How Do Visible Minority Graduate Students Cope with Supervision Stress

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I. INTRODUCTION

Imagine yourself being a visible minority student in a foreign country. In addition to coping with academic demands and acculturation stress, you find yourself having to deal with a clinical supervisor “from hell”. You can’t find a better word to describe this supervisor, because she really creates hell in your life, with her racist attitudes, devastatingly unfair criticisms, and threats to expel you. Already sensitized to discrimination and fearful of the clinical supervision situation, now you are confronted with the worst nightmare of your life. Your academic career and professional future are all of a sudden collapsing before your very eyes. What do you do to save the day? How do you cope with your emotional trauma and your desperate situation?

In the stress and coping literature, little attention has been paid to supervision stress experienced by a visible minority student. According to Kyle and Williams (2000), about 26% of psychology students in the American Psychological Association (APA) accredited programs identify themselves as racial or ethnic minorities. In addition, many of the racial or ethnic minorities are foreign students who have been uprooted from their own culture (Ishiyama, XXX Need a couple of references here.) Given the continued influx of visible minority students to North America, how they cope with supervision stress, whether it is from a thesis advisor or a clinical supervisor, is a phenomenon deserving research attention. The present study is part of a larger research project on cross-cultural supervision. I decided to focus on visible minorities, because their physical attributes make them easy targets for prejudice and discrimination.

Supervision stress cannot be simply treated as a case of interpersonal conflict, because of the vast power differential and the high stakes from the supervisee's perspective. Similarly, it cannot be treated as a daily hassle, because of the intense emotional impact and the potential harm to the supervisee's physical health and future career.

When a minority student in a doctoral supervision seminar brought up the issue of difficulties faced by visible minority supervisees, her concerns were immediately dismissed by a White female student, who declared that "difficulties faced by visible minority counselors are similar to those faced by female counselors. It's very much the same as gender discrimination." Is that so? Consider the following cases:

1.1 Illustrative cases of supervision stress

A 55-year-old Asian-Canadian doctoral student, Brenda, who had a successful teaching and school counseling career, received a strange look from her professor in an advanced counseling skills course. "Why are you here?" asked the professor. "I am a student in your class", answered Brenda, feeling puzzled by the question. Throughout the semester, the professor tried to ignore Brenda and did not call on her to present the weekly prepared assigned work, until one of the seven classmates reminded the professor that the visible minority student had not been given a chance to make her presentation.

In the following semester, Brenda happened to be assigned to this professor's internship group. The professor delayed signing the supervision contract, and found excuses not to meet with this supervisee for more than three

weeks. Eventually after six weeks – in the middle of the semester, she suddenly wanted to expel Brenda from internship for incompetence, without having given her any prior feedback that Brenda's counseling practice was not acceptable. This was a devastating blow to Brenda, because she had already established herself as an excellent counselor in the school system, and had received very positive evaluations from her other clinical supervisors. Brenda tried to appeal her case to the Department only to go through another six months of hell.

Kim, a Korean student in a Counseling Psychology Program, had to repeat the basic counseling skills course, because of his language deficiency and apparent difficulty in demonstrating empathic reflections. With limited English vocabulary, he had difficulty communicating verbally with clients in practicum. His supervisor was worried that his clients might not return, but to his surprise, Kim's clients returned regularly. However, his supervisor was of the opinion that Kim spent too much time building relationships, and not enough time doing therapy. His main concern was Kim's limited vocabulary for reflecting feelings. He also considered Kim's approach too cognitive and too eager to give advice. In supervision, Kim politely acknowledged his professor's concerns. During group supervision, Kim tended to be reserved and quiet, and was also reluctant to do role-play. When the supervisor gave feedback on his counseling sessions in the group, Kim appeared painfully nervous. He felt hopeless when his peers brought up his expressive language difficulties at every group supervision session. He seriously considered quitting the program, doubting that he would ever make it as a counselor because of cultural and language barriers.

In another case, an internship supervisor was asked to accept a visible minority supervisee to her supervision group. The supervisor asked the supervisee to come to meet her group of interns. She asked the supervisee to state her approach to counseling. After that meeting, the supervisor told the supervisee: “I cannot take you into my group. When I told the administrator that I would take you, I didn’t know your theoretical framework of counseling. My group is totally Rogerian.” This supervisor was also the professor of the ethics course. What are the reasons for refusal to supervise this student? What should this student do in this situation?

