauken (2002)[a]	Harvey & Struzziero (2000, 2008)[b]	Knoff (1986, 1998)[b]	McIntosh & Phelps (2000)[b]	Ross & Goh (1993)[a]	Zins, Murphy, & Wess (1989)[a]
Enhances Competence	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
Strengthens delivery of services and practice	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
Provides support in skill improvement, maintenance, and extension	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
Increases awareness of theoretical orientation and supervision models			✔	✔			

Increases job satisfaction	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
Increases involvement in professional associations	✓		✓			✓	✓
Most practitioners desire to receive supervision	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Supported by Professional Standards	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Disparity between standards and practice	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Limited empirical research	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Need for future research	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Note. [a]Empirical research. [b]Conceptual articles or books.

effective instruction looks like. School psychologists should be mental health practitioners who can guide parents and teachers in learning how to create environments where children and youth feel protected and cared for as well as sufficiently self-confident to take risks and expand their range of competence. School psychologists must also possess a set of skills, including the ability to use problem-solving and scientific methodology to create, evaluate, and apply appropriate empirically validated interventions at both an individual and systems level (p. 11-14).

Power (2002) asserted school psychologists are increasingly expected to link assessment to effective interventions, engage in data-based decision making, design and implement intervention and prevention strategies, and collaborate with community agencies. Likewise, Reschly (2008) indicated that school psychologists are faced with issues related to "implementation,...fidelity of treatment, documentation of positive results, and improvement of the knowledge base regarding interventions for learning and behavior problems" (p. 3). Given the complexity of a school psychologist role, school psychologists need supervision to enhance their delivery of services.

Professional Maturation

It takes a significant amount of time for school psychologists to become proficient in the aforementioned areas. According to the most recent *School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice III* document, professional competency in school psychology emerges gradually (Telzrow, Burns, & Ysseldyke, 2006; Ysseldyke, Burns, Dawson, Kelley, Morrison, Ortiz, Rosenfield, & Telzrow, 2006, 2008). Practitioners do not typically enter the field of school psychology as an expert demonstrating competency

in all professional domains. Mental health and school psychology researchers alike (e.g., Haynes et al., 2003; Ysseldyke et al., 2006, 2008) postulate that professional expertise generally takes about ten years of practice to accomplish. During this process, supervision can play an integral part in facilitating one's professional development and provide corrective feedback. For instance, practitioners faced with new situations in which they have no prior knowledge or experience can seek the assistance of a more skilled and experienced supervisor to provide direction and feedback (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008).

Job Characteristics

There are certain job characteristics in the field of school psychology that necessitate supervision (Curtis, Grier, & Hunley, 2004). Increased student diversity, large achievement gaps, poverty, fiscal challenges, and shortage of professionals are just a few of the challenges faced by school psychologists. Furthermore, school psychologists are faced with additional challenges to help America's school-aged children and adolescents. The prevalence of reported abuse, children living in poverty and foster care, exposure to violence, bullying and harassment, risky sexual behaviors, and substance abuse have increased significantly (Crockett, 2004). Additionally, school psychologists are faced with the tremendous pressure to meet the needs of larger student populations, conduct numerous initial evaluations, reevaluations and engaging in special education activities, and serve more students through consultation (Curtis et al., 2004). Moreover, school psychologists are oftentimes professionally isolated, especially those practicing in rural school systems (Curtis et al.). Professional isolation can increase feelings associated with stress and burnout, and professional stagnation (Truscott & Truscott, 2005). The type of

work, level of responsibility, multiple settings and supervisors also illustrate the need for supervision in school psychology. Supervision can help school psychologists manage these challenges and feelings by providing the opportunity for training and professional development, encouraging participation in professional organizations, providing corrective feedback, and supporting peer collaboration (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008).

Student-to-school psychologist ratio is another job characteristic that may impact professional practice and services (Curtis et al., 2004). Although, NASP (1997) recommends a student-to-practitioner ratio of 1000:1, few school systems represent this recommended ratio. According to Hosp and Reschly (2002), the national average is almost doubled the recommended ratio with an average ratio of 1928:1. Even though the average ratio has been steady decreasing over the past twenty years, there still is a great need for school psychologists to know how to manage such a high number of students. Supervision in school psychology can help practitioners more effectively adjust, manage, and meet the diverse needs of large student populations. In sum, since these variables are constantly changing as they reflect the economy, new federal laws and mandates, social and political trends, and changes in public education, supervision is essential to helping practitioners remain professionally astute.

Practitioners Eventually Supervise

Supervision in school psychology is also necessary because providing supervision is a likely activity for most practitioners in the helping fields. Several authors (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Haynes et al., 2003; Ross & Goh, 1993) have declared supervision as an inevitable activity because graduate training and development is so closely tied to supervised practice (e.g., practicum, school psychology internship, and continuing

professional development requirements). At some point, most mental health professionals will engage in supervision—whether one serves in the capacity of supervisor or supervisee (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Through supervision or supervision training, supervisors-to-be are exposed to different approaches to problem solving, various supervision models and theoretical orientations, and the opportunity to reflect on their own behaviors (Guest & Beutler, 1988). Such opportunities help craft and strengthen one's own supervisory skills.

Evolving Paradigms (from ATI to RTI)

Although school psychology is relatively new, the profession has evolved over the years in response to changing needs and contexts (Curtis et al., 2004; Fagan, 2002a, 2002b; Ysseldyke et al., 2008). Numerous authors (e.g., Reschly, 2008; Reschly & Ysseldyke, 2002; Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000) highlight the historical foundations leading to the current practice of school psychologists. Historically, Cronbach's correlation and experimental problem solving models, and the aptitude by treatment interactions (ATI) model influenced the work of many school psychologists (Reschly, 2008). The influence of Cronbach's models and ATI are still evident in today's practice with school psychologist spending most of their time in activities related to special education classification and placement, and individual assessment (e.g., Daly, 2007; Milofsky, 1989; Reschly, 2008; Reschly & Ysseldyke, 2002; Tarquin & Truscott, 2006; Zins et al., 1989).

In recent years, other researchers in the profession have proposed a different direction for school psychological practices. Sheridan and Gutkin (2000) proposed a conceptual paradigm that is "based upon ecological and contextual considerations that

frame the practice, training, and research agendas of the field" (p. 485). The ideological tenets supporting the ecological paradigm include becoming more interconnected with schools, families, communities, and society at large while expanding the traditional role of the school psychologist (Christenson, 2003; Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000).

Now, school psychology has embarked upon embracing the use of problem-solving and response-to-intervention (RTI) as a means of refining psychological practices. RTI is defined as "a systematic and data-based method for identifying, defining, and resolving students' academic and/or behavioral difficulties" (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005) through "the problem solving model [that] applies self-correcting processes through (a) establishing an intervention based on scientifically based research that is matched to student needs, (b) implementing the intervention with good fidelity, and (c) monitoring progress and, depending on results, *changing* the intervention if progress toward goals is insufficient" (Reschly, 2008). In practice, RTI has been noted to reduce the number of students referred to special education, assist teachers in making educational decisions based on data collected from continuous progress monitoring, and assist student support teams in generating evidence-based interventions (Brown-Chidsey & Steege). Given the evolution of paradigms in school psychology, practitioners need supervision to remain current and abreast of recent changes that impact professional practices, and understand ethical and legal implications.

Professional Associations

Professional associations also encourage supervision in school psychology. The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2000a, 2000b, 2004) generally views supervision as a way to improve effective school psychological practices and

accountability, and recommends ongoing supervision throughout one's professional career. In 2004, NASP issued a position statement that specifically addressed how supervision can be implemented in school psychological service units for all school psychologists, regardless of years of experience and training. The NASP (2004) document discussed the qualifications of supervisors, the frequency of supervision, who should receive supervision, supervision methods and structures, and training and evaluation of supervisions. Moreover, NASP presented recommendations for school systems to support and implement supervision in school psychology. Some recommendations suggested include:

"Providing, as needed, opportunities for experienced school psychologists to gain initial and ongoing training in professional supervision; ensuring that all school psychologists have access to and support for receiving professional supervision as appropriate to their level of experience and expertise; providing multiple avenues and methods for obtaining supervision; and ensuring the periodic evaluation of supervisors and the program of supervision" (NASP, 2004, p. 5).

Other NASP (1997, 2000a, 2000b) documents such as the *Standards for Training and Field Placement Programs in School Psychology, Professional Conduct Manual, and Standards for the provision of School Psychological Services* discuss guidelines for providing supervision in school psychological units. Specifically, NASP (2000a) asserts that school psychologists should receive direct face-to-face supervision by a credentialed school psychologist for a minimum of two hours per week to ensure "the provision of effective and accountable services", especially during the first three years of practice (p. 56).

Likewise, the American Psychological Association's *Specialty Guidelines for the Delivery of Services by School Psychologists* (1981) mandates that non-doctoral school psychologists be supervised face-to-face for a minimum of one hour weekly by a professional school psychologist "who assumes professional responsibility and accountability" for psychological services provided (p. 674). Furthermore, it was noted "the level and extent of supervision may vary from task to task so long as the supervising [doctoral level] psychologist retains a sufficiently close supervisory relationship" (p. 674). Both governing bodies have espoused supervision as a professional necessity.

Summary of Need for Supervision

Rate of paradigm shifts (i.e., Aptitude by Treatment Interactions, ecological paradigm, Response-to-Intervention, etc.) and other changes in school psychology practice necessitate supervision (Crespi & Rigazio-Digilio, 1992; Knoff, 1986). Supervision can be instrumental in helping school psychologists adopt and/or refine their practices (Chafouleas, et al., 2002; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins, et al., 1989). Supervision is essential in providing the necessary training opportunities to strengthen a school psychologist's professional competency, skills, confidence, objectivity, interpersonal functioning and knowledge base (Knoff, 1986). Supervision also provides the tools to help school psychologists became systemic change agents at various system levels, which will impact the quality of mental health services they provide (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). Without adequate supervision, a school psychologist's ability to effectively address the critical needs of the students, families and communities in which he or she serves could be limited. In sum, supervision can be instrumental in facilitating the development, expansion and

maintenance of professional skills necessary to deliver effective school psychological services.

Characteristics of Effective Supervisors and Supervisees

In school psychology, supervision is a collaborative process between a supervisor and a practitioner. Supervisors play a pivotal role in delivering effective supervision. Effective supervisors are noted as individuals who successfully foster positive supervisor-supervisee relationships; exhibit appropriate levels of empathy, self-disclosure, genuineness, respect, and concreteness; are supportive, knowledgeable in supervision, and non-critical; and use a variety of social influences (Carifio & Hess, 1987). Campbell (2006) cited additional desirable attributes such as being knowledgeable of legal and ethical guidelines, demonstrating the ability to model professional behaviors, and engaging in fair evaluative processes. Effective supervisors also consider the developmental needs of the supervisees (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Harvey & Struzziero, 2008; Rosenfield, 2002; Stoltenberg et al., 1998).

In addition to these supervisor characteristics, Harvey and Struzziero (2000) assert that supervisors should demonstrate skills in three areas: technical, interpersonal, and conceptual. Technical skills are described as supervisors who advance their own level of professional competencies through training and evaluation. For example, school psychology supervisors may improve their technical skills by remaining abreast of current knowledge, attending professional conferences, remaining current with technological advances in the field, or evaluating one's own skills and supervisory program. Interpersonal skills are characterized as the ability to work with others. For school psychology supervisors, interpersonal skills are reflected in a supervisor's ability

to delegate, motivate, teach and evaluate. For example, supervisors should be able to identify the learning needs of the supervisee, teach new tools, evaluate the learning of the supervisee, provide constructive feedback, and encourage the supervisee to learn new approaches.

School psychology supervisors also should possess conceptual skills. Conceptual skills are referred to as "the ability to view the broad environmental context of their supervisees, the ability to identify which supervisory model and theories are closest to their own, and skill to find methods to deal with ethical dilemmas common to the supervision of school psychologists" (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, p. 6). Namely, supervisors of school psychologists should possess the knowledge of the functions and responsibilities of the job, be familiar with professional standards and ethics, and knowledgeable of organizational policies. School psychology supervisors demonstrating technical, interpersonal and conceptual skills are more effective in providing supervision to others.

Within this collaborative partnership, supervisees also contribute to the construction of effective supervision. Knoff and Curtis (1997) assert that supervisees in school psychology should possess adequate and necessary skills, knowledge, confidence, objectivity, self-knowledge, and interpersonal relationship skills to work effectively with students, teachers, administrators, families and communities. Also, they contend that school psychology supervisees need to be professionally and emotionally mature to receive critical feedback, reflect on practice, effectively communicate and work collaboratively with others, express areas of interests, readily accept new challenges, maintain objectivity, uphold professional and ethical standards, and deliver appropriate

psychological services and interventions (Crespi & Lopez, 1998). Without these personal and professional attributes, the supervisory relationship may be hindered (Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003).

The following discussion specifically highlights the challenges and barriers that may impede efforts to providing effective supervision in school psychology.

<div align="center">Challenges and Barriers in School Psychology Supervision</div>

There are several challenges and obstacles that prevent effective supervisory practices. Despite multiple empirical studies (e.g., Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989), and support from governing professional associations' standards and guidelines encouraging supervision (NASP, 2000a, 2004; APA, 1992), most school psychologists do not receive supervision. Zins et al. (1989) reported less than a quarter of the practitioners surveyed (331 of 490) were engaged in supervision activities. The estimated number of practitioners receiving supervision decreased during the following decade. According to Fischetti and Crespi (1999) only ten percent of surveyed practicing school psychologists (323 of 500) received supervision. Limited formal training is available for school psychology supervisors, lack of financial support and time, geographical distance, lack of value for supervision, limited availability of supervisors credentialed as school psychologists, and the complex role of the supervisor are some cited barriers to providing effective supervision (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989).

Limited Formal Training for School Psychology Supervisors

The role of school psychology supervisors is pivotal in the development of school psychology supervisees. However, many school psychology supervisors do not receive

formal training in supervision. Ross and Goh (1993) posited that when school psychologists received training in supervision, it was provided only in a doctoral program and consisted primarily of seminars and workshops on the topic. This is surprising considering that most school psychologists will supervise another school psychologist during their career (Ross & Goh, 1993) and most practitioners hold specialist degrees (Curtis et al., 2004).

Very few school psychologists have any training in supervision. Early research (Brown & Minke, 1986; Robiner, Saltzman, Hoberman, & Schirvar, 1997) conducted on the training of school psychologists revealed that few graduate programs provided training in supervision. Brown and Minke concluded that little attention is given to supervision training (with some exceptions at the doctoral level) because other important skills take precedence (such as courses in assessment, consultation, biological bases of behavior, and research). As a result, many school psychology supervisors generally assume supervisory responsibilities with little formalized training (Brown & Minke; Romans, Boswell, Carlozzi & Ferguson, 1995).

Most school psychology supervisors learn about supervision informally. Ross and Goh (1993) and Ward (2001) found that supervisors acquire knowledge about supervision through informal discussion with colleagues, books and/or articles, or by attending professional conferences. Although, informal knowledge can be quite informative and more readily applicable to context-specific situations, researchers and practitioners alike recommend a more balanced approach of formalized training and professional experiences (Ward, 2001; Welsh et al., 2003).

Lack of Time

Effective supervision takes a significant amount of time and contact between the school psychology supervisor and supervisee. The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2000a, 2004) standards recommend two hours of face-to-face supervision *per week,* especially for interns and entry-level school psychologists. Nonetheless, most school psychologist supervisees receive less than the recommended time (Fischetti & Crespi, 1999). Chafouleas et al. (2002) found that surveyed school psychologists only received supervision on an as-need basis or less than two hours *per month*. Doctoral and non-doctoral practitioners alike desired more frequent and regularly scheduled supervision meetings than they were receiving, especially during the earlier years of their professional career in school psychology (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Ross & Goh, 1993; Ward, 2001).

Although, frequent supervisor contact is desired by practitioners, the amount of time per week dedicated to supervision alone is difficult to justify when schools have such high demands and needs (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). Most school psychologists are already hard pressed for time to provide quality psychological services to the children and schools they serve. Time becomes even more severely taxed if they are serving multiple schools during the week.

Lack of Financial Support

Schools face serious fiscal challenges. Many school budgets focus largely on personnel salaries, instruction, special education services, operation and maintenance of school building, student transportation and nutrition, security, and technology. With these types of expenses consuming most of the budget, there is very little attention given to

lower priority expenditures such as supervision. Harvey and Struzziero (2008) cite that allocating funds to support ongoing, effective supervision may be too financially taxing for most school systems. They assert the expenses associated with providing high quality supervision can be enormous, including activities such as time spent engaged in supervisory activities to traveling to and from supervision. In terms of school budgets, the time spent on supervisory activities might be interpreted as a loss in providing direct psychological services to schools. These expenditures can be difficult to reconcile and are not often supported by school budgets, particularly during times of financial restraints.

Geographical Distance

Oftentimes school psychologists are geographically separated. This geographical distance creates an additional barrier to providing or receiving supervision. In urban and suburban settings, school psychologists struggle with meeting for supervision due to the distance apart from one another and the time it takes to travel to a central location. Although, professional standards recommend face-to-face supervision (NASP, 2000a), many supervisors and supervisees find it difficult leave schools on varying days and times of the week to engage in supervisory activities.

Geographical distance can be more of a challenge for supervisors and supervisees in rural locations. There are fewer school psychologists practicing in rural settings than in suburban or urban settings (Curtis et al., 2004). There may be situations where one or two school psychologists are responsible for entire school systems with no available supervisor.

Lack of Value

Due to the emphasis placed on crisis prevention and intervention programs and mental health services, most school systems struggle with viewing supervision as a necessity (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). To them, supervision is deemed as an expensive luxury. In sum, within the school system, "supervision is seen as a low priority and is not well funded, whether the supervisee is a teacher, counselor, or school psychologist" (Harvey & Struzziero, p. 15). Yet, supervision can have a strong impact on the future work of supervisees by enhancing professional experiences and clinical work (Ramos-Sanchez, Esnil, Goodwin, Riggs, Touster, Wright, Ratanasiripong, & Rodolfa, 2002). It would be the challenge of school psychologists, in the role of change agents, to demonstrate the importance and value of supervision in the schools and how it strengthens the professional development and growth of school psychologists.

Lack of Credentialed School Psychology Supervisors

School psychologists offer a multitude of psychological services in the schools and communities and are the most highly trained mental health experts in schools (Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000). School psychologists are expected to be competent in enhancing the cognitive and academic skills of children, data-based decision making, providing mental health services, issues related to diversity, and technological applications (Ysseldyke et al., 2008). These are only a few examples of the eight domains school psychologists are expected to demonstrate competency. Given the knowledge and expertise of school psychologists, school psychologist supervisors need to understand the multifaceted dimensions of the job to effectively provide clinical supervision, as well as assess and evaluate their level of competence and functioning. Harvey and Struzziero

(2000) adamantly state, "…only an individual trained as a school psychologist can provide adequate professional, or clinical, supervision and evaluation" (p. 4). Moreover, NASP (2000a, 2004) and the APA (1992) have also championed the notion that supervision should be provided by a credentialed school psychologist. Crespi (1997) stated supervisors without credentials in school psychology are problematic. He surmised that non-credentialed school psychology supervisors lack the training, knowledge, experience or skills required to assist in the development of supervisees. Researchers (Zins et al., 1989) have found that when school psychologists were actively engaged in supervisory activities by a staff member with a degree in another profession, their level of enthusiasm toward supervision significantly decreased. Furthermore, Chafouleas et al. (2002) reported that school psychologists prefer supervision from a school psychologist or someone who is familiar with the field. To that end, school psychology supervision literature (Crespi, 1997; Harvey & Struzziero, 2008; Zins et al., 1989) highly recommends that, when possible, supervision be provided by a skilled school psychologist.

Dual Roles of the School Psychology Supervisor

Crespi (1997) and Harvey and Struzziero (2000) reported that most supervisors struggle with the duality of their role, which includes both clinical and administrative functions. As a clinical supervisor, one is primarily concerned with "supporting practices consistent with professional standards, promoting ongoing professional development to improve and update skills, and insuring systems of personnel evaluation that are consistent with specific professional standards" (NASP, 2004, p. 2). Whereas administrative supervision "focuses on the functioning of the service unit, including

personnel issues, logistics of service delivery, and legal, contractual and organizational practices" (NASP, 2004, p. 1).

Supervisors report that supervision is complicated when the boundaries between clinical and administrative supervision are blurred (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Robiner et al., 1997). For some supervisors, it is difficult to shift between engaging in clinical supervision processes to performing managerial tasks related to administrative supervision. Those supervisors may merge both foci together, which interferes with the educative focus of clinical supervision and the evaluative process of administrative supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004).

Supervisors and supervisees alike have cited tasks associated with administrative supervision as problematic. Supervisors report that concentrating on the intricacies of the job such as personnel matters, record-keeping, and evaluative tasks, makes them less effective in providing clinical supervision (Haynes et al., 2003). Supervisees concur that supervision about administrative tasks is a major concern due to decreased clinical supervision time, feelings associated with lack of full attention to their needs, and supervisors who appear to be indecisive and overwhelmed (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002). Some have proposed hiring two supervisors to provide separate clinical and administrative supervision (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000). However, budget constraints and restrictions make this difficult to implement.

Supervision Models

A fundamental theory or conceptual model can inform and guide supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Hart (1982) illustrated this point by noting, "One can imitate an outstanding supervisor, but without theory or a conceptual model one does not

really understand the process of supervision" (p. 27). Supervision models help characterize what supervision looks like, describe the process of learning and development for the supervisee, and how supervisors and supervisees collaborate to build such learning and development. Haynes et al. (2003) posited that effective supervisors have well defined and articulated supervision models, "they know where they are going with the supervisee and what they need to do to get there" (p.109). As such, supervision models help supervisors share knowledge, assess professional competencies, and provide objective feedback with the supervisee (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000).

Many of the supervision models noted in the mental health literature (e.g., clinical, counseling, developmental, consultation, administrative, integrative, etc.) are based on established theories (e.g., consultation and systems/ecological models) and some are conceptual (e.g., Table 2). Some overlap in important respects, while others have distinct goals, epistemologies, and practices. Although Haynes et al. (2003) posited that supervision models are essential to the supervisory process, only a few authors have presented such models in the school psychology literature (e.g., Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Knoff, 1988). Therefore, a brief overview of several prominent and relevant supervision models is presented below in relation to school psychology supervision. The supervision models presented were selected based on those identified in the school psychology literature (e.g., Harvey & Struzziero; Knoff).

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is the most influential and widely used supervision model in mental health practice (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Haynes et al., 2003). It is broadly viewed as "an ongoing educational process" between supervisors and supervisees in

Table 2

Overview of Supervision Models Goals, Strengths and Weaknesses

Supervision Models	Goal(s)	Strengths	Weaknesses
Clinical Supervision	● Face-to-face efforts focusing on professional skills and interventions involving client relationships with the intention of enhancing, expanding, and improving skills and services	● To provide professional experiences and techniques to foster confidence and professional objectivity in the school setting. ● Offers continued development of skills necessary to work with students, and help guide the supervisee toward best practices and approaches	● Tasks associated with administrative supervision interfere with time spent engaged in clinical supervision. ● Poor supervisor characteristics can hinder the supervisory relationship
Administrative Supervision	● Individual and system are integrated and simultaneously	● Emphasis on shared decision making ● Increased effectiveness and employee	● Some supervisors have difficulty with shifting between administrative tasks

	addressed.	satisfaction.	and providing clinical supervision.
Psychodynamic Supervision	• Provide training opportunities for the supervisee to further understand psychoanalytic processes and dynamics of resolving conflict to better serve clients.	• Has a well-established history • Working alliance and parallel process are essential to the process	• School psychology practice is not typically grounded in psychodynamic supervision • Difficulty with distinguishing between therapeutic interactions and supervision
Client-Centered Supervision	• Emphasis is placed on the theory of process in the context of the supervisory relationship. • Focused on the attitude of the supervisee and their development of the facilitating	• Personal therapy is perceived as beneficial. • First to use electronically recorded interviews and transcripts as an evaluative tools.	• Exhausted its relevancy to current contemporary researchers, practitioners, and counselors. • Little advancement in research in this area

		conditions for psychological change	
Cognitive-Behavioral Supervision	● Teaches specific techniques coupled with the focus of identifying strengths and weaknesses of the supervisee's cognitions and abilities.	● Supervisory process facilitates a highly structured, focused, and systematic evaluation process. ● Teachable moments provide the opportunity for the supervisor and supervisee to clearly communicate about processes and goals of supervision, and assess and monitor skill development.	● Lacks the consideration of other variables that may influence supervisory processes (e.g., supervisee's personal dynamics).
Integrated Developmental Model (IDM)	● More focused on the *process* of supervision and the evolutionary growth of the	● Evaluation tool to assess supervisees' level of functioning	● Model lacks developmental-specific methodology and evidence to make claims of significant

	supervisee.		supervisee growth
	• Provide the opportunity for supervisors to evolve and adapt their level of supervision according to the growth and development of the supervisee.		
Eclectic and Integrative Approaches	• Adopting supervision models that are suitable for specific setting, needs, context, and goals.	• Creating a supervision model that provides flexibility • Eclectism takes into consideration multiple factors	• Integrating more than one model could taint the effectiveness of one particular model and confuse the supervisory process.

which "the supervisee acquires appropriate professional behavior through…professional activities" (Hart, 1982, p. 12). In counseling psychology, these professional activities are characterized as ongoing observations and evaluations of the *counseling process*, and providing corrective feedback of the supervisee's relationships with clients (Haynes et al., 2003). Although these activities are similar to professional activities in school psychology, there is little emphasis in school psychology placed on therapeutic interventions and interactions.