1.2 Lack of multicultural supervision competencies

The above vignettes are real situations with fictitious names. Many visible minority supervisees have reported negative experiences with clinical supervision. Many graduate counseling students from other cultures believed that much of their difficulties in supervision stemmed from just being visible minority (Wong, 2001 and one of two other references). Some White supervisors often assume that visible minority students will not make effective counselors because of language and cultural barriers. In addition, many clinical supervisors do not have the necessary multicultural supervision competencies (Wong & Wong xxx). Preliminary results of my research (Wong xxxx) on supervisors’ perspectives in working with visible minority students indicate that supervisors are often unaware of the things that they have done in supervision that might have hindered their trainees. In fact, they have great difficulties recalling what they did or said that might have hindered supervisees’ professional growth as counselors.

Unethical and harmful clinical supervision has been reported in recent literature (Need a couple of references here). A lack of multicultural supervision competencies simply compounds the problem.

The cases cited above have alluded to the various kinds of unethical and harmful supervision experienced by visible minority students. Do visible minority graduate counseling students experience more supervision distress than their White Caucasian counterpart? In what areas may visible minority students endure more hardship than others? How do visible minority students cope with stress in clinical supervision? What do supervisors need to know to be effective in cross-cultural supervision? What are the major issues in multicultural supervision? How can supervisors minimize the difficulties and help bridge the cultural and language gaps so that visible minority students can have a more positive supervision experience? What constitutes helpful and effective supervision in cross-cultural situations? What constitutes bad and harmful supervision in working with visible minority students? These questions become more pressing as more and more ethnic minority students are enrolled in graduate programs in counseling psychology. This minority students? These questions become more pressing as more and more ethnic minority students are enrolled in graduate programs in counseling psychology.

II. **Theories and orientations of clinical supervision**

Supervision is essential to counselor education and development (Carroll, 1996; Holloway, 1992; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987). Given the importance of supervision in preparing students for the counseling profession, there is now an

ever-expanding literature on clinical supervision, especially on what constitutes effective supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 1998; Holloway, 1995; Watkins, 1997; Worthington, 1987).

According to Hart (1982), “Clinical supervision is an ongoing educational process in which one person in the role of supervisor helps another person in the role of supervisee acquire appropriate professional behavior through an examination of supervisee’s professional activities” (p.12).

Bernard and Goodyear (1998) identify two major goals for supervision: (a) teaching-learning, and (b) monitoring of client welfare. The teaching-learning objective is to develop students’ clinical competencies needed for eventual licensure. At the same time, supervisors also have the responsibility to monitor the quality of client care provided by the supervisees and safeguard client’s welfare. Evaluation is essential to both the teaching and monitoring functions.

Similarly, Holloway (1995) emphasizes professional development as the main objective of supervision, but she also recognizes the importance of the supportive functions of supervision. She proposes that “clinical supervisors focus on the professional development of the supervisee’s skills within the organization. Clinical supervision emphasizes the educational and supportive functions of the supervisory role” (p.3). “The goal of supervision is the enhancement of the student’s effective professional functioning, and the interpersonal nature of supervision provides an opportunity for the supervisee to be fully involved toward that end. In this way, the supervisee is empowered in the

process of acquiring attitudes, skills, and knowledge for independent, effective professional practice" (p.6).

There is a consensus that the main objective of supervision is the development of clinical and professional competencies of supervisees. Closely related to this objective is the development of the student as a person, because the counselor's personal qualities and attitudes may be more important than clinical skills (Rogers, 1977, 1986).

2.1 A brief historical perspective of supervision research

The last twenty years have witnessed considerable increase in supervision research. Heppner and Roehlke (1984) observed that "although supervision has been extensively studied, there is still relatively little information about the specific variables that affect the actual supervision process" (p.76).

Supervision has undergone changes over the past few decades. From a historical perspective, supervision research can be roughly grouped into five orientations: (a) behavior, (b) identity, (c) relationship, (d) development, and (e) person. These five orientations provide different perspectives of what needs to be emphasized in supervision.

2.1.1 Behavioral orientation

Initially, the emphasis of supervision research was on specific supervisory tasks, such as modeling, teaching clinical skills and giving evaluative feedback. Therefore, this behavioral emphasis may also be characterized as task-oriented.

Consistent with the Zeitgeist of behaviorism, researchers in supervision studied supervisory behaviors that could be readily operationalized. For example,

Worthington and Roehlke (1979) measured the importance ratings of a wide range of supervisory behaviors. They found that supervisors considered giving feedback as the primary function of good supervision. In their study, supervisees perceived that good supervision depended on the following conditions: (a) that a personal and pleasant supervisor-supervisee relationship exists; (b) that supervisors provide relatively structured supervision sessions, especially during early sessions, and (c) that supervisors directly teach beginning counselors how to counsel and then encourage the new counselors to try out their new skills. Their finding of the discrepancy between supervisor and supervisee has considerable implications for both the research and practice of supervision.

2.1.2 Identity orientation

The second is “identity orientation”. Ekstein and Wallerstein (1972) recognized the inadequacy of focusing on skills training during supervision. According to these authors, in order for students to become truly professional, they also need to learn from their supervisors a special quality related to practicing psychology, which Ekstein and Wallerstein (1972) referred to as a professional identity. This issue arose because as an emerging profession, competing with more established professionals, such as psychiatrists and the clergy, psychologists needed to have a clear sense of identity in terms of the professional specialty of their expertise and the value of their services.

This view is recently echoed by Bernard and Goodyear (1998) who emphasize that supervisors’ need to induce their supervisees into the profession by providing a role model and helping them develop a sense of professional

identity. Therefore, the image, role model and professional associations of the supervisor are important considerations in supervisory training.

This aspect of supervision has been under-researched. What kind of experience during practicum and internship contributes to students' development of a professional identity? In what ways does the supervisor help or hinder professional identity development? These important questions remain largely unanswered.

2.1.3 Relationship orientation.

The third stage of the evolution in supervision is relationship orientation (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984). The focus shifts to interpersonal relationship issues. A consensus has emerged that the goals of supervision can be best achieved through a good supervisor-supervisee relationship. One of the most consistent findings in supervision research is that a supporting, trusting relationship is critical to effective supervision (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Holloway, 1995; Hutt, Scott, & King, 1983; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Worthen & McNeill, 1996). The importance of having a good supervisor-supervisee relationship was summarized eloquently by Hunt (1986):

> It seems that whatever approach or method is used, in the end it is the quality of the relationship between supervisor and trainee therapist (or counselor) that determines whether supervision is effective or not... there needs to be a degree of warmth, trust and genuineness and respect between them in order to create a safe enough environment for supervision to take place. (p. 20)

Based on a review of the supervision literature, Carifio and Hess (1987) proposed that the ideal supervisor possesses good interpersonal skills (i.e., empathy and respect), and is generally supportive and non-critical. The ideal supervisor also possesses knowledge and experience, knows how to structure supervision, and provides an effective balance between direction and autonomy.

More recently, Watkins (1995a) reported that effective supervisors demonstrated support, empathy, and respect for supervisees, while engaging in teaching and conceptualizing, and encouraging self-assessment in the supervisees. Furthermore, effective supervisors are very explicit in goal setting, communicating expectations and providing feedback. They know how to maintain a balance among “support, respect, skill, clarity and teaching/education” (p.573).

2.1.4 Developmental orientation

The interactions between supervisors and supervisees are complex because of the multiple roles involved (Bernard, 1988). The supervisor-supervisee relationship is often fraught with tension and conflicts, due to differences in expectations, personality, counseling orientations, and cultural values (Holloway, 1995; Hunt, 1987; Vasquez, 1992). A major factor is the developmental changes in supervisees, because supervision needs and expectations may vary according to the different stages of counselor training (Holloway, 1987; Worthington, 1987).

Most of the recent supervision research has a developmental orientation. Ronnestad and Skovholt (1993) presented a comprehensive review on the characteristics of effective supervision for beginning and advanced graduate students. They pointed out that supervision of beginning level counselors is

generally characterized by high levels of structure, a didactic orientation, and a skill focus. At this level, the supervisor often assumes the role of a teacher, because students want clear instructions and directions. However, even at this level, Worthington and Roehlke (1979) reported that students want their teachers to provide support and encouragement. Ronnestad and Skovholt (1993) observed that “the beginning student’s vulnerability and anxiety make it important for the supervisor at this introductory level to create a relationship that is characterized by support and understanding” (p. 399).

At the advanced level, graduate students may experience considerable tension and anxiety for a different reason. They may feel quite confident in their basic counseling skills, but they also feel insecure and uncertain about their professional competence. Conflict with the supervisor is most likely to disrupt at this stage. According to Moskowitz and Rupert (1983) (as cited in Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993), about 39% of the doctoral students reported the experience of having a major conflict with a supervisor. These conflicts tend to result from (a) differences in personality styles, (b) differences in theoretical orientation or therapeutic approach, and/or (c) dissatisfaction with the style of supervision.

In view of the greater likelihood of conflict and dissatisfaction with supervision at the advanced level, the supervisor needs to be sensitive to the tension experienced by the advanced graduate students, to provide “clarifying feedback” to reduce their anxiety, and take on a more collegial and consultative role. “The supervisor needs to take responsibility to create, maintain, and monitor the relationship with her or his student” (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993, p.403).