Clinical supervision, as conducted in school psychology, has been defined as a way for supervisors to provide professional experiences and techniques to increase a school psychologist supervisee's confidence, skill, knowledge and professional objectivity in the school setting (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). For example, school psychology supervisors utilize tools and techniques to help identify, analyze and evaluate potential areas of weaknesses (e.g., lack of confidence or objectivity), and develop those skills with constructive and positive supervisor-supervisee feedback and interactions. Knoff (1988) posited that clinical supervision also offers continued development of contemporary skills necessary to work with students, and help guide the supervisee toward the best ethical, legal, and educational practices and approaches.

Clinical supervision entails careful attention to details, observations, and evaluative processes of independent professionals (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000). For instance, good clinical supervision may involve working effectively with school psychology supervisees who demonstrate strong professional skills and knowledge, but may lack professional confidence and objectivity. It would be the supervisor's responsibility to help supervisee(s) develop professional confidence and objectivity to

enhance overall services by providing corrective feedback and sharing alternative approaches to problem solving.

Although there are many potential benefits to clinical supervision, several challenges may interfere with implementing it. Haynes and colleagues (2003) indicated that supervisor characteristics can negatively impact the supervisory relationship and hinder the supervisee's development. For instance, negative supervisor characteristics (e.g., overly critical or judgmental, rigid, unavailable to the supervisee, self-consumed, not committed to the supervisory process, or demonstrating unethical behaviors) may trigger self doubt and fears in the supervisee, especially a novice practitioner. As mentioned earlier, lack of time is another barrier to providing effective clinical supervision. School psychologists reported that time constraints limited face-to-face supervision (Ross & Goh, 1993) and schools generally do not support time away from schools to allow the necessary time for weekly supervision meetings (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). Moreover, supervisors are sometimes faced with challenging supervisees. Supervisees may be impaired by external factors (e.g., environmental or personal stressors, adjusting to new institutional/organization norms and policies, developing new skills), internal problems (e.g., depression, physical ailments, low self-esteem), or a combination of both (Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003). When dealing with impaired supervisees, Lamb and Swerdlik recommend that supervisors engage in remedial and preventive measures such as increasing supervision, changing the goals, formats, emphasis and/or focus of supervision, and/or reducing the supervisee's workload.

Administrative Supervision

Administrative supervision focuses on the administrative duties associated with school psychology. Administrative supervision addresses the logistical aspects of service delivery, the legal and ethical practices of the psychological services unit, and personnel issues. Furthermore, administrative supervision is primarily concerned with job responsibilities and assignments, professional behaviors and conditions of employment. Unlike clinical supervisors, administrative supervisors are more focused on "outcomes and consumer satisfaction rather than discipline-specific professional skills" (NASP, 2004, p. 2).

Administrative supervision is different from other supervision models in that it is not based on a psychological theory. Administrative supervision had its beginnings in business management (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000). In the business literature, supervisory practices are categorized under three distinct models: Traditional Management, Human Relations, and Human Resources. Each model has its own goals and processes, and the literature about these processes is quite extensive and extends beyond the scope of this manuscript (e.g., Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). However, Harvey and Struzziero (2000) indicated that the Human Resources model is closely aligned with school psychology practices due to its emphasis on shared decision making. The Human Resource model focuses on coaching and empowering employees which eventually leads to both increased effectiveness and employee satisfaction.

Administrative supervision is pertinent to the field (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; NASP, 2004) because school psychology supervisors are responsible for overseeing and supporting the personnel and logistical practices of the supervisees. That is,

administrative supervisors help supervisees attend to intricate parts of the job such as time- and record-keeping, punctuality, fulfilling their job responsibilities, and understanding organizational changes and/or policy procedures. Although, administrative supervision may not appear as educative as other supervision models, it is as important in the professional development of school psychology supervisees.

Like other models, administrative supervision presents its own set of problems and challenges. As described earlier, administrative supervision interferes with the amount of time a supervisor is able to provide clinical supervision. Supervisors and supervisees have both expressed frustrations related to this interference. For example, some supervisors struggle with shifting between providing effective clinical supervision and performing administrative tasks, which are both necessary in the supervisory process (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Crespi, 1997; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008). Time consuming tasks involving time- and record-keeping, personnel matters, and performing evaluations significantly impact a supervisor's time to provide clinical supervision (Haynes et al., 2003). For supervisees, administrative supervision also can be perceived as a source of contention. Supervisees may perceive that administrative duties significantly limited the time they were able to receive clinical supervision. They may feel that their supervisor's attention is divided, and perceive their supervisors' as indecisive and overwhelmed (Kadushin & Harkness, 2002).

Psychodynamic Supervision

Psychodynamic supervision is one of the longest standing supervision models in the literature dating back to the early 1900's (Haynes et al., 2003). Bernard and Goodyear (2004) argued that psychoanalytic conceptions have singlehandedly influenced

supervision theory and practice more than any other model. In 1922, supervision in psychoanalysis was used to standardize training of psychology students (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Since that time, psychodynamic supervision has evolved greatly over the course of time due to diversity in thoughts, perspectives, and conceptualizations of how it should look.

The premise of the psychodynamic model generally suggests that the focus of supervision is "on supervisees learning to use themselves effectively in helping relationships. This is accomplished primarily by concentrating on the dynamics of the supervisory relationship in order to monitor constructive or destructive ways of relating or reacting to others. It is assumed that understanding the relationship dynamics of the supervisor and supervisee will generalize to understanding the dynamics between supervisees and their clients" (Sullivan & Conoley, 2008, p. 1958). In other words, there is a cyclical process of teaching and learning that emphasizes the triadic relationship between the supervisor, supervisee and client, and psychological processes (i.e., parallel process). Psychodynamic supervision is not therapy; thus, a therapeutic relationship should not develop, which could significantly impede supervisee growth. The teaching aspect of psychodynamic supervision is to extend the understanding of the dynamics of resolving potential conflicts and enhance the supervisees' work with clients (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Haynes et al. (2003) suggested that psychodynamic supervision provides the opportunity for the supervisee to learn particular aspects (e.g., resistance, respect for client, patience, trust in the process, transference, etc.) of therapy that may also reflect the supervisory process.

Working alliance and parallel process are specific components that are essential to psychodynamic supervision. Working alliance is when the supervisor and supervisee have a willingness to work with one another in efforts to develop the supervisee and engage in effective and ethical practices with the client (Conoley & Bahns, 1995). Relatedly, parallel process is essential to the supervisor-supervisee relationship as well. Parallel process is characterized as identifying any 'parallels' that may mirror supervisee-client interactions (Haynes et al., 2003). For instance, if a supervisee has difficulties with closure and ending relationships, these feelings may impact how the supervisee terminates therapeutic relationships with clients, as well as ending a professional relationship with the supervisor.

There are a few notable drawbacks to the psychodynamic model. One is the struggle to differentiate between therapeutic interactions and supervision. An illustration of a therapeutic interaction might reflect a supervisor providing therapeutic counseling for personal unresolved issues rather than referring the supervisee for outside professional assistance. This type of supervisor-supervisee interaction may impede the working alliance between the two parties (Conoley & Bahns, 1995; Conoley & Sullivan, 2002; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008). Similarly, Conoley and Bahns (1995) suggested that if the supervisor is not *aware* of or does not acknowledge the creation of a psychotherapeutic relationship, it may adversely impact the development and effectiveness of the supervisee. Again, the purpose of psychodynamic supervision is not to develop a therapeutic relationship between the supervisor and supervisee but to provide training opportunities for the supervisee to further understand psychoanalytic processes and dynamics of resolving conflicts to better serve the client.

Client-Centered Supervision

Client-centered supervision is unique from other supervision models because it is more focused on the *attitude* of the supervisee and their development of the facilitating conditions: genuineness, empathy, understanding and warmth (Haynes et al., 2003). Emphasis is placed on the *process* of learning and the supervisory relationship (Bernard and Goodyear, 2004; Haynes et al.). Client-centered supervisors trust and believe that supervisees have the ability and motivation to self-explore any difficulties they may experience in the *process*. Also, supervisors believe that supervisees will demonstrate the ability to communicate the facilitating conditions in any relationship, particularly with clients. In the supervisory relationship, it is the responsibility of the supervisor to teach the supervisee how to communicate these conditions, strive to reach full potential (e.g., self-actualization), and effectively utilize these skills in therapy with clients. Carl Rogers, the founder of client-centered therapy, stated the major goal of client-centered supervision is "to help the therapist to grow in self-confidence and to grow in understanding of himself or herself, and to grow in understanding the therapeutic process…[and] to explore any difficulties the therapist may feel he or she is having working with a client. Supervision…becomes a modified form of the therapeutic interview" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004, p. 79).

Specific skills and techniques are taught in a supportive environment to enhance the supervisee's level of competence and confidence. The supervisee also takes an active role in this learning process. Since client-centered supervision focuses on the process of learning and the supervisory relationship, personal therapy for the supervisee is deemed as important in honing skills to self-reflect and better understand interpersonal

relationships (Conoley & Bahns, 1995). Unique to client-centered supervision is the pioneering work of Rogers' who used electronically recorded interviews and transcripts as evaluative tools of the supervisee professional development (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Conoley & Bahns). Supervisors use audio- and video-tapes, modeling, role-plays, and live demonstrations as a means to increase supervisees' effectiveness (Bernard & Goodyear, 1998; Conoley & Bahns, 1995; Cramer & Rosenfield, 2003; Rosenfield, 2002).

Criticism of the model implies that client-centered supervision has exhausted its relevancy to current contemporary researchers and mental health practitioners (Gelso & Carter, 1985). Gelso and Carter extend this argument by citing there have been fewer publications produced on client-centered therapy and supervision.

Cognitive-Behavioral Supervision

Unlike other supervision models, cognitive and behavioral therapies each have their beginning as independent entities with different foci. Cognitive therapy focuses on the modification of the client's cognitions, beliefs, and assumptions and how they influence emotion and behavior. Whereas, the behavioral therapy is more concerned with observable behaviors and classical and operant conditioning as models of learning (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Now blended, the underlying assumption for cognitive-behavioral supervision is that behaviors are learned and maintained by natural consequences. The goal of supervision under this model is the teaching of specific cognitive-behavioral techniques coupled with the focus of identifying strengths and weaknesses of the supervisee's cognitions and abilities. In return, the supervisory process facilitates a highly structured, focused, and systematic evaluation process unlike any

other model. Liese and Beck (1997) noted, for example, nine specific steps that may take place during cognitive-behavioral supervision: check-in, agenda setting, review of previous supervision session, review of therapy cases, discussion related to homework since previous supervision session, prioritize agenda items for discussion, assignment of new homework, supervisor summarizes session, and receives elicit feedback from the supervisee. Each step contributes to the learning and development of the supervisee as they progress through the therapeutic sessions.

In addition to the structured supervision sessions, cognitive-behavioral supervision is distinguished from other models due to its continuous, systematic approach to skill analysis, assessment and monitoring of supervisee's progress toward pre-established, measurable goals. In school psychology, Conoley and Bahns (1995) characterized the skill analysis methods of cognitive-behavioral supervision as: (a) establishing a relationship between supervisor and supervisee; (b) assessing skills; (c) setting supervision goals; (d) generating and implementing strategies to accomplish goals; and (e) evaluating strategies and generalization of learning. Some of the techniques generally used by cognitive-behavioral supervisors to assess competence are Socratic questioning, behavioral rehearsals, imagery exercises, role play, and manualized treatments (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). For instance, a supervisor may challenge a supervisee's approach or misconceptions during a supervision session. These teachable moments are seen as a strength of cognitive-behavioral supervision because it provides the opportunity for the supervisor and supervisee to clearly communicate about the process and goals of supervision, and assess and monitor skill development. The supervisee's level of competency and proficiency is based on his or her performance with

the learned skills and observable, appropriate behaviors (Conoley & Bahns, 1995; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008). A noted weakness of cognitive-behavioral supervision is the lack of attention given to the supervisee's personal dynamics (e.g., personality, environmental stressor, etc) that may impact the supervisory process (Sullivan & Conoley).

Developmental Models

Like client-centered supervision, developmental supervision models are more focused on the *process* of supervision rather than theoretical bases. The evolutionary growth of the supervisee is the fundamental element of developmental models. The assumption is that all supervisees progress through stages characterized by skill development and professional confidence. There are several models of development but the most established are the Integrated Developmental Model, and the Rønnestad and Skovholt Model, which are briefly addressed.

The *Integrated Developmental Model (IDM)* developed by Stoltenberg, McNeill, and Delworth (1998) describes three developmental milestone stages the supervisee passes through. It is important to note the stages are not distinctly separate from one another, but may overlap. However, a supervisor would still witness a natural and fluent progression toward a higher level. The observable changes within the stages are characterized by "three overriding structures that provide markers in assessing professional growth" (Stoltenberg et al., 1998, p. 16). These three structures are: *self and other awareness* ("where the person is in terms of self-pre-occupation, awareness of the client's world, and enlightened self-awareness" (p. 16); *motivation* ("reflects the supervisee's interest, investment, and efforted expended in clinical training and practice"

p. 16); and *autonomy* ("the degree of independence demonstrated by [the supervisee]" p. 16). These structures are useful in tracking the developmental changes of the supervisee.

Stoltenberg et al. (1998) suggests that all supervisees demonstrate similar characteristics within each level as based on these structures. Level 1 supervisees are described as novices to the field and generally lack confidence in their abilities and have limited training and experience. Supervisees in this stage are dependent on the supervisor, want to know the *right* approach to working with clients, require more structure, and are apprehensive about evaluations. Level 2 supervisees begin to demonstrate more self-reliance in their decision making processes and abilities. Characteristics that generally describe Level 2 supervisees include vacillation between being confident and confused, conflict between autonomy and dependency, and evidence of more developed skills in work with clients. Lastly, Level 3 supervisees are more independent practitioners and demonstrate a more personalized approach to their work with clients. These supervisees are more collegial with their supervisor, more consistent in their approach, evidence solid belief in their decision making and professional judgment, and are able to self reflect at higher levels. Level 3i (integrated) is an extension of Level 3. Level 3i (integrated) demonstrates one's ability to easily move across all three domains and possess the ability to identify one's own strengths and weaknesses.

Critical analysis of several developmental models, including IDM, suggest that "…researchers are interpreting their results as tentatively supporting a developmental model, lack of developmental-specific methodology, confinement to the supervisory experience as a source of information, predominant use of structured self-report questionnaires, and lack of evidence of distinct, sequential stages in trainees' growth

reflect the prematurity of such claims" (Holloway, 1987, p. 215). Notwithstanding this criticism, Holloway continues to underscore external factors that may significantly impact the supervisees' development not accounted for in the series of stages.

The *Rønnestad and Skovholt Model* (RSM) provides a more expansive developmental approach compared to other developmental models. RSM extends beyond graduate training and internships to include a professional life span. Another unique feature of RSM is its qualitative and longitudinal work of understanding the development of 100 counselors and therapists at different experience levels (e.g., beginning and advanced graduate students, practitioners with 5-15 years of professional psychology experience). Rønnestad and Skovholt (2003) produced six phases and 14 themes illustrating the developmental trajectory of a professional. The six phases will be briefly discussed.

In Phase 1, the Lay Helper Phase, supervisees are considered novice "helpers" that have general experience with helping others but lack professional experiences. Thus, they are more reliant upon personal epistemology and common sense when helping others make decisions, improve relationships and solve problems (Rønnestad & Skovholt, 2003, Skovholt & Rønnestad, 1992). The Beginning Student Phase, the second phase, is generally overwhelmed with learning new theories, conducting research, and interacting with professionals. Beginning students are more concerned with doing things that right way and they are considered to be more emotional and in a volatile state (Rønnestad & Skovholt; Skovholt & Rønnestad). Phase 3, The Advanced Student Phase, is a student that is working in a field placement (e.g., school psychology internship or practicum) and the recipient of frequent and formal supervision. They are considered to be more

cautious, thorough, and conservative in their approach as opposed to being relaxed, taking risks, or spontaneous. Moreover, advanced students recognize and appreciate the level of professional training received and they are generally provided with the opportunity to supervise (Rønnestad & Skovholt; Skovholt & Rønnestad). Within the first five years of graduation, the novice professional is excited about the possibilities of practicing without the rigors of graduate training, freedom from supervision constraints, and ready to implement many of the skills learned as defined by Phase 4, The Novice Professional Phase (Rønnestad & Skovholt; Skovholt & Rønnestad). The Experienced Professional Phase, the fifth phase, is characterized by practitioners with several professional experiences, possibly in different settings, who seek more authentic practices that are reflective of one's values, interests, and attitudes. The experienced practitioners become more of an expert with regulating his/her involvement and identification with clients, and clear boundaries are drawn for differentiating responsibility (Rønnestad & Skovholt; Skovholt & Rønnestad). The last phase, The Senior Professional Phase, described professionals who are well established and have been practicing for 20 years or more. Senior professionals experience a sense of loss due to preparation for retirement, "reports of distress, sadness, and concern about failing health of self and family members, or reduced energy, limitations in activities and accomplishments…their own professional elders are no longer alive and same age colleagues are generally no longer a strong source of influence" (Rønnestad & Skovholt, p. 26).

Again, criticisms of most developmental models include they are too simplistic, and neglect to acknowledge multiple dimensions and roles in the supervisee's professional and personal life (Holloway, 1987). In sum, developmental models provide

the opportunity for supervisors to evolve and adapt their level of supervision according to the growth and development of the supervisee.

Eclectic and Integrative Approaches

There are multiple supervision models that supervisors can choose to inform one's practice. Some supervisors choose to adopt an eclectic or integrative approach. There is some contention in the literature about these two approaches and their appropriateness for school psychological practices. Scholars like Kaufman and Schwartz (2003) surmise that the role of a school psychologist supervisor is too multi-faceted and complex to adhere to one particular supervision model or approach. Moreover, Haynes and colleagues (2003) embrace the notion that eclectism of supervision models yields better outcomes of the supervisees' level of competency due to its adaptability to various situations and settings. To extend this notion further, others (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Kaufman & Schwartz, 2003) predict that integration of models is inevitable. Kaufman and Schwartz (2003) suggest that supervision is reflective of a supervisor's values, personal characteristics and overall orientation. That is, a supervisor "considers themselves eclectic and will adjust supervision in concert with the issues and materials that the student presents" (p. 147). Kaufman and Schwartz also assert that eclectism takes into consideration multiple factors (e.g., interpersonal and intrapersonal factors, client variables, culture, personal attributes, personality characteristics, etc.) that interplay throughout the supervisory process. Yet, Knoff (1988) is opposed to the ideology of integrating two or more models. For instance, Knoff provided a critical analysis of the differences between clinical, counseling, and consultation supervision models. He advocated that supervisors should carefully differentiate between the models and only

implement one over the other to achieve maximum effectiveness in supervision. To do otherwise, he cautions, could taint the effectiveness of the model and could produce "conceptual, pragmatic, and ethical implications. At best, the use of more than one of these models in a single supervisory relationship confuses the entire process…" (Knoff, p. 250). Haynes et al. suggested that development of a supervision model should include great thought, reflection and consideration, basic knowledge of the theoretical orientation and techniques, and continuous expansion of professional growth through workshops and other activities.

<div align="center">Supervision Formats and Techniques</div>

The most common formats used for supervision are individual, group and peer sessions (Campbell, 2000, 2006; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Riva & Cornish, 1995). Within each of these formats are specific methods and techniques.

Individual Supervision

Individual supervision remains the most popular method of supervision, particularly during the first few years of practice. Individual supervision is typically characterized as a one-on-one interaction, or session, between the supervisor and supervisee. The supervisor-supervisee interactions during individual supervision typically reflect the supervisor's orientation, model, and goals, especially during the earlier stages of the supervisory relationship (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). As the relationship develops, the focus of individual supervision may shift and reflect more of the advanced supervisee's goal and epistemology as well.

The most common techniques used during individual supervision include assigned readings, case consultation, analysis of audiotapes and videotapes, role play, and written assignments (Campbell, 2000). Bernard and Goodyear (2004) note that the techniques and strategies employed in individual supervision should be flexible and conducive to accomplishing the pre-established training goals.

Group Supervision

Bernard and Goodyear (2004) have defined group supervision as:

"the regular meeting of a group of supervisees with a designated supervisor or supervisors to monitor the quality of their work and to further their understanding of themselves as clinicians, of the clients with whom they work, and of service delivery in general. These supervisees are aided in achieving these goals by their supervisor(s) and by their feedback from and interactions with each other" (p. 235).

Group supervision has many positive attributes that demonstrate its usefulness in the development of supervisees. According to Bernard and Goodyear, group supervision provides the opportunity for vicarious learning for supervisees, it minimizes supervisee dependence, it exposes supervisees to broader ranges of expertise and clientele, feedback for the supervisee is delivered in greater quantity and diversity, and greater quality in the feedback for the supervisee.

Conversely, group supervision has been cited with some shortcomings. Notable drawbacks included group format may not permit individuals to get what the necessary level of individual supervision, confidentiality concerns, certain group phenomena that

impedes learning, and the group may devote too much time to issues of limited relevance to or interest for the other group members.

In addition to the advantages and disadvantages of group supervision, there are crucial issues pertaining to the structure of group supervision such as group size, frequency and duration of sessions, and group processes (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Riva & Cornish, 1995). For example, the literature remains inconclusive about an optimal group number (Bernard & Goodyear). Some suggest that group size should consist of 5-6 members, while others suggest at least seven (Bernard & Goodyear; Riva & Cornish). What is consistent, however, is that supervisors should consider group sizes that allow each supervisee to receive an adequate amount of attention, and enough supervisees to avoid group disruption caused by absenteeism and dropout (Bernard & Goodyear). The most commonly used group supervision activities are didactic presentations, case consultations, role-play, assigned readings, and observations of group members' and supervisor(s)' clinical skills.

Peer Supervision

Peer supervision has been characterized as professional support groups that help practitioners hone their skills under the direction and guidance of professional peers. Peer supervision groups are flexible and can look different to suit the needs of its members. Some groups are more structured with supervisor-led formats, and others are unstructured and prefer open dialogue as different problems and issues arise. In either case, peers offer each other supervision to professional issues (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). Authors have contended that peer supervision should all have certain conditions depending on the setting. In clinical practice, peer supervision should function under "a sincere desire to

improve one's clinical skills" (Bernard & Goodyear, p. 254). In schools or mental health settings, peer supervision should have administrative support to conduct such meetings. And independent peer supervision groups should be formed under the basic tenets that it members are professionals that respect each other and work well together.

Peer supervision is different from individual and group supervision in many ways. First, it does not involve a hierarchical relationship, it is considered more informal. Second, supervisees reportedly feel more accountable to the process by assuming leadership role and responsibilities, which may rotate. Finally, there are no evaluative procedures (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004).

In addition to its uniqueness from other group formats, there are some advantages and disadvantages. Advantages of peer supervision include professionals are more engage in reflective activities, the format is more appealing to adult learners, peer supervision provides the opportunity to explore familiar experiences, and it serves as a forum of continuing professional development as members shared new information with the group (Bernard & Goodyear). Furthermore, peer supervision has been noted to contribute to counter professional isolation and burnout, as well as, helping more advanced practitioners stay abreast of current knowledge, research and technology (Bernard & Goodyear). Disadvantages included within group coalitions, lack of facilitation of communication, lack of leadership and direction, and rigidness in handling crisis situations (Bernard & Goodyear). Furthermore, Harvey and Struzziero (2000) cautioned that peer supervision should not be used independently for the novice school psychology supervisee but in conjunction with individual and group supervision.

In sum, supervision models can inform supervisory practices. Although, supervision models are potentially important to the supervision process, little information is known about how supervision models are being used, if at all, by school psychology supervisors, how supervision models guide the work of school psychology supervisors and supervisees, or what type of models are perceived by supervisors or supervisees to be effective. Thus, there is a great need to investigate whether and, if so, how supervision models impact supervision in school psychology.

Conclusion and Need for Further Research

Effective supervision is critical to the professional development of mental health practitioners including school psychologists (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Crespi & Dube, 2005; Crespi, 1997; Everett & Koerpel, 1986; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000; Kaufman & Schwartz, 2003; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins, et al., 1989). Supervision is considered to be a professional necessity. Supervision can help school psychologists improve professional competencies and objectivity, design and implement intervention and prevention strategies, make better decisions, and enhance delivery of services. Knoff (1986) asserts that supervision can assist school psychologists in sharpening skills and strengthening knowledge, "receiving support for lapses of confidence," gaining multiple perspectives to prevent practitioner biases and prejudices, and recognizing interpersonal weaknesses (p. 530). Knoff also postulates that "Supervision…is an internal professional 'check and balance' that facilitates accountable services to children and other clients, while providing ongoing professional development for the school psychologist, regardless of his or her current status and/or past experiences" (p. 530-531). Furthermore, with ongoing changes in federal laws and

mandates, social and political trends, economic changes, and school psychology paradigm shifts, supervision is essential to helping practitioners remain professional astute.

Yet, given the potential impact of supervision on school psychological practices, research in this area is scant (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Crespi & Dube, 2005; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Knoff, 1986; McIntosh & Phelps, 2000; Robiner & Schofield, 1990; Welsh et al., 2003). The last significant attention given to supervision issues in a school psychology journal known to the author was nearly thirty years ago when *School Psychology Review* dedicated an entire issue in 1981. Since that period of time, there have been pockets of conceptual papers and some empirical research specifically pertaining to issues related to supervision in school psychology (McIntosh & Phelps) and two published books by the same authors (Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008). McIntosh and Phelps contend that research in supervision is "lethargic" because "designing, implementing, conducting, and analyzing supervision research would be a monumental endeavor few researchers are prepared to undertake" (p. 36). Namely, there are numerous variables to consider when researching issues related to supervision; thus, making it difficult to decide which variables should be studied. For example, while researching the impact of supervision there are variables that could potentially influence the process such as differing theoretical orientation, graduate training experiences, different approaches to supervision, personality conflicts, supervisor and supervisee impairment, regional differences, student to school psychologist ratios, work load, and/or work setting.

Although conducting research in supervision in school psychology may be challenging, there are some promising ways to explore supervision practices. First, one

approach would be to explore the different supervision models and identify what variables contribute to effective supervision (McIntosh & Phelps). For example, developmental supervision models note several observable stages supervisees' progress through before engaging in autonomous practice. Researchers could examine these stages to track and identify variables that lead to preferred outcomes such as improved service delivery and decision making skills. Another example could include the cognitive-behavioral model which uses a highly structured, focused, and systematic approach to providing supervision. Researchers could examine this particular model to recognize what variables specifically contribute to the development of the supervisee, or how this model helps improve the practices of a school psychologist. Since many of the supervision models are based on established theories, there are many ways one could design future research studies (McIntosh & Phelps).

Another way to research supervision practices in school psychology is to explore pragmatically how supervision can lead to more effective school psychologists (Ross & Goh, 1993). Thus, researchers can begin by asking questions that may unravel the complexities of supervision in school psychology such as, "What is an effective supervisor? What is an effective school psychologist? How does the process of supervision relate to the desired product – an effective school psychologist?" This direction will help extend the existing literature by identifying specific variables that demonstrate how effective supervision can lead to an effective school psychologist, and inform evaluation practices in supervision (Ross & Goh). Finally, researching supervision practices in school psychology could include different approaches to methodology. The majority of the existing empirical studies utilized quantitative methods such as surveys

and questionnaires (e.g., Chafouleas et al., 2002; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Ross & Goh, 1993; Ward, 2001; Zins et al., 1989), there are only a few qualitative or mixed method studies that exist on the topic (e.g., Haboush, 2003; Thielking, Moore, & Jimerson, 2006). Qualitative research would provide a better understanding of supervision, help researchers gain deeper insight into the perceptions of supervisors and supervisees, as well as serve as a springboard to conduct future quantitative studies with a more focused direction (McIntosh & Phelps, 2000).

There has been little advancement in our understanding of supervision practices or models in school psychology in the past three decades. There are many questions related to issues in supervision that have gone unanswered. Some questions that continue to remain unclear are: (a) what type of supervision, if any, do school psychology practitioners receive, (b) what supervision model(s), if any, are used, (c) what are the perceptions of school psychology supervisees' as it relates to the supervision process, (d) how do school psychologists perceive the impact of supervision on one's practice, (e) what are the current roadblocks that interfere with efforts to providing or receiving supervision, and (f) how do rural school psychologists obtain supervision? In other words, there is a great need to understand how supervision may lead to more competent school psychologists, how does supervision improve psychological practices, and contribute to the professional growth of practicing school psychologists.

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CHAPTER 2

PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY PRACTITIONERS AND

SUPERVISORS REGARDING SUPERVISION PRACTICES IN THE

SOUTHEASTERN REGION OF THE US: AN EXPLORATORY

STUDY USING CONCEPT MAPPING

Introduction

Supervision is essential to the development of school psychologists (Chafouleas,

Clonan, & Vanauken, 2002; Crespi & Fischetti, 1997; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey

& Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Knoff, 1986; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins, Murphy & Wess,

1989). Supervision has been cited in conceptual and empirical literature as instrumental

in enhancing the delivery of school psychological services (Franklin & Duley, 2002;

Ross & Goh; Welsh, Stanley & Wilmoth, 2003), ethical decision making skills (Bersoff,

2003; Harvey & Struzziero; Jacob-Timm & Hartshorne, 1998), evaluation skills (Harvey

& Struzziero; Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008), and counseling and

communication techniques (Blair & Peake, 1995; Campbell, 2000, 2006; Haynes, Corey

& Moulton, 2003; Wood & Rayle, 2006). Researchers have posited that effective

supervision cultivates professional competence and objectivity, enhances service

delivery, encourages critical thinking and problem solving, and supports school

psychologists to engage in continuous professional development activities (Chafouleas et

al.; Crespi & Fischetti; Fischetti & Crespi; Harvey & Struzziero; Knoff; Ross & Goh;

Zins et al.). Supervision also provides supportive and educational opportunities for the

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supervisee to engage actively and critically in best practices. These opportunities then allow school psychology practitioners to (a) learn new techniques and skills, (b) design and implement programs and interventions with helpful feedback, (c) work through personal biases to achieve professional objectivity, (d) collaborate closely with professionals with more expertise in a particular domain, and (e) receive support to engage in professional associations to extend learning (Harvey & Struzziero; Knoff).

School psychologists who received supervision reported that their delivery of psychological services improved (Chafouleas et al., 2002) and they were more satisfied and enthusiastic toward their jobs (Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989). Researchers also found that supervision can have a strong impact on the future work of practitioners by (a) increasing job satisfaction, (b) enhancing training experiences and clinical work, and (c) encouraging collegiality among co-workers (Ramos-Sanchez, Esnil, Goodwin, Riggs, Touster, Wright, Ratanasiripong, & Rodolfa, 2002; Ross & Goh, 1993; Ward, 2001).

Defining Supervision

McIntosh and Phelps (2000) summarized supervision in school psychology as "an interpersonal interaction between two or more individuals for the purpose of sharing knowledge, assessing professional competencies, and providing objective feedback with the terminal goals of developing new competencies, facilitating effective delivery of psychological services, and maintaining professional competencies" (p. 33-34). To this end, supervision promotes "effective growth and exemplary professional practice leading to improved performance by all, including the school psychologist, supervisor, students, and the entire school community" (NASP, 2004).

Professional Support

Professional associations, such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2000a, 2000b, 2004) and the American Psychological Association (APA, 1981, 1992), support supervision practices in school psychology. Specifically, NASP (2000a) asserts that school psychologists should receive direct face-to-face supervision by a credentialed school psychologist for a minimum of two hours per week to ensure "the provision of effective and accountable services", especially during the first three years of practice (p. 56). Likewise, APA (1981) highly recommends that non-doctoral school psychologists be supervised face-to-face for a minimum of one hour weekly by a professional school psychologist "who assumes professional responsibility and accountability" for psychological services provided (p. 674). Yet, most school psychology practitioners do not receive supervision as recommended (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Knoff, 1986; Zins et al., 1989).

Do School Psychologists Actually Receive Supervision?

Despite multiple empirical studies (e.g., Chafouleas et al., 2002; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989), and support from governing professional associations' standards and guidelines that encourage supervision (NASP, 2000a, 2004; APA, 1992), most school psychologists do not receive supervision. Zins et al. (1989) reported fewer than a quarter of the practitioners surveyed were engaged in supervision activities. Likewise, Fischetti and Crespi (1999) found only ten percent of surveyed practicing school psychologists received supervision. Doctoral and non-doctoral practitioners alike desired more frequent and regularly scheduled supervision meetings than they were receiving, especially during the earlier years of their careers (Chafouleas

et al.; Ross & Goh; Ward, 2001). Thus, there is a discrepancy between recommended standards and actual supervision practices (Chafouleas et al.; Fischetti & Crespi; Knoff, 1986; McIntosh & Phelps, 2000; Ross & Goh; Zins et al.).

For those school psychologists who actually receive individual or group supervision, researchers found that supervision is typically provided on an as-needed basis or less than two hours per month rather than at regularly scheduled supervision times (Chafouleas et al., 2002). Ross and Goh (1993) indicated that school psychologists with three or less years of experience received less than one hour of supervision per week. A national survey of supervision practices suggests that supervision was oftentimes provided by a non-credentialed school psychologist (Chafouleas et al.) or a non-doctoral supervisor (Zins et al., 1989). Additionally, the most commonly endorsed supervision activities included case consultation, assistance with procedural or legal issues, collegial support, providing feedback, discussion of intervention or counseling cases, or a review of written reports (Chafouleas et al.; Ross & Goh; Zins et al.). All studies highlighted that current supervision practices were inconsistent with NASP and APA recommended standards.

Considering such discrepancies in supervision practices, an essential question becomes how can this gap be remedied? Researchers have suggested that school psychologists should advocate for securing supervision by developing peer supervision groups, contracting with neighboring school systems for supervision opportunities, and/or arranging clinical case conferences where counseling and assessment cases could be discussed (Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Ross & Goh, 1993). On the other hand, it was recommended that supervisors should expand opportunities for supervision through other

means such as conducting group supervision or supporting peer supervision networks (Fischetti & Crespi; Ross & Goh). There is a need to explore what practitioners and supervisors believe are impediments that inhibit supervision efforts. Further, there is a need to generate discussion about what advocacy methods will increase opportunities to provide and receive supervision.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this exploratory research is to (a) understand school psychology practitioners' and supervisors' perceptions about supervision in school psychology, (b) explore participants' perceptions about what impediments may hinder efforts to receive or provide supervision, (c) identify supervisors' and practitioners' perceptions about what advocacy methods may increase opportunities to provide and receive supervision in school psychology, and, (d) examine if school psychology supervisors and practitioners agree on potential impediments and possible facilitators to improve supervision practices. The goal of this study is to collect the perceptions of practicing school psychologists and supervisors to provide information about how the gap between actual and desired practices can be remediated. As articulated by Knoff (1986) "supervision cannot be ignored, forgotten, or left for the future. It is a necessary step in our professional and public accountability. We must work to make it an acknowledged path to effective services for the children, staff, parents, systems, and communities served by our profession" (p. 544).

Therefore this research has the following guiding research questions:

1.   What are the current practices in supervision as perceived by participants?

2. What impediments, if any, may exist that school psychology supervisors and practitioners think block efforts to receive or provide supervision?

3. What do school psychology supervisors and practitioners believe are possible strategies to address those potential barriers to receiving and providing supervision?

4. Do supervisors and practitioners agree on potential impediments and facilitators to supervision practices?

Method

To investigate the research questions, this study employed concept mapping, which is a structured methodology using qualitative and quantitative components to permit diverse ideas to be expressed in a visual representation (Kane & Trochim, 2007; Trochim, 1989). Although concept mapping has been utilized in research studies in fields such as public health (e.g., Burke, O'Campo, Peak, Gielen, McDonnell, & Trochim, 2005; Kelly, Baker, Brownson, & Schootman, 2007; Shavers, Fagan, Lawrence, McCaskill-Stevens, McDonald, Browne, McLinden, Christian, & Trimble, 2005; Trochim & Kane, 2005), social work (e.g., Poole, Duvall, & Wofford, 2006), and as a framework to plan a statewide health initiative (e.g., Trochim, Milstein, Wood, Jackson, & Pressler, 2004), there are no studies known to the author that use concept mapping as a tool to explore supervision practices in the field of school psychology. Thus, it is important to review the basic ideas of concept mapping.

Concept mapping is a research method that represents how a group of individuals conceptualize a particular topic through analysis of data collected via structured group processes. These group processes allow for a wide range of perspectives to be generated

by participants, while rigorous quantitative analyses provide objective interpretation of the group data. Concept mapping uses multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis to help display the interrelationships among ideas or concepts within a specific context (e.g., multiple perspectives related to supervision practices in school psychology). Pattern matching is also used to determine the level of agreement between groups of participants (e.g., school psychology practitioners vs. school psychology supervisors). Finally, concept mapping is a structured framework that can be used to increase awareness about a particular topic (e.g., supervision in school psychology) and how stakeholders (e.g., school psychology practitioners and supervisors) can use the results to implement a plan of action and/or evaluate processes (Kane & Trochim, 2007; Trochim, 1989).

Concept mapping is a six-step process: (a) preparing for concept mapping, (b) generating of statements, (c) structuring the statements, (d) concept mapping analysis, (e) interpreting the maps, and (f) utilization of maps (e.g., Table 3). In the first step, Preparing for Concept Mapping, there are two essential tasks: selecting participants and determining the specific focus of the study. For this study, school psychology practitioners and supervisors were selected as participants. As mentioned earlier, the goal of this research is to collect the perceptions of practicing school psychologists and supervisors related to supervision by (a) understanding school psychology practitioners' and supervisors' perceptions about supervision practices in school psychology, (b) identifying participants' perceptions about what impediments may hinder efforts to receive or provide supervision, (c) exploring supervisors' and practitioners' perceptions

Table 3

Steps in a Concept Mapping Process

Steps in Concept Mapping	Tasks in Each Step
Step One. Preparing for Concept Mapping	• *Focus.* The desired outcome of a study. • *Sampling and Participants.* Identifying relevant participants and how they will be engaged. • *Scheduling and Logistics.* Orchestrating participation.
Step Two. Generating the Ideas	• *Brainstorming.* Gathering knowledge and opinions. • *Ideas Analysis.* Creating a rationalized set of group ideas.
Step Three. Structuring the Statements	• *Demographics.* Identifying participants for comparative analysis. • *Unstructured Pile Sorting.* Organizing ideas into groups. • *Rating(s).* Assigning values to ideas.
Step Four. Concept Mapping Analysis	• *Multidimensional Scaling* • *Hierarchical Cluster Analysis* • *Production of Maps*
Step Five. Interpreting the Maps	• *The Statement List* • *The Cluster List* • *Naming the Clusters* • *The Cluster Map*

- *The Point Rating Map*

- *The Cluster Rating Map*

- *Pattern Matching*

- *Bivariate Plots ("Go Zone" Plots)*

Step Six. Utilization

- *Action.* Action items from a planning process.

- *Measurement.* Comparison of results against initial desired outcomes.

- *Evaluation.* Connecting measures to the desired outcomes and assessing change.

Note. From "An Introduction to Concept Mapping for Planning and Evaluation," by W. M. K. Trochim, 1989, *Evaluation and Program Planning,* p. 3. Copyright 1989 by Pergamon Press.

about what advocacy methods may increase opportunities to provide and receive supervision in school psychology, and (d) investigating if school psychology supervisors and practitioners agree on potential impediments and possible facilitators to improve supervision practices.

Once the focus and participants are identified, the second step of concept mapping process, Generation of Statements, entails identifying the topic of interest (i.e., supervision practices in school psychology). Focus statements are used to elicit statements regarding the topic during a brainstorming session. At the end of the session, participants examine the statements for redundancy or to determine if essential ideas have been omitted.

After the brainstorming process, the third step, Structuring the Statements, occurs in which the participants provide information about how the statements are related to one another by sorting them into separate piles. After each participant has completed the sorting task, they record the sorting results on a recording sheet. Participants also rate each statement on a rating scale to describe the importance and feasibility of the statement.

After each participant has completed the sorting task and rating form, the data are analyzed, which is the fourth step. Multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis are conducted to organize statements into similar concepts. At the conclusion of Concept Mapping Analysis (Step 4), several products are generated that provide pictorial representations of the data that provides the framework for interpretation.

Interpreting the Maps is the fifth step in the concept mapping process. The maps present ideas within a conceptual framework that clarify the perceptions of the participants as a group and enable participants to use the results for planning or evaluation (Kane & Trochim, 2007). This process facilitates group consensus and feedback from participants regarding the consistency of the results. Finally, the Utilization of Maps, or final step in the concept mapping process, guides the planning or evaluation phase of the research.

Moreover, the concept mapping process provides the framework to link strategies to the ideas presented in the previous steps. For the purpose of this study, the author focused on the planning efforts by analyzing the advocacy methods generated by the participants to address the discrepancy between actual and desired supervision practices

in school psychology. According to Kane and Trochim (2007), concept mapping can assist in translating the voices of the participants' into plans of action.

Furthermore, since concept mapping employs qualitative components, discussion of the role of the primary investigator (PI) as a facilitator is warranted. From the conceptualization phase of the research topic to the process of data collection and analysis, the PI was actively involved with the data. The PI acknowledges several factors that might potentially influence how she views the data such as having a strong endorsement of the field of school psychology, being a former practitioner, and recipient of supervision. As such, the PI was hypervigilant in addressing various potential biases and assumptions when engaging with participants and the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). To assist with this process, the PI kept a reflective journal throughout the structured group phases and data analysis processes of recorded biases, assumptions, and reactions (Creswell, 1998). When conflict arose, the PI discussed assumptions and biases with university trainers (n=4) and school psychologist supervisors (n=2) and practitioners (n=2) who were not participating in the study.

Metropolitan Porter Area

The metropolitan Porter area has nearly 4,000,000 residents and is ranked as the ninth-largest metropolitan area in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008a). According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2008b), the metropolitan area's racial composition is approximately 60% African American or Black, 37% Caucasian or White, 6-7% Hispanic or Latino, 2-3% Asian, less than 0.5% American Indian, Alaskan Native, or Pacific Islander. The median income for a household in the metro area is $51,482 and the median income for a family is $55,939. There are 12 public school systems in the

metropolitan area with a student enrollment of approximately 565,264 students (Georgia Department of Education, 2009). All 12 public school systems are situated within urban areas as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (2008b).

Metropolitan Porter Area School Systems

According to the Georgia Department of Education (2009), there are eight counties in the metropolitan Porter area as described by the Metro Regional Education Service Agency (RESA): Fuller County, Pennington County, Pembrooke County, Aerial County, Carlton County, Eagleton County, Covington County, and Eureka County. There are four independent school districts within the eight counties that are also included in the metro RESA: Porter Public Schools and Rosewood (Fuller County), Boldtree City (Pennington County), and Pinnacle City (Aerial County). For the purpose of this study, school psychology practitioners and supervisors from each county and independent school district were invited to participate to gain a wide representation of supervision experiences. Of the twelve public school systems, seven counties and two independent school districts participated in this study.

Sampling

School psychologist-to-student ratios were used to categorize school psychology practitioners, determine proportionate sample size from each category, and help establish variation of supervision experiences as described in detail below:

School Psychologist-to-Student Ratio

School psychologist-to-student ratio is one of many job characteristics that may impact professional practice and services (Curtis, Grier, & Hunley, 2004). Although, NASP (1997) recommends a practitioner-to-student ratio of 1:1000, few school systems

in the Southeast represent this recommended ratio. According to Hosp and Reschly (2002), the national average is almost double the recommended ratio with an average ratio of 1:1928. Based upon the student enrollment in the metro Porter area and the number of practicing full-time school psychologists, the average school psychologist-to-student ratio is 1:2300, which is slightly above the national average. Supervision practices in school psychology may be performed differently in school systems with higher school psychologist-to-student ratios than those closer to the NASP recommended ratio. However, there is little empirical evidence addressing whether school psychologist-to-student ratios have any impact on supervision practices. Therefore, given the possible impact of school psychologist-to-student ratio as a variable that *might* influence supervision practices, this study took school psychologist-to-student ratio into account during sampling but made no direct comparisons between groups.

School Psychology Practitioners. Practicing school psychologists were identified and recruited from the metropolitan Porter area to provide a comprehensive perspective of supervision practices. Since the focus of the study was to investigate current school psychology supervision practices and gain information about potential recommendations to remediate actual and desired supervision practices, participants were selected to meet the following criteria: (a) currently practicing as a full-time certified school psychologist; (b) working in a public school system within the metropolitan Porter area for at least one year; (c) possess at least a master's degree in school psychology; and (d) willing to provide descriptions of their experiences related to supervision in school psychology. There were approximately 277 practicing school psychologists in the metropolitan Porter area in the 2008-2009 school year (e.g., Table 4) as determined by an informal telephone

Table 4

Number of School Psychologists in the Metropolitan Porter Area

School District	County Population	People Per Square Mile	Student Enrollment	Practicing School Psychologists[a]
Fuller	992,137	1,884	88,299	51
Porter Public Schools[b]	--	--	49,032	28
Rosewood[b]	--	--	2,823	2
Pennington	776,380	1,804	157,219	47
Boldtree City[b]	--	--	2,992	1
Pembrooke	737,093	2,755	99,775	45
Aerial	691,905	2,038	106,747	48
Pinnacle City[b]	--	--	7,869	4
Carlton	272,217	1,923	49,508	21
Eagleton	158,914	709	32,374	14
Covington	124,495	622	24,800	9
Eureka	82,052	632	15,705	7
Metro Total	**3,835,193**		**637,143**	**277**

Note. School Psychologist = 277.

[a]Excludes interns, outside contractors and part-time school psychologists. [b]Independent school districts within the counties.

questionnaire and search of internet websites for data about the individual school

districts. The author randomly selected participants from the eight counties in the

metropolitan Porter area (excluding interns, part-time, and contract school psychologists)

using random number charts.

Participants were selected in a random manner beginning with proportionate

sampling according to school psychologist-to-student ratios. The list of school

psychologists practicing in the metro Porter area was stratified into two categories (e.g.,

Table 5) using metro area ratio averages: (a) schools with school psychologist-to-student

ratio over the metro Porter area average of 1:2300 (e.g., Pennington County,

Boldtree City, Covington County, Carlton County, and Eagleton County), and (b) schools

with school psychologist-to-student ratio under the metro Porter area average of 1:2300

(e.g., Eureka County, Aerial County, Pembrooke County, Pinnacle City, Porter Public

Schools, Fuller County, and Rosewood).

Target Sample Size of Practicing School Psychologists. Out of the 277 full-time

school psychologists in the metropolitan Porter area, 92 school psychologists (33%) were

practicing in school systems with school psychologist-to-student ratios over the

metropolitan Porter area average of 1:2300, and 185 practicing school psychologists

(67%) in school systems with school psychologist-to-student ratios under the

metropolitan Porter area average. While concept mapping does not restrict the number of

people who may participate in a study, the designers suggest between 10-40 people to

provide a solid framework that allows for maximum variation of experiences (Burke et

al., 2005; Kane & Trochim, 2007). For the purpose of this study, the author targeted

between 30-40 school psychology practitioners.