They concluded that “the qualities of the supervisory relationship have an impact on learning at all levels of expertise. We know that the conditions of good counseling and therapy, such as empathy, respect, and a trusting and permissive attitude, have validity in supervision” (p.401).

2.1.5 Person orientation

More recently, the supervision literature has begun to pay close attention to the personal qualities of the supervisor as well as the personal growth of the supervisee. There is no denial that what the supervisor does is important and how the supervisor relates to the supervisee is also important. But, from a person-orientation perspective, *being* is more important than *doing* and *relating*. Ultimately, the quality of supervision depends on the quality of the supervisor as a person (i.e., the supervisor’s attitude, character and core values). These qualities can affect both the nature of the relationship and the effectiveness of the supervisory behavior.

Recent research on the effectiveness of psychotherapy has discovered that the therapist as a person is a major factor (Lambert & Bergin, 1994; Metcalf, Thomas, Duncan, Miller, & Hubble, 1996). In other words, *who the therapist is* as a person may be more important than *what the therapist does* in bringing about positive outcomes. Therefore, Koss and Shiang (1994) have proposed that clinical training should focus on the development of the therapist as a person as much as skills development. This person-orientation of counselor training needs to begin with supervision, because the level of personal development of the supervisor may affect the personal development of the supervisee.

There is already some evidence that the supervisor as a person is an important contributing factor in effective supervision. For example, it has been demonstrated that positive attributes of the supervisor (expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness) were related to positive perceptions of the supervisory relationship (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984). Similarly, Allen, Szollos, and Williams (1986) found that, according to doctoral students' opinions, what differentiated between good and bad supervision was trustworthiness and expertise of the supervisor. These authors also reported that another discriminator was the supervisor's emphasis on the personal growth of the supervisee; this finding suggests that person-orientation embraces a concern for the personal development of the supervisee.

In the Worthington and Roehlke's (1979) study, supervisors considered evaluation and giving feedback as the most important tasks in effective supervision. But, almost two decades later, in the Henderson, Cawyer and Watkins' (1997) study, supervision becomes much more person-oriented than task-oriented. These authors found that students also emphasized the importance of personal growth, such as the development of student confidence and autonomy.

According to this person-orientation, supervision or counseling is only as good as the people who practice it. Supervision that emphasizes good clinical skills, good supervisor relationships and a professional identity may succeed in producing competent practitioners. But supervisors who are genuine, caring, empathic, trustworthy, and highly ethical are more likely to succeed in

reproducing good counselors who are both competent and compassionate. At a recent international conference, three internationally renowned psychotherapists, Yalom (2000), Zeig (2000) and Spinelli (2000) all emphasized the importance of personal qualities of the therapists and the need for resolving personal issues. Research is needed to determine how the personal qualities of supervisors impact supervision effectiveness.

2.2 Cross cultural issues in supervision

None of the above orientations pays much attention to cross-cultural issues. While cross-cultural counseling has generated a great deal of interest and research (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1993; Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Morgan, 1997; Sue & Sue, 1990), cross-cultural supervision has received little attention as pointed out by Brown and Landrum-Brown (1995) and others (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997; Stone, 1997).

Brown and Landrum-Brown (1995) reported that a high level of caution is needed in cross-cultural supervision, because racial minority supervisees tend to be sensitive to the abuse of power. Such sensitivity is understandable when there is an inherent power differential in the supervisory relationship (William & Haglin, 1995) and when there has been a history of discrimination (Sue & Sue, 1990).

Hunt (1987) recommended that racial and ethnic issues faced by minority trainees should be addressed within the supervisory relationship. Bernard and Goodyear (1998) pointed out that there is a need to prepare White middle-class

faculty to work with minority counselor trainees. But there are very few published studies on the supervision of visible minority students.

Cook and Helms (1988) investigated the level of satisfaction with cross-cultural supervision in a survey of 225 African, Latino, Asian and Native-American trainees. The results showed that supervisors' unconditional liking for the trainees is related to their satisfaction with supervision. McNeill, Hom and Perez (1995) acknowledged a dearth of information on the training needs of racial and ethnic minority trainees. After reviewing the relevant literature, these authors pointed out that:

> Culturally diverse trainees are then faced with a struggle to assert their unique needs and make others aware of the multicultural implications of course material, counseling theories, and interventions. Most often, however, students are forced to attend to and accept this insensitivity for fear of repercussion because of the power differential between professor and student. (p.253)

McNeill et al. (1995) also pointed out that culture-specific communicational styles were often not recognized or accepted by Caucasian professors. They observed that visible minority students often experienced discrimination, isolation and racism. Consequently, these students felt angry, confused and discouraged, but chose not to disclose their feelings for fear of reprisal. They proposed that "it is incumbent on supervisors to take responsibility to create a supervisory relationship and environment in which these needs and issues are openly dealt

with and met" (p.255). They also proposed inclusion of multi-cultural curricula, peer support and mentoring programs for minority trainees.