Table 5

School Psychologist-to-Student Ratio in Metropolitan Porter Area

School District	County Population	Student Enrollment	Practicing School Psychologists[a]	School Psychologist-to-Student Ratio
Pennington	776,380	157,219	47	1:3345
Boldtree City[b]	--	2,992	1	1:2992
Covington	124,495	24,800	9	1:2755
Carlton	272,217	49,508	21	1:2358
Eagleton	158,914	32,374	14	1:2312
Subtotal[c]		*266,893*	*92*	
Eureka	82,052	15,705	7	1:2244
Aerial	691,905	106,747	48	1:2224
Pembrooke	737,093	99,775	45	1:2217
Pinnacle City[b]	--	7,869	4	1:1968
Porter Public Schools[b]	--	49,032	28	1:1751
Fuller	992,137	88,299	51	1:1731
Rosewood[b]	--	2,823	2	1:1412
Subtotal[d]		*370,250*	*185*	
Grand Total	**3,835,193**	**637,143**	**277**	**1:2300**

Note. Metro Porter Area ratio = 1:2300

[a]Excludes interns, outside contractors and part-time school psychologists. [b]Independent school districts within the counties. [c]Schools with school psychologist-to-student ratio

over the metro Porter area average of 1:2300. [d]Schools with school psychologist-to-student ratio under the metro Porter area average of 1:2300.

School Psychology Supervisors. Purposeful sampling was employed to identify and recruit school psychology supervisors who had insight and experiences with supervision processes because the number of such individuals was small and such sampling provides greater diversity among a small number of individuals (Kuzel, 1992; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990). School psychology supervisors were contacted in two ways: (a) by inviting them to participate in the study via email and/or phone and (b) by arranging a session with them at a Metro Area Psychological Services (MAPS) meeting.

Participants involved in the concept mapping process should have experience with the phenomenon being investigated and be willing to contribute meaningful input at several stages that enables "change, create and adopt innovation, or add to knowledge" (Kane & Trochim, 2007, p. 35). This study included these essential criteria and the following: (a) currently work as a school psychology supervisor in a public school system within the metropolitan Porter area; (b) have at least one year of experience as a supervisor of school psychologists; (c) currently supervise school psychologists; and (d) willing to provide descriptions of their experiences related to supervision in school psychology.

Sample Size of School Psychology Supervisors. There were approximately 12-15 supervisors, with multiple supervisors in seven school districts, in the metropolitan Porter area in the 2008-2009 year. Ten supervisors participated in the study during different

phases of the concept mapping process. For example, during Step Two of the concept mapping process, Generation of Statements, six supervisors contributed to the brainstorming activity. Four additional supervisors participated in the Sorting and Rating Activities (Step Three). While it was desirable for the supervisors to be involved in all sequential steps in the concept mapping process, this arrangement allowed scheduling flexibility and increased participation without interfering with the integrity or trustworthiness of the study (Kane & Trochim, 2007).

<center>Participants</center>

There were two participant groups in this study— practicing school psychologists and school psychology supervisors.

Demographics of Practicing School Psychologists. Following the aforementioned proportionate sampling percentages of each subset, 52 practitioners were initially contacted by email or phone by the Primary Investigator. Forty-one school psychology practitioners responded initially and 38 practitioners actually participated in the study, which is within the recommended range (Burke et al., 2005; Kane & Trochim, 2007). Fourteen practitioners were from the first subset (i.e., schools with school psychologist-to-student ratio *over* the metro Porter average of 1:2300) and 24 practitioners were from the second subset (i.e., schools with school psychologist-to-student ratio *under* the metro Porter average of 1:2300). Of the 38 school psychology practitioners, 89% were female (n=34) and the remaining participants were male. Twenty-one practitioners (55%) self-identified as White/Caucasian, 39% as African American/Black (n=15), and two were of Hispanic/Latino(a) descent. Participants ranged across the age categories from 21 to 60 years of age. The most commonly endorsed category of work experience was between

11-15 years (range 1-31). While most of the practitioners were specialist-level school psychologists (n=29), 23% held doctorates. All participants were certified as school psychologists and nearly one-fourth (n=9) were Nationally Certified School Psychologist (NCSP) credentialed. Most practitioner participants (93%) held a professional membership with APA, NASP, a state-level association, and/or another professional organization. Summary demographics are provided in Table 4.

  Demographics of School Psychology Supervisors. Of the 10 school psychology supervisors who participated in the study (e.g., Table 6), seven were female and three were male. Seven self-identified as White/Caucasian and three remaining supervisors identified as African American/Black. Over half of the supervisors were in the age range of 51-65 and had at least 21 years of experience working as school psychologists. Experience as a school psychology supervisor ranged from 1 to 25 years with most reporting fewer than 11 years as a supervisor. Out of ten supervisors, 8 held doctorates and two were specialist-level school psychologists with formal training in supervision. All supervisors were certified as school psychology practitioners and half were NCSP credentialed. The title or position of school psychology supervisors varied among the school systems: Coordinator/Director of Psychological Services, Director of Student Support Services, or Lead School Psychologist. All supervisors held a professional membership with APA, NASP, and/or state-level association. Some supervisors also held memberships in other professional organizations such as National Education Association, Georgia Association of Social Workers, Georgia Association of School Counselors, and Georgia Association of Educators.

Table 6

Participant Demographics

Demographic Information	Summary Data	
Number of Participants	Practitioner=38	Supervisors=10
	(Subset 1=14; Subset 2=24)	
Gender	Female=34	Female=7
	Male=4	Male=3
Ethnicity	Black/African American=15	Black/African American=3
	White/Caucasian=21	White/Caucasian=7
	Hispanic/Latino(a)=2	Hispanic/Latino(a)=0
Age Range	21-25=1	21-25=0
	26-30=7	26-30=0
	31-35=8	31-35=1
	36-40=10	36-40=1
	41-45=5	41-45=1
	46-50=0	46-50=0
	51-55=4	51-55=2
	56-60=3	56-60=4
	61-65=0	61-65=1

Years of Experience as a School Psychologist	1-5=9	1-5=0
	6-10=8	6-10=2
	11-15=12	11-15=1
	16-20=5	16-20=1
	21-25=1	21-25=1
	26-30=2	26-30=5
	31+=1	31+=0
Years of Experience as a School Psychology Supervisor	N/A	1-5=3
		6-10=3
		11-15=1
		16-20=1
		21-25=2
Educational Background	MA/MS=0	MA/MS=0
	EdS=29	EdS=2
	PhD=9	PhD=8
Certified as a School Psychologist	Yes=38	Yes=10
	No=0	No=0
NCSP Credentialed	Yes=9	Yes=5
	No=29	No=5

Title/Position	N/A	Coordinator/Director of
		Psychological Services=3
		Director of Student Support
		Services=3
		Lead School Psychologist=3
		Other=1
Organizational	NASP=28	NASP=8
Membership	APA=8	APA=6
	State Level Association=22	State Level Association=8
	None=3	None=0
	Other=3	Other=4

Instrument

Each participant completed a brief demographic questionnaire that solicited basic information about the participants such as gender, ethnicity, age, years of experience, level of training, work setting, professional organization membership, and use of supervision models (for supervisors). The questionnaire also requested information pertaining to supervision practices including type of supervision received, the average amount of time spent in supervisory activities, and perceptions about utility and effectiveness of supervision for practitioners. On a separate questionnaire designed specifically for supervisors, similar questions were asked, but a greater emphasis was placed on formal training experiences, theoretical orientation, type of supervision model

used (if any), and perceptions about how supervision may or may not contribute to daily practices of school psychologists.

Both surveys were field tested with a preliminary group of school psychology practitioners, supervisors, and university trainers for recommendations and changes to wording to increase clarity, appropriateness, and comprehension while reducing ambiguity. The following changes were made to the questionnaire as a result of the field test: (a) change the amount of time it took to complete the questionnaire from 30 minutes to 10-15 minutes; and (b) change the phrase 'your state Department of Education' to 'Georgia Professional Standards Commission' to be more region-specific. Additionally, on the questionnaire designated for supervisors, items were added to gather information about the theoretical orientation of supervisors. Questionnaires were then finalized.

Two focus prompts, one addressing barriers and the other strategies, were field tested with a preliminary group of school psychology practitioners and supervisors to assess whether the focus statements were accurate, concise and would generate responses that were relevant for this study (Kane & Trochim, 2007). There were no changes or revisions made to the focus prompts. The focus prompts used to elicit responses during the brainstorming session were: (1) Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe issues, problems, or concerns that are related to receiving (or providing, for supervisors) supervision" (barrier prompt); and (2) Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe, in your opinion, what can be done to remediate the identified problems, issues, or concerns as related to supervision" (strategy prompt).

Procedures

Once participants were identified, the study followed the six phases in concept

mapping as described in detail below:

Preparing for Concept Mapping. The PI arranged multiple meeting times and

dates that were convenient for practitioners and supervisors to participate in the

brainstorming sessions (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The PI then scheduled follow-up

meetings the subsequent week to facilitate the sorting and rating activities (i.e., Step 3).

As suggested by Kane and Trochim (2007), the PI also invited additional school

psychology practitioners and supervisors who were not present at the brainstorming

meeting and met research criteria to participate in the rating and sorting activity as well

(Kane & Trochim). Meetings took place in multiple settings: a conference hall at three

different school sites, a conference room at a local library, a classroom at a teaching

museum, and two brainstorming sessions were conducted over the phone with school

psychology supervisors. Each session lasted approximately 45-60 minutes. All concept

mapping activities were completed within a six-week time frame between the months of

May and June of 2009.

At the beginning of the initial meeting, the PI explained to the participants the

study conditions including (a) the purpose the study, (b) why they were selected to

participate, (c) time commitment to complete the questionnaire, (d) informed consent, (e)

confidentiality will be maintained through anonymity, (f) by participating in the concept

mapping process, the participant will be making a contribution to research in the area of

supervision, (g) information regarding IRB (e.g., potential risks and benefits), and (h)

how to contact the PI or dissertation chair if there are any questions or concerns. The

participants were asked to sign an informed consent form. The informed consent form provided written information detailing procedures, risks, benefits, voluntary participation and withdrawal, confidentiality and contact information.

Generating of Statements. Generation of statements, or brainstorming, involves participants producing numerous statements or ideas without critique or discussion to yield several sets of statements that can subsequently be condensed, if necessary (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Twenty-seven practitioners participated in the brainstorming phase of the concept mapping process. Due to scheduling conflicts and finding convenient locations, three brainstorming sessions were conducted. The brainstorming sessions lasted approximately 45-60 minutes including completion of the demographic questionnaire. Prior to beginning the brainstorming activity, the PI explained the purpose of the brainstorming session and provided the participants with a working definition of supervision to facilitate a general understanding of what is meant by supervision. Supervision was defined as "an interpersonal interaction between two or more individuals for the purpose of sharing knowledge, assessing professional competencies, and providing objective feedback with the terminal goals of developing new competencies, facilitating effective delivery of psychological services, and maintaining professional competencies" (McIntosh & Phelps, 2000, p. 33-34).

Participants were given time to generate statements as the PI recorded their ideas on an overhead projector or whiteboard. After the participants produced an exhaustive list of ideas, the PI asked practitioners to clarify specific terms or technical jargon to gain a better understanding of what was intended by a given statement. Additionally, the PI and

participants examined the statements for redundancy and to determine if essential ideas had been omitted.

School psychology supervisors brainstorming sessions were also conducted in a similar manner. Due to scheduling conflicts and finding convenient locations, four brainstorming sessions were held with school psychology supervisors. Two brainstorming sessions were conducted individually over the phone to accommodate schedules and increase participation, which is consistent with the flexible design of concept mapping (Kane & Trochim, 2007). A total of six supervisors participated in the brainstorming activity. The brainstorming sessions varied from 45-60 minutes.

When the brainstorming session concluded, the PI invited the participating practitioners and supervisors to a follow-up meeting the subsequent week to facilitate the sorting and rating activities (i.e., Step 3). The PI also invited school psychology practitioners and supervisors who were not present at the brainstorming sessions and met research criteria to participate in the rating and sorting activity (Kane & Trochim).

Structuring the Statements. After the brainstorming process, the participants were asked to sort the generated statements into separate piles based on how the statements are related to one another. Twenty-four practitioners (three participants from the brainstorming session declined due to conflicting schedules or work demands) from the brainstorming session participated in the sorting and rating activity. In addition, 14 new participants joined the session for a total of 38 practitioners. Four new supervisors also joined the session for a total of 10 supervisors. In total, 63% of the practitioners and 60% of the supervisors participated in all phases of the study. The addition or withdrawal of participants is similar to other concept mapping studies (Burke et al., 2005; Kelly et al.,

2007; Poole et al., 2006; Shavers et al., 2005; Wheeler, Anderson, Boddie-Willis, Price, & Kane, 2005) and does not compromise the trustworthiness or integrity of the study (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The instructions and purpose of the session were explained by the PI to ensure that the participants understood the intent and expectations of the session. Each participant was asked to sort two sets of statements (provided on 3 x 5 index cards), consisting of one set of cards for each focus prompt, into piles that made sense to them. Several restrictions in the sorting procedure were explained: (a) each statement could only be placed in one pile (i.e., an item cannot be placed in two piles simultaneously); (b) all statements cannot be put into their own pile (although some items may be sorted by themselves); and (c) all statements cannot be put into a single pile (Kane & Trochim). An illustrated sample was provided to each participant for clarity.

After each participant completed the sorting task, they recorded the sorting results on a sort recording sheet. Instructions were also provided on the sort recording sheet along with an example in the first box. Each participant reviewed the statements of each grouping, and then he or she wrote the name of the corresponding group and listed the statements in that group according to the identifying number. The participants continued to follow the same process with each sorting pile until all groupings were represented by the title and a list of numbers that represented the related statements. After the statement cards were sorted, recorded, and collected, the rating process began.

There is a theoretical reason to conduct the sorting activity before rating the statements. Kane and Trochim (2007) asserted that,

"The sorting task encourages the participants to attend to the semantic similarities between statements, regardless of how each participant might feel about the

importance or priority of each statement. The rating task explicitly addresses each participant's perception of an item's importance or other relevant value qualifier. If the rating task is done first, it is likely that it will influence how the participants sort the cards, because they will already have formed a mental set that addresses the rating focus. In this case, they would be likely to sort their top-priority items together, their low-priority items together, and so on, negating semantically meaningful similarities among the items" (p. 74-75).

During the rating session, each participant received a rating sheet (e.g., Appendix A) where he or she rated each statement according to the rating scale. For this particular study, the "quantity" assigned was in the form of importance and feasibility. Each participant was asked to rate each item on a 1-to-5 scale in terms of how 'important' he or she thinks it is compared to the rest of the statements by using the following five-point Likert response scale: 1 = Relatively Unimportant; 2 = Somewhat Important; 3 = Moderately Important; 4 = Very Important; 5 = Extremely Important. In terms of feasibility, each participant was asked to rate the each item on a 1-to-5 scale in terms of how 'feasible' he or she thinks it is to implement when compared to the other statements by using the following five-point Likert response scale: 1 = Not at all feasible; 2 = Somewhat Feasible; 3 = Moderately Feasible; 4 = Very Feasible; 5 = Extremely Feasible.

After each participant completed the rating form, the PI gathered the rating forms and arranged for a follow-up meeting (i.e., interpretative session) to discuss preliminary results and review the concept maps and displays (e.g., pattern matching). The interpretation session was audio taped to capture the discussions taking place during the focus group. Eleven participants, nine school psychology practitioners and two

supervisors, attended the interpretative session. Participants were asked to sign another informed consent form explaining the purpose of the audiotape and to obtain consent to such procedures. At the beginning of the interpretive session, participants were given a copy of statement lists with identifying numbers and cluster lists of how the statements were grouped by the cluster analysis for each prompt: barrier and strategy. After a brief refresher of the purpose of the concept mapping process, a numbered point map was shown that graphically demonstrated how closely related the statements were to each other (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Time was permitted to allow participants to get an understanding about the point map's meaning. After the point map presentation, the PI explained that the statements were compiled into groups by cluster analysis, which is represented by the cluster map. The PI elicited feedback from the participants to name the clusters or surveyed the participants to determine if the existing labels were valid. This process facilitated group consensus and provided meaning for the cluster map. The PI explained that the clusters that are closer together on the cluster map should be more similar conceptually than clusters that are further apart and then surveyed participants to see if this still held true for the clusters produced on the map (Kane & Trochim). As a result, a final map product was produced that represented the emerging perceptions and the PI's interpretation.

The participants were also presented point rating maps for each focus prompt (i.e., barriers and strategy) which showed how participants consistently rated specific statements resulting in similarities and differences among perceptions. This map provided a general framework for viewing the variety of opinion within a group (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Subsequently the cluster rating map was presented, which is identical to the

cluster map but shows the average cluster ratings. The cluster rating map was used to present which ideas are relatively most important and facilitate discussions about how to implement plans of action to address such concerns or issues (Kane & Trochim; Trochim, 1989).

After the interpretive session, the audiotapes from the session were transcribed by the Primary Investigator (PI). Since the interpretive session was a structured dialogue (i.e., meaning each cluster was presented in a systematic order), the participants were provided with the opportunity to share their experiences as it related to each cluster. For example, the barrier prompt was discussed first along with its corresponding clusters. Similarly, clusters from the strategy prompt were presented individually as well. Participant responses to each cluster were identified by nine or more of the participants as being most representative of the cluster. Participant agreement (i.e., 81% -100%) was used to capture all relevant discussion during the interpretive session. Therefore, participant quotes used in this study were chosen because they represented a wide range of participant perceptions, captured the essence of the cluster, and were endorsed by majority of the participants from the interpretative session. Participants' responses and results will be discussed in detail in the results section.

Data Analysis

For this study, the author used the Concept System® Core software program to assist in the data analyzing process. The Concept System® Core software program was designed specifically to handle the sequence of statistical analyses involved in the concept mapping process. The statistical analyses are described briefly here. For clarity sake, the data analysis was adapted from Kane and Trochim (2007).

Concept Mapping Data Analysis. There are specific and sequential steps involved in the analysis of data. The first step is data entry. The Primary Investigator (PI) entered the sorting data gathered from the participants resulting initially in a similarity matrix produced by Concept System® Core software program. The sorting data are displayed in a similarity matrix that describes the relationships between the statements produced by the participants (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The rows correspond to the number of sorters and the columns reflect the statements generated. Each cell indicates whether a participant grouped two statements together, which is indicated by "1" or by a "0" indicating that two statements were not paired. This process is completed for each sorter yielding a group similarity matrix. A group similarity matrix demonstrates how all the participants grouped the statements. This matrix illustrates how many participants placed a pair of statements in a pile regardless of the relationship among the statements or what the pile meant to the participant. A high value in this matrix indicates that more of the participants put that pair of statements together in a pile and implies that statements are conceptually similar in some way. Whereas, a lower value indicates that the statement pair was put together in the same pile by fewer people and implies that they are conceptually less similar (Kane & Trochim).

The next step for the core analysis is to conduct a "two-dimensional nonmetric multidimensional scaling of the similarity matrix obtained by aggregating the sort data. Nonmetric multidimensional scaling is a general technique that represents any similarity or dissimilarity matrix in any number of dimensions as distances between the original items in the matrix" (Kane & Trochim, 2007, p. 93). In other words, multidimensional scaling is a multivariate analysis that is able to use the similarity matrix as input and

create a map of points representing the set of statements created during brainstorming. Concept mapping uses a two-dimensional solution that creates two coordinates for each statement and these coordinates are used to plot the point map. A two-dimensional solution is used instead of a one-dimensional solution because it "places the set of points for plotting into a bivariate distribution which is suitable for plotting on an X-Y graph" (Kane & Trochim, p. 95). If a one-dimensional solution was used, the set of points would be situated along a single line, which would not be suitable for interpretation of the sorting data and lack plotting on an X-Y graph. Results from the multidimensional scaling analysis produce a "point map" that consists of dots and numbers representing the position of each statement from the group similarity matrix.

A statistical dimension akin to multidimensional scaling analysis is the stress index. The stress index "measures the degree to which the distances on the map are *discrepant from* the values in the input similarity matrix" (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Namely, the stress index helps the analyst determine the degree the map represents data from the group similarity matrix. A strong relationship between the data from the group similarity matrix and the distances on the point map yields low stress values indicating a better overall fit. Whereas a high stress value indicates a greater discrepancy between the matrix data and the data represented on the two-dimensional map implying the map is not an accurate representation of the original data. Krusal and Wish (1978) posited that research using multidimensional scaling analysis should produce stress values of 0.10 or lower for stability. Kane and Trochim (2007) argued that this recommended guideline is too strenuous for studies using concept mapping because it does not take into account

multiple variables that exist when phenomena is studied in applied settings. Furthermore, Kane and Trochim noted

> "it is also important to recognize that stress calculations are sensitive to slight movements in statements on a map that are not likely to have any meaningful interpretive value in concept mapping. Meta-analytic studies…of concept mapping projects estimated an average stress value of 0.285 with a standard deviation of 0.04. That is, approximately 95% of concept mapping projects are likely to yield stress values that range between about 0.205 and 0.365" (p. 98).

A hierarchical cluster analysis is the final analysis conducted in concept mapping. This analysis is used to group individual statements on the point map into clusters of statements which reflect similar concepts. Traditional hierarchical cluster analysis would consider each statement as its own cluster, which in concept mapping could result in as many clusters as there are statements. Thus, the researcher needs to decide the number of clusters and which clusters should be used in the final analysis. The researcher must closely examine which statements were grouped together in each cluster and attempt to decide whether that grouping makes sense for the statements in the conceptualization. The Concept System® Core software program produces a hierarchical cluster tree that helps the researcher determine possible cluster solutions and mergers by demonstrating all possible partitioning of the points on the map (Kane & Trochim, 2007). There is no formula used to determine the specific number of clusters a researcher should use in a particular study; however, Kane and Trochim (2007) provide a general rule stating, "Find the cluster level that retains the most useful detail between clusters while merging those that…sensibly belong together" (p. 103). Furthermore, Trochim (1989) cautions

researchers to decide on more clusters than fewer because he has found that cluster analysis results are "less interpretable than the results from the multidimensional scaling" (p. 10).

Following these analyses, point rating maps (i.e., average ratings for each statement) and cluster rating maps (i.e., average rating for each cluster) are produced. At the conclusion of this step, several products are generated: (a) a two-dimensional point describing the relationship among the statements; (b) a cluster map illustrating how the points, or statements, were grouped together to reflect similar concepts; (c) a point rating map showing the average ratings for each statement; and (d) a cluster rating map evidencing the average rating for each cluster on the cluster map. These pictorial representations of the data provide the framework for interpretation.

Interpreting the Maps. After multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis have been conducted, several maps are generated for interpretation. The purpose of generating maps is to create insight into the phenomena being explored (e.g., supervision in school psychology). Additionally, the maps present ideas within a conceptual framework that clarifies the perceptions of the participants as a group and enables participants to use the results for planning or evaluation (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The participants were invited to participate in an interpretation session where the point, cluster, point rating, and cluster rating maps were presented to the participants as well as comparative graphs and displays. The goal of the interpretation session is to include participants' understanding of the results and agreement about its utility (Kane & Trochim).

Pattern matching is another visual representation that describes how two sets of ratings compare and can be used to address the critical questions including consensus

across groups or consistency of results (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Pattern matching uses standard Pearson product moment correlations value to show the overall strength of correlation between the two rating patterns. For example, pattern matching can compare variables such as importance and feasibility; different demographic groups (e.g., school psychology supervisors and practitioners); and/or different points in time for the same variable (e.g., separate planning meetings). Pattern matching displays were presented to the participants to generate discussion about group consensus and differences.

Finally, the PI presented Go-Zone displays, which are bivariate X-Y graphs of ratings, for each cluster (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Go-Zone displays are illustrated in quadrants with each quadrant representing the feasibility and importance of the given cluster. For example, statements in the upper-right quadrants represent the most feasible ideas within each cluster indicating a higher implementation priority. The upper-left quadrant contains statements with higher feasibility but lower in importance indicating a lower priority from the participants. Similarly, the lower-right quadrant includes statements with higher importance but lower feasibility indicating challenges for implementation. Finally, the lower-left quadrant identifies statements that are low in both importance and feasibility indicating a lower priority for implementation.

After the participants are presented with the multiple maps and graphs and group interpretation has occurred, the study can proceed to the utilization phase where a framework for a plan of action can take place.

Utilization of Maps. The utilization of maps, or planning or evaluation phase, is guided by the participant's group interpretation of the results. The group discusses how the concept map final products might be used to enhance either the planning or evaluation

effort. According to research conducted by Kane and Trochim (2007), organizations use concept mapping to plan actions that elicit desirable change from the current state. The concept mapping process provides the framework to link strategies to the ideas presented in the previous steps. At the conclusion of this step, all stakeholders involved should have a description of the action; who is assigned to carry out the responsibilities; and start and end dates; desired outcome(s); costs or resources needed; and other notes of relevance (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The final product may be generated in a written report that contains statements that describe the details of the research. For the purpose of this study, the author focused on the planning efforts to address the discrepancy between actual and desired supervision practices in school psychology.

<div align="center">Results</div>

One goal of this exploratory research was to explore the perceptions of school psychology practitioners' and supervisors' about supervision. Participants in this study were surveyed about current supervision practices in the school districts they served.

Practitioner Responses. Regarding supervision availability, 87% of respondents reported that they receive formal or informal supervision and 13% have no available supervision. School psychologists that were supervised reported that supervision comprised of individual, group, and/or peer supervision. Three respondents also reported seeking supervision privately with a licensed psychologist or with a neighboring school district. Sixteen participants who have supervision available indicated they receive it monthly, 14 practitioners report on an as-needed basis, while five participants reported weekly, and a few (n=3) stated bimonthly. Only three participants reported receiving 2 or more hours per week of supervision. School psychologists also reported that all

supervisors were credentialed as school psychologists in various positions including Director of Student Support Services (n=19), Coordinator of Psychological Services (n=9), or Lead School Psychologist (n=6). The remaining four practitioners reported they receive supervision from either a building-level administrator, peer supervisor, or a private licensed psychologist.

If respondents were receiving supervision, they were asked to rate its usefulness. Using a 5-point Likert scale with 1="not useful at all," 3="somewhat useful," and 5="very useful," the average rating was 4.72 indicating majority of the participants rated supervision to be useful. Similar to supervision utility, respondents also indicated that supervision is important. Based on a 5-point Likert scale where 1="unimportant," 3="somewhat important," and 5="very important," practitioners' average rating was 4.84 with 60% of participants endorsing the category of "very important." Finally, when asked if supervision improved his or hers overall delivery of psychological services, school psychologists who responded produced an average rating of 3.56 on the following 5-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "very much". Sixty-three percent of the respondents indicated that supervision has improved their overall psychological practices to some degree. Responses to an open-ended question revealed the most common perceived benefits of supervision included increased knowledge and skills (e.g., RTI, counseling, new standardized instruments); increased confidence; encouragement for peer collaboration; support for involvement on department committees; exposure to different perspectives in the areas of assessment and consultation; and improved job satisfaction (e.g., felt supported by supervisor and others).

The questionnaire also asked information about the types of supervision activities that occurred during supervision. The most common activities were case consultation and feedback, discussions regarding new standardized and informal assessment instruments, sharing information germane to a specialty area (e.g., preschool, behavior/emotional, or neurological assessment), review of psychoeducational reports, and distributing or sharing resources (e.g., webinars, books, websites, conference materials, etc).

Supervisor Responses. When asked about formal training experiences in supervision, seven of the school psychology supervisors surveyed reported receiving graduate level coursework or formal training (i.e., professional seminars, conferences, or workshops). Three supervisors indicated they received informal training through practicum or internship experiences or training from previous professional careers (e.g., retail management). Nearly all respondents (n=9) believed it was important for supervisors to receive formal training in supervision.

Regarding current supervision practices, four of the supervisors reported that they are supervising more than 40 school psychologists, and devote an average of 1-5 hours per week toward supervision. All of the supervisors surveyed believe it is important for school psychologists to receive supervision. Furthermore, all respondents believe supervision contributes to the daily practices of school psychologists in several ways by: (a) developing school psychologists' level of confidence and competence; (b) enhancing consultation and counseling skills; (c) keeping school psychologists' abreast of current laws, research, and policies; and/or (d) increasing sensitivities to difficult cases by providing alternative approaches or different perspective of interpretation.

Regarding theoretical orientation, seven supervisors reported cognitive-behavioral, two indicated an ecological orientation, and one endorsed behavioral as a preferred supervision model. Supervisors also reported using a combination of supervision models. Most supervisors use administrative and clinical supervision models (n=6), while some reported using developmental models (n=2) or developmental and administrative models (n=1). One supervisor indicated she was not sure about a particular supervision model and reported not using one at all. Supervisors answered an open-ended question regarding if his or her preferred supervision model helps their supervision practices. Ninety percent of the supervisors indicated that supervision model(s) help and guide his or her supervision practices. For example, supervisors suggested supervision model(s) help establish a basic framework for the supervision process, develop a positive supervisor-practitioner relationship, develop and refine goals and objectives, focus on the needs of school psychologist, and provide flexibility in addressing differing orientations or philosophies. The most commonly endorsed activities reported by supervisors included case consultation and records review, observations and performance evaluations, and declaring professional goals and objectives. Other activities included designing supervision specifically for new psychologists, developing supervision meetings for those who are supervising interns, and small group supervision meetings to discuss difficult cases (e.g., ESOL, Autism, Behavioral, Low Incidence Disabilities, etc.).

Concept Maps. Additional goals of this research were to explore potential impediments that block supervision efforts and identify possible strategies to address those potential barriers. Furthermore, the final goal of this research was to explore any similarities and differences between school psychology practitioners and supervision

related to potential impediments and facilitators. Concept mapping process was employed to answer these research questions and the results are described in detail below.

During the initial brainstorming sessions, school psychology practitioners and supervisors were asked to submit words or short statements in response to the barriers prompt and strategy prompt, respectively:

(1) Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe issues, problems, or concerns that are related to receiving (or providing) supervision"; and

(2) Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe, in your opinion, what can be done to remediate the identified problems, issues, or concerns as related to supervision."

Each prompt produced a separate set of statements and concept maps. Seventy-four statements were originally generated for the barriers prompt and 108 for the strategy prompt. Statement editing and synthesis were performed jointly by PI and participants to reduce statement redundancies and improve clarity. The final set included 40 statements for the barrier prompt (e.g., Appendix B) and 60 for the strategy prompt (e.g., Appendix C). The participants agreed that the final set of statements maintained the general ideas presented during brainstorming.

As discussed previously, multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis were used to describe the relationships of the statements generated for each focus prompt and produce several concept maps. The acquired data were translated into concept maps (i.e., point maps, cluster maps, point rating maps, and cluster rating maps) that visually represent the participant's thinking on the subject matter. Furthermore, the goodness of fit was assessed with stress values, which is akin to multidimensional scaling

analysis. For this study, the stress values for the barrier and strategy concept maps were

0.21 and 0.26, respectively, indicating a good fit as indicated by Kane and Trochim

(2007), particularly when phenomena is studied in applied settings.

The concept maps are presented below beginning with the point map and cluster

map for the barrier focus prompt.

Figure 1. Point Map for the Barrier Prompt
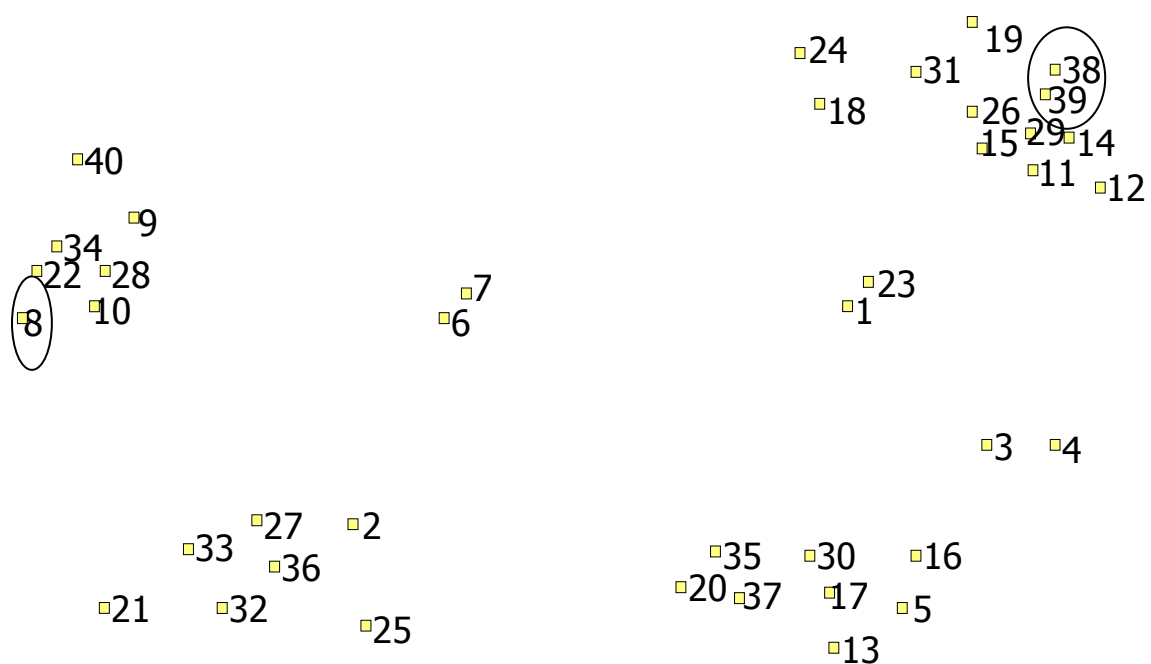
This point map visually depicts all 40 statements generated by the participants in

response to the barrier prompt. A complete list of statements is presented in Appendix B.

The configuration of the points, or statements, signify which statements were more

conceptually similar or different as determined by the distance between them.

Furthermore, points located close together also mean that the statements were most often

sorted together by participants during the sorting activity. For example, Statement #38

("Multiple responsibilities interfere with providing supervision") and Statement #39

("Limited time to plan and schedule supervision meetings") are in close proximity to one another; therefore, they are more closely related and were most often sorted together by participants. In contrast, statement 8, which states, "Supervisor is not a credentialed school psychologist" is far from the aforementioned points on the map indicating the statements are conceptually different and participants were less likely to sort statements 8 and 38 in the same pile.

Figure 2. Seven-Cluster Map for Barrier Prompt
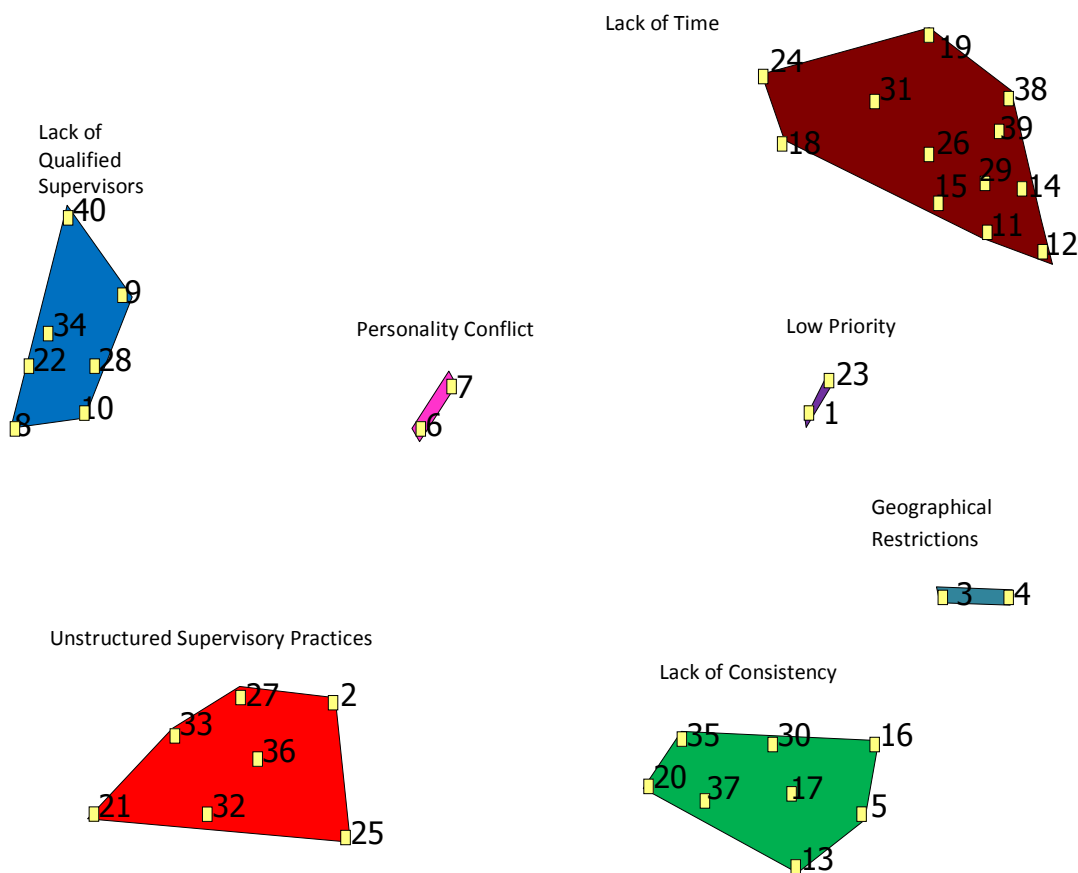
Hierarchical cluster analysis grouped the statements, given by both groups of participants, into conceptual clusters based on the similarity of ideas presented by the

participants. This cluster map (i.e., Figure 2) is an overlay of the point map presented in Figure 1. The PI examined the clusters by using the hierarchical cluster tree, beginning with the highest number of clusters and continuing downwards until the number of clusters is as small as possible while providing as much distinction as possible between clusters. The size of each cluster does not reflect importance or strength. Namely, one cluster is not more important or stronger than another solely based on its size. Based on the data in the study, seven clusters were selected for the barrier concept map because of the meaningful distinctions among the clusters that were not present when fewer clusters were used. Likewise, there was no apparent meaning in the distinction among the clusters when more clusters were selected. Furthermore, the participants agreed to the number of clusters selected, for each prompt, reporting that the clusters were meaningful and represented the perspectives presented by supervisors and practitioners. Additionally, cluster labels were participant-generated and applied to best fit the statements within the clusters.

Each of the seven clusters represents distinct conceptual areas that participants identified as barriers to receiving or providing supervision. Statements within each cluster are conceptually related and were often sorted together by participants as shown in Table 7. A brief description of the main ideas in each cluster is presented below and in alphabetical order.

Geographical Restrictions. This cluster consists of two statements suggesting that geographical distance is a barrier to providing or receiving supervision on a consistent basis, particularly for school-based psychologists. Participants indicated that it is difficult to engage in frequent supervision activities when the supervisor and practitioner are

Table 7

Statements by Clusters for the Barrier Prompt

Cluster Name	Statements *(sorted by alphabetical order for clusters and numerical order for statements)*	
Geographical Restrictions	3	Geographical distance prevents supervision
	4	Difficult to receive supervision when school-based
Lack of Consistency	5	Lack of consistency in how supervision is being provided
	13	Supervision is not received when needed
	16	Lack of ongoing, scheduled supervision
	17	Lack of consistent supervision
	20	No coordinated schedule to meet for supervision
	30	Supervision policies are not consistent from county to county and from state to state
	35	Lack of regularly scheduled supervision meetings
	37	Supervision is not provided in structured ways
Lack of Time	11	Time constraints in providing supervision
	12	Time constraints in receiving supervision
	14	Finding time to meet with supervisor
	15	Finding time to meet with practitioners
	18	Limited supervision for first-year school psychologists

	19	Lack of time to have consistent/establish supervision meetings
	24	School-based school psychologists have limited time to receive supervision or discuss difficult cases
	26	Lack of time in schedule for supervision
	29	Job responsibilities and workload prevent frequently scheduled supervision meetings
	31	Frequent cancellations of supervision meetings
	38	Multiple responsibilities interfere with providing supervision
	39	Limited time to plan and schedule supervision meetings
Lack of Qualified Supervisors	8	Supervisor is not a credentialed school psychologist
	9	Lack of understanding the job as a school psychologist
	10	Incompetent supervisor (i.e., lower skill level than supervisees)
	22	Supervisor is not available
	28	Supervisors are not trained in how to provide effective supervision

	34	Licensed psychologists not available for supervision for those who would like to be supervised by licensed psychologist
	40	Limited supervisors available to provide supervision
Low Priority	1	Supervision is not a priority
	23	Supervision is not important to school system/psychological department
Personality Conflict	6	Personality conflicts between supervisor and practitioner
	7	Poor attitude toward job as a supervisor
Unstructured Supervisory Practices	2	Providing supervision that will benefit school psychologists
	21	No willingness of supervisor to engage in a genuine mentor role as opposed to only evaluating the competence of the practitioner
	25	Professional development seminars and activities have replaced individual/group supervision
	27	The supervision being provided does not advance the knowledge of more experienced school psychologists (i.e., unfamiliar with new regulations and federal guidelines)

32	Limited information being provided when supervision is received
33	Supervision focuses on procedural concerns rather than clinical issues
36	Time during supervision is not well used or managed

physically located far from one another, as indicated by Statements 3 and 4. One participant stated, "It is difficult to arrange for clinical supervision with [her supervisor] when my schools are located 25-plus miles away from the central office, which is not so central if you ask me [laughter]. I have to make a concerted effort to make arrangements to go to central office when we have meetings, or I need protocols or testing instruments, or for the evaluative periods twice a year. I can only imagine once a week…or even twice a month."

Lack of Consistency. This cluster is comprised of eight statements reflecting a general thought that supervision is lacking consistency and structure. Participants believed that supervision is frequently scheduled, consistent across the school districts, or provided in meaningful ways. In other words, participants believe that lack of ongoing supervision meetings and structure, when supervision is being provided, are additional barriers to receiving or providing supervision.

Lack of Time. Time is an impediment to engaging in supervision activities. There are 12 statements within this cluster signifying that time constraints are difficult to overcome when considering the job responsibilities and workload of school psychology

practitioners and supervisors. Due to multiple responsibilities, participants noted that supervision meetings are frequently cancelled (Statement #31), and it is difficult to establish consistent supervision meetings (Statement #19). For example, Statement 24 suggests that "school-based school psychologists have limited time to receive supervision or discuss difficult cases."

Lack of Qualified Supervisors. Within this cluster, there were seven statements that covered a range of ideas. For example, statements highlighted that supervisors may not be available when needed (Statements #22, #34 and #40), or some supervisors are not credentialed as school psychologists (Statement #8). There were also statements focusing on the training experiences and effectiveness of the supervisor. For example, one statement implied that some supervisors may lack the understanding of the job responsibilities and duties of a school psychologist (Statement #8). One school psychology practitioner recalled a former supervisory experience, "I've worked in a school system where we were supervised by an administrator from the executive office. My former supervisor had no experience as a school psychologist nor was he interested in what school psychologists did. It was a poor experience because he did not understand what I did and I felt he was incompetent as a supervisor."

Low Priority. This cluster has two statements that imply supervision is not a priority, valued or important to the school system or the psychological department. One supervisor stated, "As a supervisor or a Coordinator over Psychological Services, you learn quickly what is important to your superintendent and immediate supervisor. You learn that there are some things…although they are important to you…you just have to prioritize further down the list, like mandatory supervision. I supervise over forty school

psychologists while I would love to spend face-to-face time with each one individually…although ideal…it just is not realistic considering other responsibilities."

Personality Conflict. Participants included two statements regarding possible personality conflict between the practitioner and supervisor as one of many barriers to providing and/or receiving supervision. As reflected in Statement 7, a supervisor may have a "poor attitude toward the job."

Unstructured Supervisory Practices. This cluster consists of seven statements. The general themes within this cluster range include developing goals and objectives for practitioners and supervisors as a way to guide supervision activities (Statements #25, #27, #33), discuss information that will enhance the development of the practitioner (Statements #2, #27, #32, #33), and manage the time spent in supervision effectively (Statement #40). Additionally, Statement #21 focused on the role of the supervisor as a mentor opposed just evaluating the performance of the practitioner.

Point rating and cluster rating maps were not produced for the barrier prompt because rating criterion (e.g., priority, importance, feasibility) could not be used to provide meaningful information to this study. In other words, since the purpose of this study was to explore what barriers may exist when attempting to receive or provide supervision, it was not meaningful to rank the importance of each barrier, or determine the priority of each barrier when compared to other barriers. Therefore, the information requested for the barrier prompt did not lend itself appropriately to such a rating criterion. Therefore, average ratings for each statement or average cluster ratings were not derived. As a result, pattern matching comparisons between the rating scale clusters or between

participant groups (i.e., school psychology practitioners vs. supervisors) were not

generated.

Several concept maps were produced in response to the second focus prompt: the

strategy prompt. The strategy concept maps are presented below.

Figure 3. Point Map for Strategy Prompt
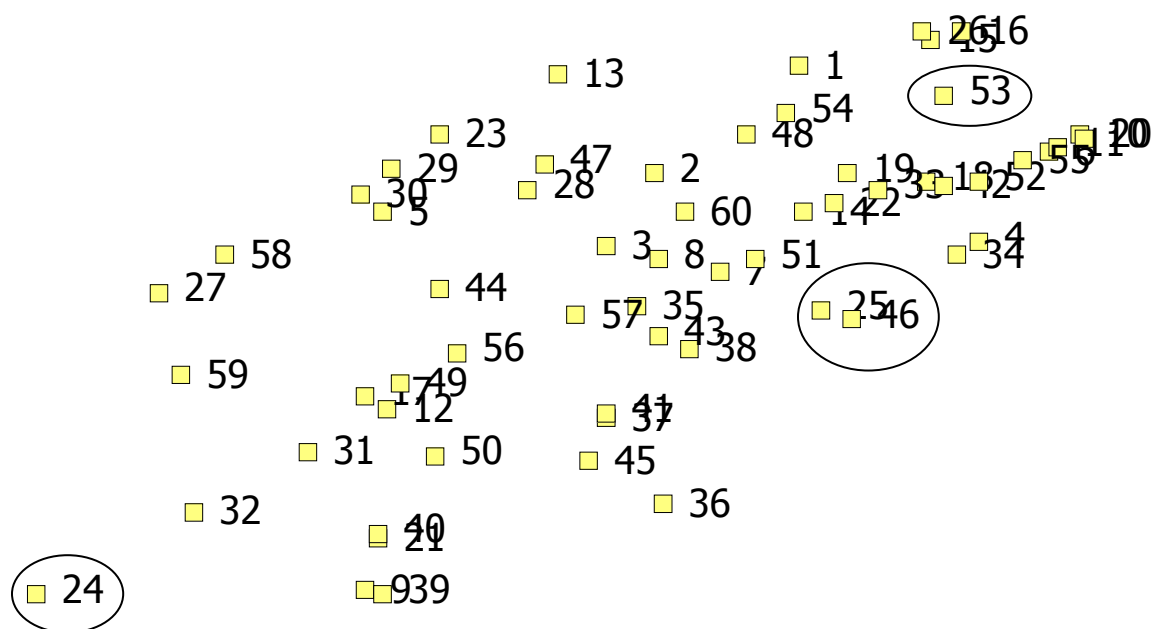
As discussed earlier, the points represent statements generated by both

participants—school psychology practitioners and supervisors—during the brainstorming

session. In response to the strategy prompt, 60 final statements are illustrated in this point

map. A complete list of statements is presented in Appendix C. Unlike the previous point

map, many of statements appear to be more conceptually related as they are in close

proximity to one another with not as much distinction. However, there are several

statements that are conceptually different and most likely sorted in different piles. For

example, Statement #24 ("Involve universities to provide more guidance to improve

supervision practices") is conceptually distinct from Statement #53 which states, "For

school-based psychologists, request time from schools for supervision." Whereas,

Statements #25 ("Improve consistency in providing supervision") and #46 ("Formalize

supervision meetings to prevent unproductive sessions") are more similar and most likely

sorted together by participants.

Figure 4. Point Rating Map based on Ratings of Importance (Strategy Prompt)

Layer	Average Rating
1	2.12 to 2.65
2	2.65 to 3.19
3	3.19 to 3.72
4	3.72 to 4.26
5	4.26 to 4.79
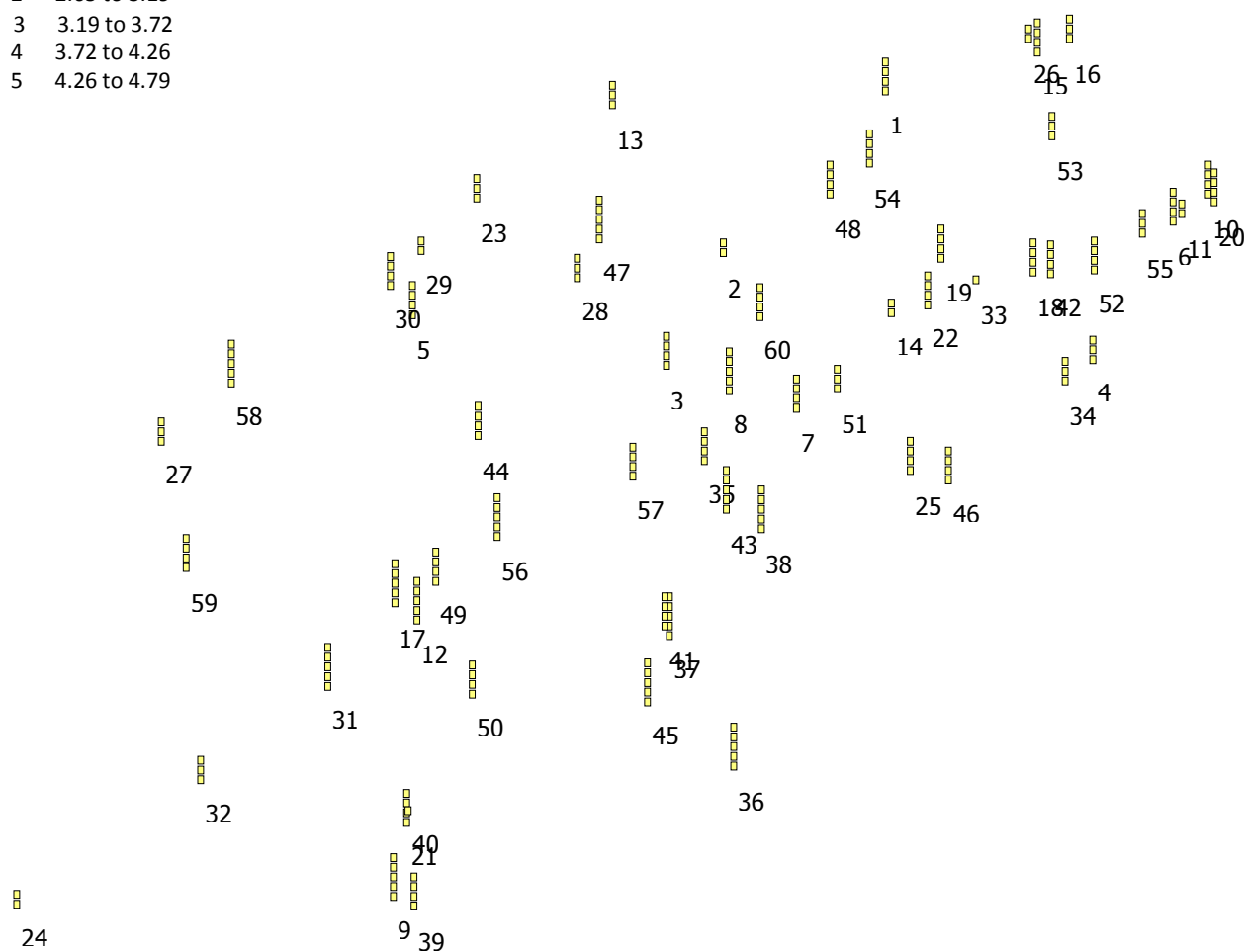
Individual statements were averaged resulting in a point rating map showing the relative importance of each statement for the entire group of participants. The number of points indicates the average importance rating. A list of layers and corresponding statements can be found in Appendix D. Out of 60 statements, there were 13 statements (i.e., Layer 5) that were rated as most important across participant groups, with average rating scores between 4.26 and 4.79. The statements rated as most important by the participants included appointing a peer supervisor or lead psychologist for all first year psychologists to provide direct feedback (Statement #17, rating of 4.79); clearly defining goals and expectations of supervision (Statement 8, rating of 4.56); supervisors receiving training in how to become an effective supervisor (Statement #9, rating of 4.47); and recognizing potential conflicts of interest (Statement 37, rating of 4.32). The second group of statements, with average rating scores between 3.72 and 4.26, consisted of the largest set of statements, there were 28 statements. The statements ranged from Statement #43, which states that supervisors and psychologists should work together to develop individual supervision goals (4.29), to Statement #30 which suggest that colloquiums should be developed for case consultation. The second and third layers contained 7 and 11 statements, respectively. Providing time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings), or statement #33, was the only statement within the first layer with an average rating score of 2.12 indicating that all participants believed this strategy to be the least important when providing and/or receiving supervision in school settings.

Figure 5. Nine-Cluster Map based on Ratings of Importance (Strategy Prompt)
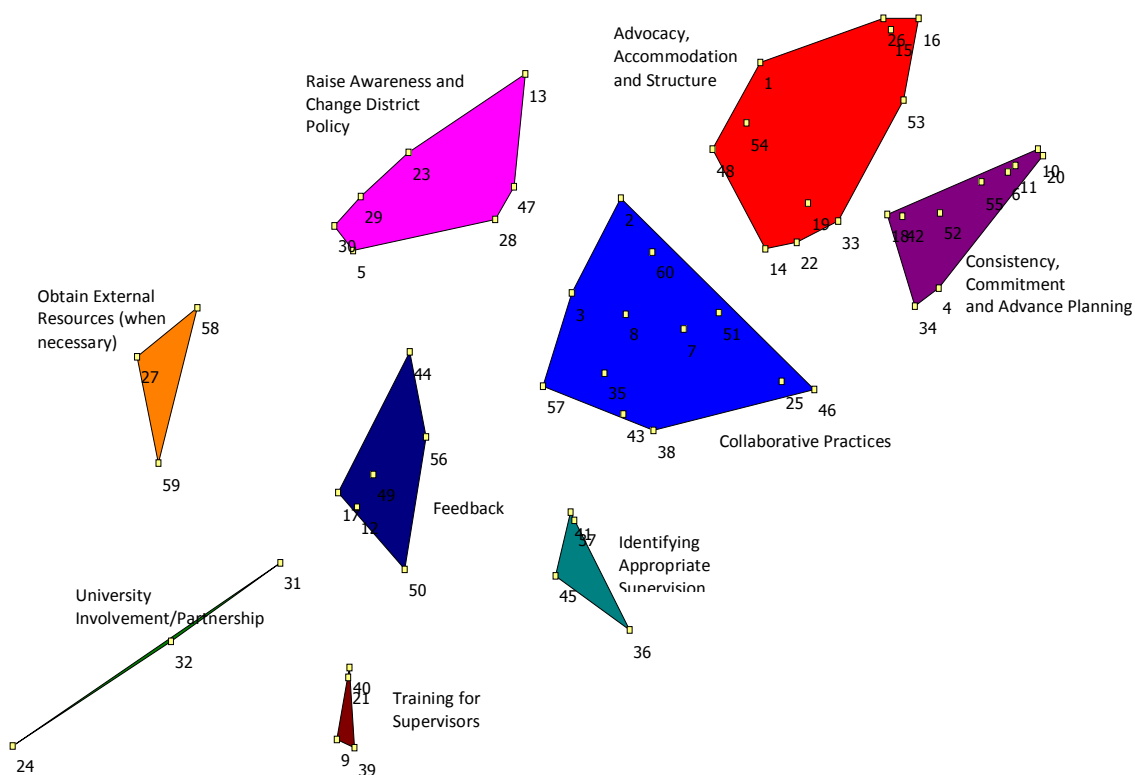
Similar to the barrier cluster map, this cluster map represents the statements that

were grouped into conceptual clusters. The hierarchical cluster tree process was also used

when determining the number of clusters. As a result, nine clusters were selected for the

strategy concept map for its meaningful distinction among the clusters. Unlike the barrier

cluster map, participants recommended to redraw the boundaries of the statements by

making 'University Involvement/Partnership' its own cluster instead of including those

three statements (e.g., Statements #24, #31, and #32) in the 'Training for Supervisor'

cluster. Moreover, participants also suggested that the original cluster label, 'Advocacy

and Logistics' change to 'Advocacy, Accommodation, and Structure.' Additionally,

another cluster label change included renaming 'Structure and Logistics' to 'Consistency,

Commitment and Advance Planning.' Feedback was incorporated and reflected in the final concept map as shown in Figure 5.

Each of the nine clusters is distinct and represents conceptual areas that participants identified as facilitators to addressing potential barriers to receiving and providing supervision. Statements within each cluster are conceptually similar and were most often sorted together by participants. A list of the nine clusters and corresponding statements are presented in Appendix E. Based on the rating criteria developed for this study, average ratings were generated for each statement and cluster from individual participant ratings on the rating scale. Average rating for each statement and cluster are also included in Appendix E. The clusters were very close in average rating scores and there were slight differences in variance range: 0.04 to 0.47. A brief description of the main ideas in each cluster is presented below and in rank order of importance.

Cluster 1: Feedback. Rated as the most important cluster, it consists of six statements with a general theme of providing or obtaining feedback for professional development. Participants suggested that feedback can occur in several meaningful ways. First, school psychology practitioners and supervisors indicated that it is crucial to appoint a supervisor for all first-year psychologists to provide additional support during the introductory year as a novice practitioner, as indicated by Statement #17. Secondly, participants reported that scheduling supervision topics (e.g., Response to Intervention, consultation, assessment) that are similar and relevant to the field of school psychology were essential supervision activities. Another component deemed as important to participants was obtaining supervision and feedback from credentialed school psychologists and seeking input from school psychologists to set specific supervision

goals. Finally, receiving and providing ongoing, bi-directional feedback was also perceived as important in the supervisory process.

Cluster 2: Identifying Appropriate Supervision. This cluster consisted of four statements indicated that finding right supervisor-supervisee matches are important in the supervisory process. In addition to seeking appropriate matches, participants also suggested that practitioners and supervision should recognize potential conflicts that may arise in supervision, seek supervision from someone who is knowledgeable in the field of school psychology, and identify multiple supervisors.

Cluster 3: Collaborative Practices. Rated as the third most important cluster, Collaborative Practices represented more statements than any other cluster. There were a range of strategies that participants endorsed. Most importantly, practitioners and supervisors alike believed that supervision goals and expectations should be clearly defined. They also endorsed identifying and outlining parameters at the onset of supervision as important. They suggested that these actions should be a joint effort between both parties. Collaborative efforts include discussing issues that may hinder the supervisory process, developing peer-supported supervision groups, and creating accountability systems to help meet supervision goals. Finally, participants indicated that supervision meetings should be formal to prevent unproductive sessions as described by one participant, "Supervision must [hands clapped together] be structured and formalized to avoid wasting time in a session filled with complaints, gripes and other unproductive discussions. If talk we about limited availability and how costly our time is..., then we have to make the most of it when we can."

*Cluster 4: Obtaining External Resources (when needed).*This cluster comprised of three statements that referred to seeking supervision outside of the school system when it is unavailable or unsatisfactory. One suggestion included partnering with neighboring school systems if supervision is not available. Additionally, participants also noted that school psychology practitioners should be self-motivated to seek supervision from qualified supervisors.

Cluster 5: Consistency, Commitment, and Advance Planning. There were 10 statements situated within this cluster that covered a range of strategies to increase supervision practices in the schools. Participants endorsed statements advocating for consistency in supervision by scheduling supervision times well in advance, preferably at the beginning of the school year. At minimum, provide monthly group supervision based on interest or specific topics that will enhance professional competency and skills. Consistent with a previous strategy, participants suggested scheduling weekly supervision for new school psychologists, particularly those practicing within the first two years.

Cluster 6: Raise Awareness and Change District Policy. Raising awareness regarding supervision and changing school policy was deemed as a possible means to address potential barriers in providing and receiving supervision. Presenting NASP's position statement and supervision research to the school board, administrators, and/or other key stakeholders was a recommended strategy to increase awareness about perceived supervision benefits. Participants also recommended including supervision expectations in the district guidelines/handbook, or advocate for more supervision time. One participant who was a school psychology practitioner for over 16 years stated, "We can *want, believe in, desire, or need* [pointing to her index finger] supervision all day

long but if the powers-that-be don't either *know about, care about, dismiss it, or devalue it*, we can forget about changing district policies or views. You have to speak up for what you want or believe in if you want to be a change agent. By the way, isn't that what we are as school psychologists—change agents?"

Cluster 7: Training for Supervisors. The most notable statement in this cluster was 'supervisors should receive training in how to become an effective supervisor' (Statement #9) which bolstered the importance of receiving formal training. Participants believed that supervisors should be trained to strengthen supervisory skills as well as continue ongoing training in supervisory practices.

Cluster 8: University Involvement/Partnership. Three statements comprise this cluster. Practitioners and supervisors noted that partnering with university professors will provide guidance in improving supervision practices according to best practices in school psychology.

Cluster 9: Advocacy, Accommodation and Structure. Rated as the least important cluster, with 11 statements, the general highlights include advocating for ongoing supervision times, developing frequent group supervision meetings where challenging cases are presented and discussed, and providing a central location for supervision to take place. One statement (#48), in particular, suggested using technology as an alternative way of providing supervision, to reduce time spent away from schools, using emails to share meaningful and relevant topics for discussion.

Figure 6. Nine-Cluster Rating Map for Strategy Prompt

Layer	Average Rating
1	3.54 to 3.70
2	3.70 to 3.87
3	3.87 to 4.04
4	4.04 to 4.21
5	4.21 to 4.37

Raise Awareness and Change District Policy

Advocacy, Accommodation and Structure

Obtaining External Resources (when necessary)

Collaborative Practices

Consistency, Commitment and Advance Planning

Feedback

University Involvement/Partnership

Identifying Appropriate Supervision

Training for Supervisors

A cluster rating map indicates the relative importance of the clusters by illustrating the average rating for each cluster by all participants. The cluster rating map shows that the Feedback (Layer 5, 4.37); Identifying Appropriate Supervision (Layer 5, 4.23); Obtaining External Resources (Layer 4, 4.06); and Collaborative Practices (Layer 4, 3.99) clusters were judged by participants to be most important. In the second layer of importance were the Training for Supervisors (3.77); and Consistency, Commitment and Advance Planning (3.75) clusters. There three remaining clusters (i.e., University Involvement/Partnership; Raise Awareness and Change District Policy; and Advocacy, Accommodation, and Structure) were perceived as less important by practitioners and supervision. The average cluster ratings by participants are included below in Table 8.

Table 8

Average Cluster Ratings based upon Importance

Cluster Label	Average Cluster Rating
Feedback	4.37
Identifying Appropriate Supervision	4.23
Obtaining External Resources (when necessary)	4.06
Collaborative Practices	3.99
Training for Supervisors	3.77
Consistency, Commitment, and Advance Planning	3.75
University Involvement/Partnership	3.62
Raise Awareness and Change District Policy	3.61
Advocacy, Accommodation, and Structure	3.54

To answer the final research question, statistical comparisons of participant ratings between clusters and among groups are presented below in Figures 7 and 8.

Figure 7. Pattern Matching Display based upon Ratings of Importance (Strategy Prompt)
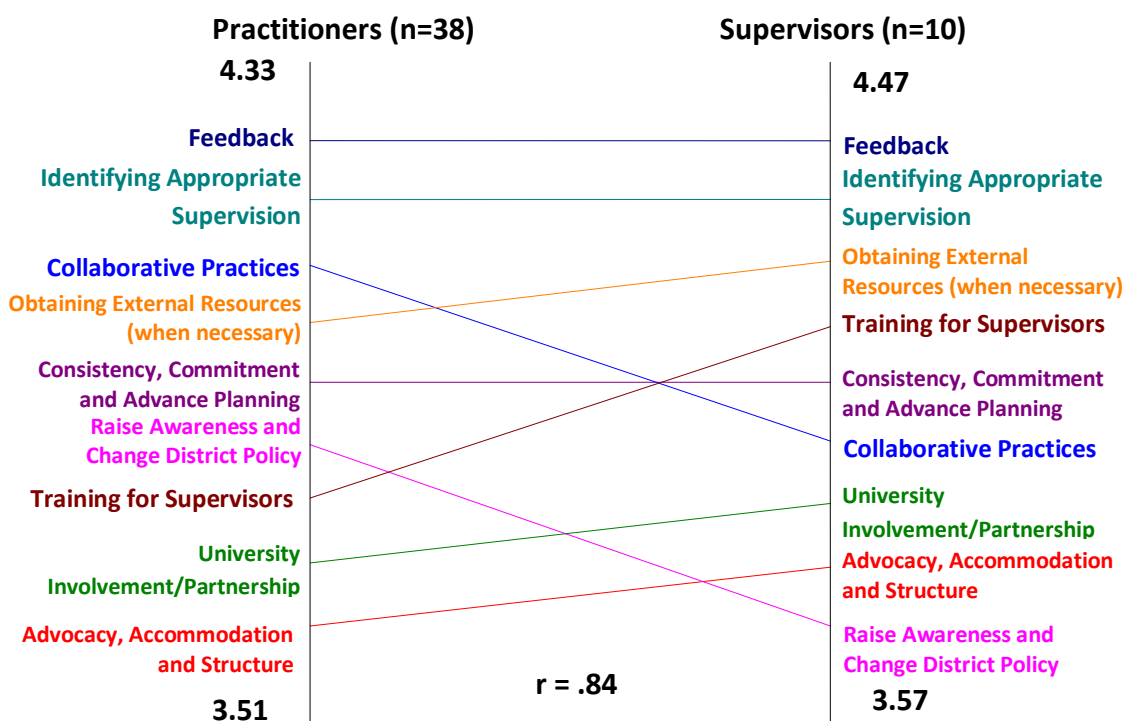
In this stage of concept mapping, the pattern matching display provides visual representation of how two sets of ratings (i.e., importance and feasibility) compare across participants (i.e., practitioners vs. supervisors) as shown in Figure 7. Cluster labels appear on each side of the pattern matching display in descending order according to the average rating score given by the participants. The more evenly drawn the lines are in the pattern matching display, the greater the level of agreement between the rating averages of participants for the clusters. For example, in this study, the cluster 'Feedback' had a high level of agreement and was rated as most importance by both participant groups. The

pattern matching display also includes additional information about the rating outcomes: (a) the number of participants that rated the clusters in each group (i.e., 'n'); (b) the range of average cluster rating scores (e.g., 4.33-3.51 for practitioners, 4.47-3.57 for supervisors); and (c) a Pearson's correlation coefficient. The Pearson correlation coefficient, or 'r', indicates the level of consistency between average cluster ratings (Kane & Trochim, 2007). In other words, the higher the coefficient, the greater the level of consistency or agreement between average rating scores on both sides of the display. In this case, there was a high level of consistency or agreement (i.e., r=.84) that existed between participant ratings of elements that were perceived to be the most important when facilitating supervision in school settings. There were little differences between the two groups as evidenced by the similar average rating scores (i.e., 4.33 vs. 4.47 for most important, 3.51 vs. 3.57 for least important). Practitioners identified feedback, identifying appropriate supervision, collaborative practices, obtaining external resources (when necessary), and consistency, commitment and advance planning as the five most important strategies to receiving and providing supervision in the schools. Further examination of the ratings revealed a small average rating score distance between the highest ranked cluster (Feedback, 4.33) and the lowest ranked cluster (Advocacy, Accommodation, and Structure, 3.51) suggesting that practitioners believed that all strategies were important to addressing supervision barriers.

Consistent with practitioner beliefs, supervisors also endorsed the same top five strategies with the exception of training for supervisors. Unlike practitioners, supervisors believed training was more important than collaborative practices. One reason for this discrepancy may be that supervisors believed one should have formal training in how to

become an effective supervisor in efforts to facilitate a supervisory process to implement

some of the elements included in the Collaborative Practices cluster such as defining

goals and expectations of supervision. One supervisor described how formal training

helped her understand the processes of supervision,

"My educational leadership and supervision coursework taught me the differences

between supervision models and how to interact with colleagues...how to begin

supervisory relationships that can potentially be burdened by several things and

factors, and even more so, I learned how to *listen* [laughs]. Listening, as simple as

it may sound, is important to receiving input or feedback from your colleagues.

Without those skills [paused], supervision is already complex, but without those

skills, you can do more damage than good. Supervision, in my belief, should

benefit both parties. While I acquired many of these skills in practice, I will say, I

received a foundation from my graduate school experiences."

The most notable difference in this pattern matching display was the downward

diagonal line for the 'Raise Awareness and Change District Policy' cluster. Practitioners'

average rating score for this cluster (i.e., 3.62) was slightly higher, relatively speaking,

than the average rating score of 3.57 given by supervisors. Practitioners considered

raising awareness regarding supervision and changing district policy as a more important

component of increasing supervision activities than supervisors did.

Figure 8. Pattern Matching Display based upon Ratings of Feasibility (Strategy Prompt)
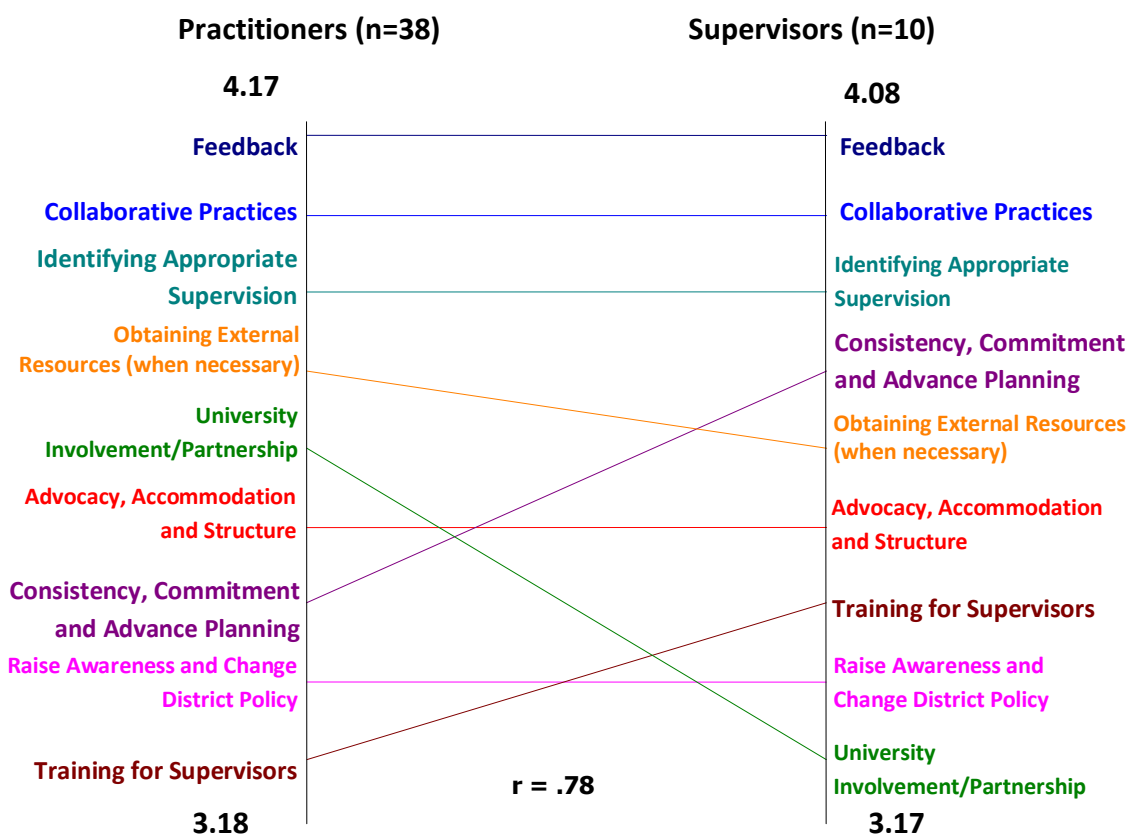
For this pattern matching display, there was a moderately high level of consistency or agreement (i.e., *r*=.78) that existed between participant ratings of elements that were perceived to be the most feasible when facilitating supervision in school settings. There were slight differences between practitioners and supervisors when comparing the average rating scores (i.e., 4.33 vs. 4.47 for most feasible, 3.51 vs. 3.57 for least feasible). As illustrated, both participant groups believed feedback, collaborative practices, and identifying appropriate supervision had high levels of agreement and was rated as most feasible strategies to implement. Additionally, the Obtaining External Resources cluster was within the top five most feasible elements that can be implemented when addressing supervision issues in the schools. There were two additional mutual

categories of agreement produced as evidenced by even diagonal lines: the Advocacy, Accommodation, and Structure (ranked sixth), and Raise Awareness and Change District Policy (ranked eighth) clusters.

There were three notable differences. First, supervisors produced a slightly higher average rating scores for the Consistency, Commitment and Advance Planning cluster (3.72) than the practitioners did (3.46) and ranked it as one of the top five feasible components to providing supervision. Second, the University Involvement/Partnership cluster was ranked higher by practitioners, with an average rating score of 3.33, as slightly more feasible when compared to supervisors who ranked it as the least feasible when considering the other strategies. The University Involvement/Partnership cluster was also ranked with the top five feasible elements by practitioners when receiving supervision. Third, the Training for Supervisors cluster is a point of disagreement between both participant groups. Supervisors believed receiving training is more feasible than practitioners. Although there is disagreement, it is relatively minor when examining the slight differences in the average rating scores where practitioners yielded an average rating score of 3.18 and 3.50 for supervisors.

Figure 9. Go-Zone Display Comparing Statements across Two Rating Criteria
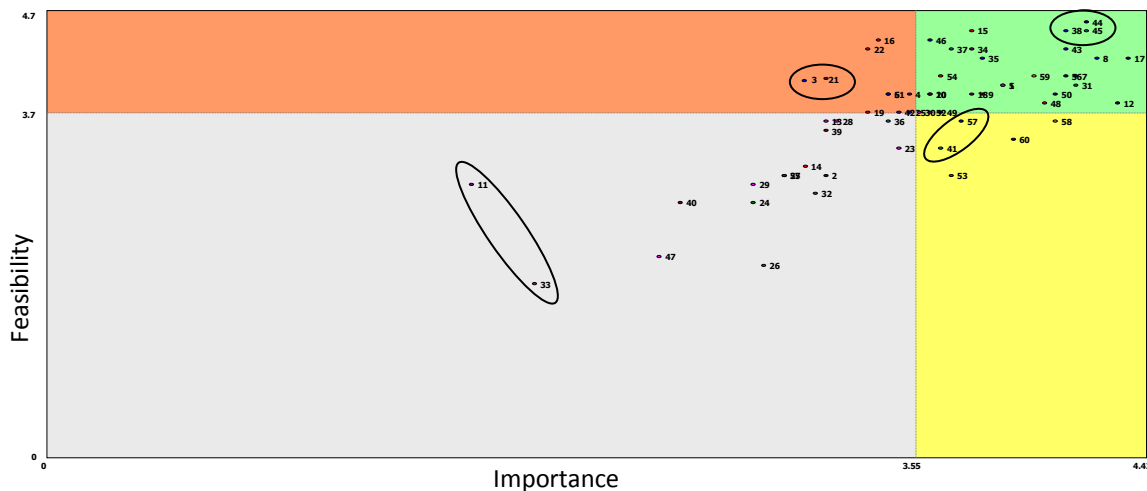
To examine the relationship between importance and feasibility, a Go-Zone

display was generated by the Concept System® Core software program. The two

variables were plotted against one another resulting in a bivariate X-Y graph of ratings.

As mentioned earlier, the Go-Zone display is illustrated in quadrants with each quadrant

representing the feasibility and importance of the given statement. The statements in the

upper-right quadrants represent the most feasible ideas within each cluster indicating a

higher implementation priority. For example, the three highest statements, #38, 44, and

45, are deemed by participants as the most feasible and important strategies. The

statements suggest that it would be relatively easy to implement the following practices

to increase supervision: (a) identify and outline parameters of supervision at the

beginning; (b) get input from school psychologists to set specific supervision goals; and

(c) seek supervision from a supervisor who is either a school psychologist or is

knowledgeable about the field of school psychology.

The upper-left quadrant contains statements with higher feasibility but lower in importance indicating a lower priority from the participants. In this study, some statements in this quadrant include ideas such as creating an accountability or mentoring system to help implement and meet supervision goals (Statement #3), or provide training for supervisors to strengthen supervisory skills (Statement #21) suggesting that participants believed that it was moderately feasible to implement such activities, but it was not a high priority.

The lower-right quadrant includes statements with higher importance but lower feasibility indicating challenges for implementation. Some of the statements that were highlighted in this quadrant included Statement #41, which suggested that it would be more difficult to identify multiple supervisors, or seek supervision outside the school system (Statement #57). Although, statements such as these were perceived to be important by the participants, they were also believed to be difficult to implement.

Finally, the lower-left quadrant identifies statements that are low in both importance and feasibility indicating a lower priority for implementation. The most notable statements, as illustrated in the display, were Statements #11 (i.e., "Provide supervision at least once a week); and #33, which states provide time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings). Further analysis of these statements, in particular, revealed that participants believed that supervision should occur only during school operational hours, and practitioners attested that supervision does not necessarily need to occur each week.

Interpretive Session. A few weeks following the sorting and rating activities, participants were shown the statements generated for each prompt as well the point

maps, both cluster maps, pattern matching displays, and Go-Zone display for the strategy

prompt. A handout showing the statements, concepts maps, and displays were provided.

If needed, participants were allowed to move statements from one cluster to another, but

the Concept System® Core software prevents deletions of entire statements. The

researcher went systemically down the list to gain group consensus regarding which

statements were represented in each cluster, the number of clusters, cluster labels, and

provided the opportunity for transfer of statements. As mentioned earlier, there were

minor changes made to the concept maps: (a) three statements were transferred and

boundaries were redrawn to add an additional cluster to the strategy concept map; and (b)

two clusters were renamed to better reflect the statements as perceived by the

participants. After review of statements and discussion of the concept maps, general

consensus was met within one hour.

Utilization of Maps. The final step in the concept mapping process is utilization of

maps, which is guided by the participants. According to the concept mapping process,

participants are typically asked to determine how the maps should be utilized in their

planning or evaluation efforts (Kane & Trochim, 2007). For example, researchers may

encourage group participants to designate participants into task forces to address specific

planning issues related to each cluster or particular statements in the Go-Zone display.

Or, the clusters may be used to develop questionnaires that explore additional aspects of

the phenomena being studies, or develop training modules. According to Kane and

Trochim (2007), at conclusion of the step, participants should have a description of

actions that will ultimately lead to a desirable current from the current state and a written

report. For this dissertation, data from the cluster maps and Go-Zone display will inform

possible recommendations that can be used to address the discrepancy between actual and desired supervision practices in school psychology from the perspectives of supervisors and practitioners.

Discussion

The present study was designed to capture the perceptions of school psychology practitioners and supervisors about supervision practices. The study sought to explore participants' perceptions about what impediments may hinder supervision efforts and identify what advocacy methods may increase opportunities to provide and receive supervision in school psychology. An additional goal was to examine whether and how school psychology practitioners and supervisors agree on potential impediments and possible facilitators to improve supervision practices. Finally, this study aimed to collect the perceptions of practicing school psychologists and supervisors to provide information about how the gap between actual and desired supervision practices can be remediated.

These questions are important because, for several years, researchers have posited that supervision is fundamental to the professional training and development of school psychologists, yet little supervision seems to actually occur (Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Knoff, 1986; Ross & Goh, 1993; Ross-Reynolds & Grimes, 1981; Zins et al., 1989). For example, Chafouleas and colleagues (2002) reported that supervision improved school psychologists' professional competency and current practices, and that they were more satisfied with their delivery of psychological services. Yet, most of the participants of their study actually received minimal supervision and over thirty percent received no supervision. That was not true for the practitioner participants of this study, who reported that they received supervision and were quite

pleased with it. Of the 38 respondents, only five practitioners reported that they had no available supervision. This was supported by reports from the supervisors in this study who reported that they provided supervision on a regular basis. There are several possible explanations for the discrepancy between what was reported by the current participants and what has been reported elsewhere. One issue may be that definitions of supervision have varied across studies. In this study, McIntosh and Phelps' (2000) reflective and descriptive definition was used. It summarizes supervision as, "an interpersonal interaction between two or more individuals for the purpose of sharing knowledge, assessing professional competencies, and providing objective feedback with the terminal goals of developing new competencies, facilitating effective delivery of psychological services, and maintaining professional competencies" (p. 33-34). In contrast, Chafouleas and colleagues (2002) broadly defined supervision as "the opportunity for direction and oversight of an individual's professional development," (p. 320) whereas Fischetti and Crespi (1999) provided a more narrow definition, "direct, one-on-one efforts on the part of the supervisor to help improve professional skills of a school psychologist" (p. 279). Participants in these different studies may have perceived their level of engagement in supervision activities differently when presented with various supervision definitions. Without a universal definition, it is unclear whether and how many differences between findings are attributable to definitions.

However, it is clear that definitional differences alone could not account for the large difference seen here where 87% of respondents reported receiving supervision compared to 22.9-31.9% in previous studies (Zins et al., 1989; Ross & Goh, 1993, respectively). Another potential source of differences involves the different samples

collected by different researchers. Previous studies sampled nationally (i.e., Chafouleas et al., 2002; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989) and may have included substantial numbers of school psychologists from rural and/or small districts with limited resources. That was not the case with the current sample. Eighty-six percent of the participants worked in districts with 20 or more school psychologists and a dedicated school psychology supervisor. In fact, four of the five school psychologists who reported little supervision all worked for the smallest districts sampled. This strongly suggests that district size may be an important variable in determining whether or not school psychologists receive supervision.

Although the participants in this study clearly indicated that they received or provided supervision, it is important to understand the components and forms that comprised that supervision, particularly since there was the discrepancy between these and previous results. From data produced here, participants reported that supervision consisted of individual, group, and/or peer supervision. This was endorsed by both practitioners and supervisors. When asked to describe the activities involved in supervision, the practitioners reported that they typically received administrative information, job responsibilities, and reported case results from the assessment case load. None described receiving supervision in a new or emerging skill that represented an area of professional growth. Neither did any of the practitioners report ongoing supervision about working with a new special education population, or culturally and/or linguistically diverse groups. Supervision as described by these respondents was also described as being completed in a fairly limited amount of time. On average, practitioners reported less than 60 minutes per week of supervision and supervisors reported devoting about 4-5

hours per week to supervision of 40 or more practitioners. Together, these data suggest that although the participants receive supervision, in most cases, it is substantially different from the recommended practices and times from the national associations (e.g., APA, 1981) and NASP (2000a). The majority of practitioners received less than the recommended time of a minimum of two hours per week as suggested by NASP, or at least one hour a week as recommended by APA.

Some of the discrepancies between reported supervision time and activities and the recommendations may be explained in part by the numerous barriers that interfered with more frequent supervision meetings. Barriers noted by participants included lack of time, lack of qualified supervisors, and/or geographical distance. Further, many of the school systems represented in this study did not require that school psychologists receive supervision. This may have also hindered the amount of time engaged in supervision activities and level of commitment from practitioners and supervisors. These findings are consistent with Zins et al. (1989) who also found that practitioners did not receive supervision because they were not required to do so and/or a qualified supervision was not available. Another possible explanation for this finding may be supervision is not viewed as a priority within most school systems. With the recent economic downfall significantly impacting school budgets, there may be pressure for school psychologists to provide more direct psychological services to schools rather than engage in supervisory activities away from school sites (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). From this study, an encouraging finding indicated that respondents perceived supervision as important and suggested that practitioners and supervisors should advocate for supervision, particularly with school boards and administrators.

Overall, both participant groups were moderately satisfied with the type of supervision they were providing or receiving and they perceived supervision to be beneficial. Practitioners reported that supervision improved their professional competence and objectivity, delivery of psychological services, and development of new knowledge and skills. Supervisors indicated that supervision contributes to the daily practices of school psychologists in many ways. Supervisors thought that practitioners made better assessment decisions, were more confident in their abilities, and were more aware of current research and laws pertinent to school psychology. When practitioners were asked to describe the type of supervision they received, the most commonly endorsed activities included review of psychological reports, case consultation and feedback, discussions related to assessment instruments, and distribution of or sharing resources. Activities endorsed by supervisors included case consultation and records review, observations and performance evaluations, and declaring professional goals and objectives. Many of these activities were more descriptive of administrative supervision, while others were on the surface of clinical supervision.

Though clinical and administrative supervision are both supervision models that can inform and guide supervisory process (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004), Harvey and Struzziero (2008) posited that its "skilled clinical supervision [that] fosters competence, critical thinking, problem solving, metacognitive skills and autonomy" (p. 231). Knoff (1988) posited that clinical supervision offers continued development of contemporary skills necessary to work with students, and help guide school psychologists toward the best ethical, legal, and educational practices and approaches. However, few activities noted in this study appeared to expand the practitioner's development or significantly

advance their level of expertise and none of the respondents reported engaging in any of the suggested activities recommended by NASP (2004) including didactic instruction, assigned readings, modeling, role-playing, direct observation, and/or reviewing audiotapes along with a typed transcript and analysis. Furthermore, Harvey and Struzziero suggest that clinical supervision should also include activities such as case notes, video and/or audio recordings, ongoing verbal and/or written feedback, and verbal self-reports, but none of these activities were reported by participants. And although the activities cited by participants are parallel to those reported in previous studies (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Fischetti & Crespi, 1999; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Ross & Goh, 1993; Zins et al., 1989), it appears that over the last two decades minimal advances have been made in how supervision is actually provided. The supervision reported by the current respondents looks much more like that reported in previous surveys than the recommendations of accrediting bodies or theorists. This implies that practitioners and supervisors may not be familiar with or exposed to clinical supervision as described by Harvey and Struzziero (2008). Thus, it is possible with increased engagement in such clinical activities, practitioners and supervisors might experience the more in-depth clinical activities mentioned previously and become even more satisfied with supervision. It is still unclear if these recommended clinical supervision activities (i.e., assigned readings, modeling, role-playing, etc.) have a greater impact on the expansion and maintenance of professional skills that school psychologists utilize when delivering effective services.

Previous research findings suggest that when practitioners do receive supervision, it is often provided by non-credentialed school psychologists or district-level

administrators (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Crespi, 1997). Additionally, Chafouleas et al. (2002) found that practitioners desired supervisors who were knowledgeable in the field of school psychology more than supervisors in particular administrative positions. Unique to this study, all of the supervisors were credentialed school psychologists as recommended by Crespi (1997). Interestingly, although all supervisors were credentialed school psychologists and met NASP's (2004) criteria as a qualified supervisor, being credentialed (nationally or regionally) and having three years of experience as a school psychologist may not be enough. Results indicated that the participating supervisors were not as knowledgeable about supervision models, goals or activities as would have been preferred, although seven of the supervisors reported some form of formal training in supervision. For instance, one supervisor noted that she was ambiguous about supervision models and reported not using one at all. This findings support recommendations by Ross and Goh (1993) that supervisors need formal training in clinical supervision that offers ongoing opportunities for observation, modeling, feedback and monitoring.

Without additional training in supervision, it is questionable whether appropriate supervision activities can be provided or if supervisors will adhere to particular supervision models with fidelity. Appropriate formal training might alleviate some of the problems that burden positive supervisory experiences, as reported by participants, such as lack of consistency in supervision, ineffective use of time during supervision, or incompetent supervision. One optimistic result of the current study is that supervisors believed training in supervision was important and feasible. Following this encouraging finding, supervisors could explore the four clinical supervisory training models illustrated

by Fischetti and Crespi (1998) to develop or enhance their level of competency as clinical supervisors.

A final point of discussion involves school psychologists' perceptions regarding the need to improve supervision practices. Even though practitioners perceived supervision as useful and important and were moderately satisfied with supervision, they also indicated that supervision was marked with several impediments. First, most school psychologists reported that supervision was not provided during regularly scheduled meeting times. Instead, practitioners reported that they received supervision monthly or on an as-needed basis. Practitioners reported great interest in receiving supervision more frequently and on a consistent basis, which is consistent with prior studies (Chafouleas et al., 2002; Ross & Goh, 1993; Ward, 2001). Lack of time appears to be a major barrier to providing more consistent and frequent supervision meetings. Harvey & Struzziero (2008) asserted that it is difficult to justify supervision when schools have high demands and needs and when school psychologists serve multiple schools during the week. Second, participant groups also indicated that when engaged in supervision, it is important to receive formal feedback. Practitioners and supervisors suggested that this feedback should be ongoing and bi-directional. Evaluation of supervision is a crucial component to the supervisory process (Allison & Upah, 2008; Chafouleas et al., 2002; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008). Evaluative procedures are supported by NASP (2000b), which recommends that all school psychologists have a written plan delineating the supervision goals and responsibilities of the parties involved. The written plan serves as a formative and summative document to evaluate the overall professional development of the practitioner

and his or her professional strengths and weaknesses. The plan can also provide as a formal way to evaluate the effectiveness of the supervisor (Allison & Upah, 2008; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008). Finally, participants reported that supervisory processes should consist of identifying and outlining parameters at the onset of supervision in a joint effort between both parties. Some participants complained that supervision was oftentimes derailed due to lack of structure, goal setting, and time management. These poor interactions lead to frustrations and disappointment with the supervision process, and in some cases, supervision was hindered significantly or resulted in termination of supervision altogether. As suggested earlier, a written plan can help alleviate these problems as well as adhering to a particular supervision model.

 Recommendations to Improve Supervision Practices

Since supervision is posited as necessary and important (Knoff, 1986), it is important to discuss how school psychologists and supervisors can obtain clinical supervision as described in the literature (e.g., Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Knoff, 1986). Data from the concept mapping activities (i.e., Go-Zone display) yielded specific recommendations for school psychology practitioners and supervisors to implement when developing or increasing supervision practices at the local school level. These suggestions were intended to effect change and achieve desired outcomes (Kane & Trochim, 2007). Based on participant perceptions, the following strategies were ranked as the most important and feasible way to facilitating supervision activities in authentic school settings.

Plan and Commit. Participants, particularly supervisors, were adamant about the need to commit to regularly scheduled supervision times to ensure that supervision consistently takes place. Supporting this view, participants who were involved in regular supervision activities reported that they were satisfied with the arrangements and suggested that, with advance planning and commitment, supervision did not interfere significantly with their job responsibilities. Therefore, the data suggests that school psychologists and supervisors should be intentional in their actions to create the time to engage in supervision activities to maintain consistent and regularly scheduled meetings. Otherwise, other competing obligations and responsibilities may prevent them from doing so. These suggestions are similar to Ross and Goh (1993) who asserted that school psychologists should increase their efforts to secure supervision.

Set Parameters. Following NASP's (2000a) guidelines, both participant groups recommended that establishing specific, measurable objectives at the onset of supervision is important to structuring meaningful supervision. Data suggested that initial activities could include clearly defining goals and expectations of supervision, establishing specific guidelines (e.g., how supervision should be implemented), and outlining responsibilities. School psychologists and supervisors alike agreed that seeking guidance from NASP regarding "Best Practices in Supervision" could provide direction in facilitating this process. Participants also implied that specific supervision goals could be developed by both parties, which implies that supervision should foster a collaborative partnership. Thus, it appears that setting parameters increases productivity, structure, and satisfaction with supervision meetings as suggested by Harvey and Struzziero (2008).

Identify Appropriate Supervisors. Data also indicated that supervision and feedback should be obtained from credentialed school psychologists, or at least someone who is knowledgeable in the field of school psychology, to prevent misunderstanding of job responsibilities and roles, and provide more in-depth feedback during case consultation. Participants asserted that this process can bolster a more positive collaboration between supervisors and practitioners, decrease or prevent potential conflicts due to misunderstanding of roles and responsibilities, and foster discussion regarding issues that are germane only to the field of school psychology. All of these suggestions are consistent with recommendations offered by Crespi (1997). A comparison of this finding with previous literature suggests that practitioners indicate a strong desire to seek supervision from certified school psychologists (Chafouleas et al., 2002). Furthermore, Crespi (1997) postulated that supervisors who are credentialed as school psychologists would better understand the complex roles and responsibilities that are specific to the job. If such supervision is unavailable, participants in this study recommended being self-motivated and diligent in seeking a qualified supervisor either privately, from a neighboring school system, or with a licensed psychologist.

Explore Alternative Supervision Formats. Participants also recommended developing peer-supported supervision groups. Within this format, practitioners can engage in various supervision activities that they find to be meaningful such as presenting difficult cases and receiving feedback, sharing new information and resources, and/or discussing new standardized and informal assessment instruments. Further, participants can utilize this format to engage in recommended clinical activities as mentioned previously. In addition to peer supervision groups, participants also suggested the use of

technology as a way of providing and/or receiving supervision. For example, school psychologists could generate group discussions through a school listserv that are created specifically for the purpose of sharing meaningful and relevant topics. School-based practitioners viewed this option as more feasible because it reduced time spent away from the schools they served. Supporting the use of technology in school psychology, McLeod and Ysseldyke (2008) asserted that school psychologists can use electronic software to participate in professional learning opportunities. With proper training and consideration of professional ethics (e.g., confidentiality of student information), supervision could possibly be revolutionized by the use of technology. Although participants suggested alternative ways of receiving and/or providing supervision, suggestions may be constrained by familiar practices and current thinking rather utilizing supervision models as a guide to improve supervision formats.

Solicit Guidance and Direction from NASP. Findings from the study indicated that supervision practices could benefit significantly from further guidance and direction from NASP. In 2004, NASP produced a position statement on supervision in school psychology that provided general information on professional standards, supervision methods and structures, and training and evaluation of supervisors. Even with these guidelines in place, data from this study illustrated that supervision practices vary greatly in different school systems and lack universal consistency. For instance, in the position statement, qualification of supervisors only suggest that school psychology supervisors meet the following criteria: "hold the Nationally Certified School Psychologist credential or the school psychology credential for the state, and have at least three years' experience as a school psychologist" (NASP, 2004, p. 2). As noted previously, these data suggests

that certification and experience are not enough. NASP (2004) could include formal training in clinical supervision as an additional qualification criterion to become a supervisor. It seems without more guidance and direction from NASP, supervision practices may continually be burdened with multiple impediments as illustrated by data from this study.

Engage in Clinical Supervision & Activities. Present data suggest that supervision practices may benefit from increased engagement in clinical activities. As previously discussed, clinical activities might expand and advance a practitioner's skills to effectively serve students, families, school and communities in which they serve. Although, some of the suggested activities recommended by Harvey and Struzziero (2008) and NASP (2004) may not be considered as feasible in authentic school settings (e.g., reviewing video and/or audio recordings along with a typed transcript and analysis, didactic instruction, or role-playing), there are many more practical activities that might improve one's professional practice such as assigned readings, ongoing verbal and/or written feedback, verbal self-reports, assigned readings, modeling, or direct observation. Engagement in such clinical activities might increase the level of satisfaction with supervision while expanding professional skills that school psychologists utilize when delivering effective services.

Establish Formal Evaluations with Written Plans. Although, participants highlighted the importance of developing supervision goals and guidelines at the onset of supervision, the development of formal and summative evaluations of the supervision process was largely ignored. There were a few statements related to evaluating the supervision process such as provide ongoing feedback for school psychologists and

supervisors, but they were very vague and general in nature. Researchers have indicated that evaluations of supervision services are crucial in several ways (Allison & Upah, 2008; Chafouleas et al., 2002; Harvey & Struzziero, 2000, 2008; Lamb & Swerdlik, 2003; Sullivan & Conoley, 2008). One, evaluation helps identify professional strengths and weaknesses, and overall development of the practitioner. Second, it can aid in providing ongoing feedback of the supervision process for school psychology practitioners and supervisors. Finally, evaluation can also help modify or revise any pre-established goals, responsibilities, and/or expectations as defined in the written plan. However, participants in this study did not discuss the need for evaluations as described in the literature.

Unique Contributions

This study contributes important and unique information to the literature through the use of concept mapping. First, this study is the first of its kind in the field of school psychology. Second, this study specifically sought out practitioners and supervisors to compare and contrast their perceptions regarding supervision revealing similar priorities among both groups with the exception of training for supervisors. Third, unlike previous research, this study focused on supervision practices in a metropolitan area, whereas previous studies sampled nationally. Therefore, participant perceptions highlighted complexities and possible resolutions regarding supervision when working in larger school systems with 20 or more school psychologists. Finally, another unique feature of this study is the reiterative process that allowed for further clarification and richer description of current supervision practices in authentic school settings. Practitioners and supervisors were provided with the opportunity to engage actively with the data and

ensure that the results accurately reflected their ideas and perceptions, particularly during the interpretative session where participants were allowed to review the data and make minor changes and/or suggestions.

Implications for Practice

Results have several implications for school psychology practitioners and supervisors regarding supervision practices. An interesting aspect of this study involves the use of supervision models. As suggested by Bernard and Goodyear (2004), supervision models can inform and guide supervision practices and each model has its own distinct goals, epistemologies, and activities. As such, supervision models help characterize what supervision looks like, describe the process of learning and development for the supervisee, and how supervisors and supervisees collaborate to build such learning and development. Yet, when supervisors were queried about their preferred supervision model(s), they reported using a combination of supervision models with most using administrative and/or clinical supervision models and some using a developmental model, but they did not indicate how their preferred supervision model guided supervision activities. One supervisor admitted that she was not sure about a particular model and reported not using one at all. It remains unclear how supervision models were used by the participants in this study or how the activities implemented are connected to particular supervision models. One plausible reason for this finding might be that school psychology supervisors are not familiar with the actual definition, goals, and/or epistemologies of supervision model that are implementing resulting in haphazard supervision practices, as cited by both participant groups. This finding indicates a need to further explore how supervision models might impact supervision practices.

Implications for Future Research

Future research might explore the use of supervision model(s) in school psychology. Such studies could highlight what supervision models, if any, are used by school psychology supervisors. They could also examine how supervision models inform school psychological practices and explore what type of model(s) are perceived by school psychology practitioners and supervisors to be effective. In addition, researchers might explore how clinical supervision and activities might lead to more effective school psychologists (Ross & Goh, 1993). This direction could help extend the existing literature by identifying specific variables that influence how effective supervision leads to effective school psychology, and inform evaluation practices (Ross & Goh, 1993). Moreover, while exploring the impact of formal training on supervision practices was not a goal for this study, it is noteworthy of further investigation. Since there remains little consistency in graduate training programs regarding supervision coursework (Brown & Minke, 1986; Fischetti & Crespi, 1998; Ross & Goh, 1993), there are several questions that remain unanswered—What type and how much training is warranted to be designated as a qualified clinical supervisor? How consistent is supervisory coursework or training in school psychology graduate programs? Another aspect of supervision may include investigating how supervision practices may differ for practitioners progressing in their career and how more advanced practitioners maintain professional objectivity and upgrade their skills and knowledge. Although, NASP (2004) suggests that more proficient and advanced school psychologists may engage in less frequent and indirect supervision, little is known about how more experienced school psychologists engage in supervision processes. This could inform the relationship, if any, between supervision

practices and career progression. Future studies could also explore the use of concept mapping as a methodology in school psychology. Concept mapping was an appropriate research tool for this line of inquiry and may be beneficial for other research probes.

Finally, future research could replicate this study with other segments of the school psychology population. Perceptions of rural school psychologists and supervisors and in other urban school systems could be collected to determine if the results are consistent and/or illustrate possible changes. Researchers may also want to consider using school psychologist-to-student ratios to explore if this variable makes a difference in supervision practices. Inclusion of these additional data sources may strengthen our understanding of how supervision impact school psychological practices and contribute to the professional growth of practicing school psychologists in various settings.

Limitations

The findings of this study are exploratory and have several limitations. First, the use of concept mapping as a methodology has limitations that are typically associated with qualitative inquiry, including a relatively small participant sample. Additionally, the supervisors who participated in this study were not randomly selected since school psychology is a relatively small community and there are typically 1-3 school psychology supervisors in each school system. Although, supervisors were not selected randomly, most supervisors in the identified area participated in this study. As noted earlier, all of the supervisors in the study were identified as credentialed school psychologists. Therefore, perceptions of supervisors reported here may be exclusive rather than inclusive of supervisors from other fields such as administrators and university trainers. Second, this study was conducted in one large metropolitan area in the Southeastern

region of the United States. Given these factors, generalizability beyond the context in which the study took place is unknown. Third, data collected were based on participant perceptions rather than behaviors indicating that findings are subjective and based on participant experiences. Fourth, the primary investigator was also the facilitator during all phases of the structured group processes (i.e., brainstorming, sorting and rating statements, interpretive session) which may have influenced group interactions and responses (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 1998). Furthermore, researcher biases and assumptions may have also influenced the data, however, reflective journaling and discussions with university trainers, school psychology supervisors and practitioners were employed to minimize researcher's biases and influences (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Finally, the cost of the specialized software to conduct the statistical analyses was high and limited to one-time use. The cost prevented the primary investigator from exploring additional variables that may have influenced or impacted supervision practices.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Georgia State University

Department of Counseling and Psychological Services

RATING SHEET

**Note: Return this sheet in the envelope provided.

Pseudonym:_____

Focus Prompt
*Generate statements which describe what can be done to **remediate** the identified problems, issues, or concerns as related to supervision.*

Please rate the following items on a 1-to-5 scale in terms of how **IMPORTANT** you think it is compared to the rest of the statements. Use the following scale: 1 = Relatively Unimportant; 2 = Somewhat Important; 3 = Moderately Important; 4 = Very Important; 5 = Extremely Important.

Please rate the following items on a 1-to-5 scale in terms of how **FEASIBLE** you think it is to implement when compared to the other statements. Use the following scale: 1 = Not at all feasible; 2 = Somewhat Feasible; 3 = Moderately Feasible; 4 = Very Feasible; 5 = Extremely Feasible.

IMPORTANCE Rating	#	Statement	FEASIBLE Rating
1 2 3 4 5	1	Encourage department leaders and/or supervisors to commit to regularly scheduled supervision times	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	2	Develop supervision committees for peer supervision	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	3	Create accountability or mentoring system to help implement and meet supervision goals	1 2 3 4 5

IMPORTANCE Rating					#	Statement	FEASIBLE Rating				
1	2	3	4	5	4	Provide monthly group supervision based on interest or specific topics	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	5	Develop clear district guidelines about supervision expectations and rules	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	6	Schedule supervision monthly or quarterly with every school psychologist	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	7	Establish specific guidelines defining supervision, expectations, and how it is to be implemented	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	8	Clearly define goals and expectations of supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	9	Supervisors should receive training in how to become an effective supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	10	Schedule time for each school psychologist to receive supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	11	Provide supervision at least once a week	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	12	Obtain supervision from a credentialed school psychologist	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	13	Advocate for supervision time to increase its value with administrators	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	14	Provide a central office location to conduct supervision meetings	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	15	Advocate for ongoing supervision time throughout the school year	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	16	Encourage school psychologists to request supervision time	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	17	Appoint a peer supervisor or lead psychologist to all first year psychologists	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	18	Establish and maintain structured supervisory times	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	19	Have regular meetings to discuss possible supervision issues	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	20	Schedule regular supervision times when preparing meeting schedule	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	21	Provide training for supervisors to strengthen supervisory skills	1	2	3	4	5

IMPORTANCE Rating					#	Statement	FEASIBLE Rating				
1	2	3	4	5	22	Allot time during staff meetings for peer supervision (e.g., case consultation)	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	23	Make supervision mandatory by including in district rules and policies	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	24	Involve universities by providing more guidance to improve supervision practices	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	25	Improve consistency in providing supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	26	Advocate for time outside of schools to hold supervision meetings	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	27	Partner with neighboring school systems if supervision is not available	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	28	Increase awareness about supervision with school administrators	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	29	Present supervision research to executive office	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	30	Developing colloquiums for case consultation	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	31	Seek guidance and comply with guidelines from NASP regarding Best Practices in Supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	32	Work with university professors as a resource in providing supervision (e.g., RTI best practices)	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	33	Provide time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings)	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	34	Provide supervision in different modes (e.g., phone conferencing or email)	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	35	Discuss issues that may hinder supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	36	Find right supervisor-supervisee matches	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	37	Recognize potential conflicts of interest	1	2	3	4	5

IMPORTANCE Rating					#	Statement	FEASIBLE Rating				
1	2	3	4	5	38	Identify and outline parameters of both supervisors and practitioners at the beginning of supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	39	Supervisors should receive ongoing training in supervisory practices	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	40	Train school psychologists to become supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	41	Identify one or two lead school psychologists to serve as a supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	42	Schedule weekly supervision for new school psychologists, particularly for the first two years	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	43	Supervisors and psychologists work together to develop individual supervision goals	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	44	Get input from school psychologists to set specific supervision goals	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	45	Supervisor should be a school psychologist or knowledgeable about the field of school psychology	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	46	Formalize supervision meetings to prevent unproductive sessions	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	47	Present NASP Position Statement to school board, administrators, and/or other key stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	48	Share meaningful and relevant topics for discussion through emails to reduce time away from schools	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	49	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	50	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for school psychologist practitioners	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	51	Engage in participatory leadership to develop supervision schedule	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	52	Develop consistent supervision times	1	2	3	4	5

IMPORTANCE Rating					#	Statement	FEASIBLE Rating				
1	2	3	4	5	53	For school-based psychologists, request time from schools for supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	54	Develop monthly schedule to present 2-3 challenging cases for group/peer supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	55	Identify a weekly time to meet for supervision	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	56	Schedule supervision topics that focus on relevant topics related to job duties such as RTI, consultation, evaluating research based interventions	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	57	Seeks supervision outside of school system	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	58	Seek supervision from qualified supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	59	School psychologists should be self motivated to seek supervision from qualified supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	60	Develop peer supported supervision groups	1	2	3	4	5

40 Barrier Statements

Focus Prompt #1: Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe issues, problems, or concerns that are related to receiving (or providing) supervision."

1	Supervision is not a priority
2	Providing supervision that will benefit school psychologists
3	Geographical distance prevents supervision
4	Difficult to receive supervision when school-based
5	Lack of consistency in how supervision is being provided
6	Personality conflicts between supervisor and practitioner
7	Poor attitude toward job as a supervisor
8	Supervisor is not a credentialed school psychologist
9	Lack of understanding the job as a school psychologist
10	Incompetent supervisor (i.e., lower skill level than supervisees)
11	Time constraints in providing supervision
12	Time constraints in receiving supervision
13	Supervision is not received when needed
14	Finding time to meet with supervisor
15	Finding time to meet with practitioners
16	Lack of ongoing, scheduled supervision
17	Lack of consistent supervision

18	Limited supervision for first-year school psychologists
19	Lack of time to have consistent/establish supervision meetings
20	No coordinated schedule to meet for supervision
21	No willingness of supervisor to engage in a genuine mentor role as opposed to only evaluating the competence of the supervisee
22	Supervisor is not available
23	Supervision is not important to school system/psychological department
24	School-based school psychologists have limited time to receive supervision or discuss difficult cases
25	Professional development seminars and activities have replaced individual/group supervision
26	Lack of time in schedule for supervision
27	The supervision being provided does not advance the knowledge of more experienced school psychologists (i.e., unfamiliar with new regulations and federal guidelines)
28	Supervisors are not trained in how to provide effective supervision
29	Job responsibilities and workload prevent frequently scheduled supervision meetings
30	Supervision policies are not consistent from county to county and from state to state
31	Frequent cancellations of supervision meetings
32	Limited information being provided when supervision is received
33	Supervision focuses on procedural concerns rather than clinical issues
34	Licensed psychologists not available for supervision for those who would like to be supervised by licensed psychologist

35	Lack of regularly scheduled supervision meetings
36	Time during supervision is not well used or managed
37	Supervision is not provided in structured ways
38	Multiple responsibilities interfere with providing supervision
39	Limited time to plan and schedule supervision meetings
40	Limited supervisors available to provide supervision

APPENDIX C

60 Strategy Statements

Focus Prompt #2: Please generate short phrases or sentences that "describe, in your opinion, what can be done to remediate the identified problems, issues, or concerns as related to supervision."

1	Encourage department leaders and/or supervisors to commit to regularly scheduled supervision times
2	Develop supervision committees for peer supervision
3	Create accountability or mentoring system to help implement and meet supervision goals
4	Provide monthly group supervision based on interest or specific topics
5	Develop clear district guidelines about supervision expectations and rules
6	Schedule supervision monthly or quarterly with every school psychologist
7	Establish specific guidelines defining supervision, expectations, and how it is to be implemented
8	Clearly define goals and expectations of supervision
9	Supervisors should receive training in how to become an effective supervisor
10	Schedule time for each school psychologist to receive supervision
11	Provide supervision at least once a week
12	Obtain supervision and feedback from credentialed school psychologists
13	Advocate for supervision time to increase its value with administrators
14	Provide a central office location to conduct supervision meetings

15	Advocate for ongoing supervision time throughout the school year
16	Encourage school psychologists to request supervision time
17	Appoint a peer supervisor or lead psychologist to all first year psychologists to provide direct feedback
18	Establish and maintain structured supervisory times
19	Have regular meetings to discuss possible supervision issues
20	Schedule regular supervision times when preparing meeting schedule
21	Provide training for supervisors to strengthen supervisory skills
22	Allot time during staff meetings for peer supervision (e.g., case consultation)
23	Make supervision mandatory by including in district rules and policies
24	Involve universities to provide more guidance to improve supervision practices
25	Improve consistency in providing supervision
26	Advocate for time outside of schools to hold supervision meetings
27	Partner with neighboring school systems if supervision is not available
28	Increase awareness about supervision benefits with school administrators
29	Present supervision research to executive office/school board, and/or administrators
30	Develop colloquiums for case consultation
31	Seek guidance and comply with guidelines from NASP regarding Best Practices in Supervision
32	Work with university professors as a resource in providing supervision (e.g., RTI best practices)
33	Provide time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings)
34	Provide supervision in different modes (e.g., phone conferencing or email)
35	Discuss issues that may hinder supervision

36	Find right supervisor-supervisee matches
37	Recognize potential conflicts of interest
38	Identify and outline parameters of both supervisors and practitioners at the beginning of supervision
39	Supervisors should receive ongoing training in supervisory practices
40	Train school psychologists to become supervisors
41	Identify one or two lead school psychologists to serve as a supervisor
42	Schedule weekly supervision for new school psychologists, particularly for the first two years
43	Supervisors and psychologists work together to develop individual supervision goals
44	Get input from school psychologists to set specific supervision goals
45	Supervisor should be a school psychologist or knowledgeable about the field of school psychology
46	Formalize supervision meetings to prevent unproductive sessions
47	Present NASP Position Statement to School Board, administrators, and/or other key stakeholders
48	Share meaningful and relevant topics for discussion through emails to reduce time away from schools
49	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for supervisor
50	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for school psychologist practitioners
51	Engage in participatory leadership to develop supervision schedule
52	Develop consistent supervision times
53	For school-based psychologists, request time from schools for supervision
54	Develop monthly schedule to present 2-3 challenging cases for group/peer supervision

55	Identify a weekly time to meet for supervision
56	Schedule supervision topics that focus on relevant topics related to job duties (e.g., RTI, consultation, evaluating research based interventions) and allow opportunity for feedback
57	Seek supervision outside of school system
58	Seek supervision from qualified supervisors
59	School psychologists should be self motivated to seek supervision from qualified supervisors
60	Develop peer supported supervision groups

APPENDIX D

List of Statements and Average Ratings based upon Importance

Layer and Average Rating Range		Statements *(rank in order of importance for both participants in descending order)*	Average Rating
Layer 5: 4.26 to 4.79	17	Appoint a peer supervisor or lead psychologist to all first year psychologists to provide direct feedback	4.79
	8	Clearly define goals and expectations of supervision	4.56
	38	Identify and outline parameters of both supervisors and practitioners at the beginning of supervision	4.50
	9	Supervisors should receive training in how to become an effective supervisor	4.47
	56	Schedule supervision topics that focus on relevant topics related to job duties (e.g., RTI, consultation, evaluating research based interventions) and allow opportunity for feedback	4.44
	36	Find right supervisor-supervisee matches	4.41
	31	Seek guidance and comply with guidelines from NASP regarding Best Practices in Supervision	4.38
	58	Seek supervision from qualified supervisors	4.38
	45	Supervisor should be a school psychologist or knowledgeable about the field of school psychology	4.35
	12	Obtain supervision and feedback from credentialed school psychologists	4.32
	37	Recognize potential conflicts of interest	4.32
	47	Present NASP Position Statement to School Board, administrators, and/or other key stakeholders	4.32
	43	Supervisors and psychologists work together to	4.29

develop individual supervision goals

Layer 4: 3.72 to 4.26	44	Get input from school psychologists to set specific supervision goals	4.24
	50	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for school psychologist practitioners	4.24
	7	Establish specific guidelines defining supervision, expectations, and how it is to be implemented	4.21
	49	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for supervisor	4.21
	1	Encourage department leaders and/or supervisors to commit to regularly scheduled supervision times	4.20
	21	Provide training for supervisors to strengthen supervisory skills	4.15
	42	Schedule weekly supervision for new school psychologists, particularly for the first two years	4.15
	46	Formalize supervision meetings to prevent unproductive sessions	4.15
	59	School psychologists should be self motivated to seek supervision from qualified supervisors	4.15
	5	Develop clear district guidelines about supervision expectations and rules	4.12
	10	Schedule time for each school psychologist to receive supervision	4.12
	18	Establish and maintain structured supervisory times	4.12
	52	Develop consistent supervision times	4.09
	54	Develop monthly schedule to present 2-3 challenging cases for group/peer supervision	4.09

15	Advocate for ongoing supervision time throughout the school year	4.06
57	Seek supervision outside of school system	4.03
35	Discuss issues that may hinder supervision	4.00
60	Develop peer supported supervision groups	3.88
20	Schedule regular supervision times when preparing meeting schedule	3.85
5	Develop clear district guidelines about supervision expectations and rules	3.82
25	Improve consistency in providing supervision	3.82
39	Supervisors should receive ongoing training in supervisory practices	3.82
41	Identify one or two lead school psychologists to serve as a supervisor	3.82
48	Share meaningful and relevant topics for discussion through emails to reduce time away from schools	3.82
22	Allot time during staff meetings for peer supervision (e.g., case consultation)	3.76
3	Create accountability or mentoring system to help implement and meet supervision goals	3.74
19	Have regular meetings to discuss possible supervision issues	3.74
30	Develop colloquiums for case consultation	3.74

Layer 3: 3.19 to 3.72	4	Provide monthly group supervision based on interest or specific topics	3.68
	16	Encourage school psychologists to request supervision time	3.68
	27	Partner with neighboring school systems if supervision is not available	3.65
	34	Provide supervision in different modes (e.g., phone conferencing or email)	3.62
	51	Engage in participatory leadership to develop supervision schedule	3.50
	53	For school-based psychologists, request time from schools for supervision	3.50
	23	Make supervision mandatory by including in district rules and policies	3.44
	32	Work with university professors as a resource in providing supervision (e.g., RTI best practices)	3.44
	13	Advocate for supervision time to increase its value with administrators	3.35
	55	Identify a weekly time to meet for supervision	3.35
	28	Increase awareness about supervision benefits with school administrators	3.26
Layer 2: 2.65 to 3.19	2	Develop supervision committees for peer supervision	3.15
	14	Provide a central office location to conduct supervision meetings	3.09
	29	Present supervision research to executive office/school board, and/or administrators	3.06
	24	Involve universities to provide more guidance to improve supervision practices	3.03

	26	Advocate for time outside of schools to hold supervision meetings	2.85
	11	Provide supervision at least once a week	2.71
	40	Train school psychologists to become supervisors	2.65
Layer 1: 2.12 to 2.65	33	Provide time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings)	2.12

APPENDIX E

Statements by Clusters for the Strategy Prompt

Cluster Number and Name		Statements *(rank in order of importance for both participants)*	Average Rating
Cluster 1: Feedback	17	Appoint a peer supervisor or lead psychologist to all first year psychologists to provide direct feedback	4.79
	56	Schedule supervision topics that focus on relevant topics related to job duties (e.g., RTI, consultation, evaluating research based interventions) and allow opportunity for feedback	4.44
	12	Obtain supervision and feedback from credentialed school psychologists	4.32
	44	Get input from school psychologists to set specific supervision goals	4.24
	50	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for school psychologist practitioners	4.24
	49	Provide ongoing feedback of supervision for supervisor	4.21
		Average Cluster Rating	*4.37*

Cluster 2: Identifying Appropriate Supervision	36	Find right supervisor-supervisee matches	4.41
	45	Supervisor should be a school psychologist or knowledgeable about the field of school psychology	4.35
	37	Recognize potential conflicts of interest	4.32
	41	Identify one or two lead school psychologists to serve as a supervisor	3.82
		Average Cluster Rating	*4.23*
Cluster 3: Collaborative Practices	8	Clearly define goals and expectations of supervision	4.56
	38	Identify and outline parameters of both supervisors and practitioners at the beginning of supervision	4.50
	43	Supervisors and psychologists work together to develop individual supervision goals	4.29
	7	Establish specific guidelines defining supervision, expectations, and how it is to be implemented	4.21
	46	Formalize supervision meetings to prevent unproductive sessions	4.15
	57	Seek supervision outside of school system	4.03
	35	Discuss issues that may hinder supervision	4.00
	60	Develop peer supported supervision groups	3.88
	25	Improve consistency in providing supervision	3.82
	3	Create accountability or mentoring system to help	3.74

		implement and meet supervision goals	
	51	Engage in participatory leadership to develop supervision schedule	3.50
	2	Develop supervision committees for peer supervision	3.15
		Average Cluster Rating	*3.99*
Cluster 4: Obtaining External Resources (when needed)	58	Seek supervision from qualified supervisors	4.38
	59	School psychologists should be self motivated to seek supervision from qualified supervisors	4.15
	27	Partner with neighboring school systems if supervision is not available	3.65
		Average Cluster Rating	*4.06*
Cluster 5: Consistency, Commitment, and Advance Planning	42	Schedule weekly supervision for new school psychologists, particularly for the first two years	4.15
	10	Schedule time for each school psychologist to receive supervision	4.12
	18	Establish and maintain structured supervisory times	4.12
	52	Develop consistent supervision times	4.09
	20	Schedule regular supervision times when preparing meeting schedule	3.85
	6	Schedule supervision monthly or quarterly with every school psychologist	3.82
	4	Provide monthly group supervision based on	3.68

		interest or specific topics	
	34	Provide supervision in different modes (e.g., phone conferencing or email)	3.62
	55	Identify a weekly time to meet for supervision	3.35
	11	Provide supervision at least once a week	2.71
		Average Cluster Rating	*3.75*
Cluster 6: Raise Awareness and Change District Policy	47	Present NASP Position Statement to School Board, administrators, and/or other key stakeholders	4.32
	5	Develop clear district guidelines about supervision expectations and rules	4.12
	30	Develop colloquiums for case consultation	3.74
	23	Make supervision mandatory by including in district rules and policies	3.44
	13	Advocate for supervision time to increase its value with administrators	3.35
	28	Increase awareness about supervision benefits with school administrators	3.26

	29	Present supervision research to executive office/school board, and/or administrators	3.06
		Average Cluster Rating	*3.61*
Cluster 7: Training for Supervisors	9	Supervisors should receive training in how to become an effective supervisor	4.47
	21	Provide training for supervisors to strengthen supervisory skills	4.15
	39	Supervisors should receive ongoing training in supervisory practices	3.82
	40	Train school psychologists to become supervisors	2.65
		Average Cluster Rating	*3.77*
Cluster 8: University Involvement/ Partnership	31	Seek guidance and comply with guidelines from NASP regarding Best Practices in Supervision	4.38
	32	Work with university professors as a resource in providing supervision (e.g., RTI best practices)	3.44
	24	Involve universities to provide more guidance to improve supervision practices	3.03
		Average Cluster Rating	*3.62*
Cluster 9: Advocacy, Accommodation and Structure	1	Encourage department leaders and/or supervisors to commit to regularly scheduled supervision times	4.20
	54	Develop monthly schedule to present 2-3 challenging cases for group/peer supervision	4.09

15	Advocate for ongoing supervision time throughout the school year	4.06
48	Share meaningful and relevant topics for discussion through emails to reduce time away from schools	3.82
22	Allot time during staff meetings for peer supervision (e.g., case consultation)	3.76
19	Have regular meetings to discuss possible supervision issues	3.74
16	Encourage school psychologists to request supervision time	3.68
53	For school-based psychologists, request time from schools for supervision	3.50
14	Provide a central office location to conduct supervision meetings	3.09
26	Advocate for time outside of schools to hold supervision meetings	2.85
33	Provide time for supervision during alternative times (e.g., after school, evenings)	2.12

Average Cluster Rating 3.54