2.2.1 Ethical issues in cross-cultural supervision

Ethical issues become very important when the supervisor-supervisee relationship is complicated by cultural conflicts. Vasquez (1992) has made a significant contribution to our understanding of ethical responsibilities in cross-cultural supervision. Following Rest's (1984) model of moral development, Vasquez (1992) proposed that in the training setting, the supervisor has an obligation to provide professional and moral support for the supervisee to do what is morally right rather than what is expedient.

In addition to ethical considerations, developing clinical competence is another major responsibility of supervision. This obligation involves providing optimal experiences for the supervisees to gain competence in key areas of the profession, such as conceptualization, assessment, interventions, and the ability to work with clients from special populations. Vasquez (1992) pointed out the difficulty in cross-cultural situations:

> This is a particular challenge for supervisors because most traditional training fails to teach how to apply the basic principles of counseling beyond the values and ethos of the majority culture. Society's cultural diversity and broad range of social classes provide a challenge for the ethical clinician to acknowledge and deal with potential barriers. (p.198)

Still another important responsibility of the supervisor is to assess the personal functioning of supervisees. Vasquez (1992) stressed the importance of

timely feedback and the imperative for supervisors to “set a climate of trust, openness, and responsibility so that supervisees feel able to engage in consultation and treatment-seeking behaviors” (p.199). It is in the area of evaluation that conflicts in values and cultural assumptions are likely to erupt. In the absence of any objectively defined universal criteria of competence in counseling, good counseling practice according to a minority culture may be judged to be deficient from the perspective of the so called White middle-class Americans.

Vasquez (1992) recognized the potential for the abuse of power in the supervisor-supervisee relationship. Such abuse is more likely to happen when supervisors lack sensitivity to ethnic/minority cultures. Vasquez and McKinley (1982) recommended that in working with ethnic minority supervisees, it is important to be sensitive to their personal struggles to integrate their racial/ethnic identity with professional identity.

Vasquez (1992) reminded supervisors that they needed to recognize that the supervisees have similar rights to privacy, dignity and due process that clients have. A due process procedure should be available for the supervisees who feel that their rights and well-being have been violated by the supervisors. He concluded that “our effectiveness with supervisees, and indirectly with the clients of our supervisees, depends to a great extent on fulfilling our ethical responsibilities as clinical supervisors” (p.201).

According to Sue and Sue (1990), counselors who are culturally skilled are aware of their own biases and are sensitive to the needs of their culturally

different clients. Culturally skilled counselors also have a large repertoire of skills so that they can select culture-appropriate skills to help their clients. Corey, Corey, and Callanan (1998) also emphasized the importance of training in multicultural competencies.

By the same token, supervisors also need to be culturally skilled in order to be helpful to ethnic minority supervisees. Unfortunately, the importance of cross-cultural competence in supervision has not received the same kind of attention as issues related to gender or sexual orientation.

In sum, there is an urgent need for studying effective multicultural supervision for a variety of reasons. Firstly, an increasing number of graduate students in counseling psychology come from different ethnic groups (Bernard & Goodyear, 1998; Kyle & Williams, 2000; Leong & Chou, 1996). Secondly, the possibility of misunderstanding, conflict and discrimination is higher in cross-cultural situations because of cultural differences and language barriers (McNeill, Hom & Perez, 1995). Cross-cultural training may be able to reduce racism and discrimination in supervision. Thirdly, supervisors' lack of cross-cultural competencies may result in harm to visible minorities. Finally, multicultural supervision competencies are needed not only for ethnic minority students, but also for majority counselors. Wong, P. & Wong, L., (1999) point out that it is difficult for majority students to acquire multicultural counseling skills when their clinical supervisors do not possess cross-cultural competencies.

McNeill et al. (1995) have concluded that there is a lack of information on cross-cultural training of minority supervisees. In the area of cross-cultural

supervision research, almost all published studies were done in the United States, focussing on African-Americans and Latin-Americans in a dominantly Caucasian society (e.g., Cook & Helm, 1988; McNeill, Hom, & Perez, 1995; Ladany, Brittan-Power, & Pannu, 1997).

2.2.2 Unethical and harmful supervision

In recent years, researchers have began to investigate unethical and harmful supervision.

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The experience of unethical and harmful supervision can be doubly damaging to visible minorities, who might have already been victimized by discrimination. How do they cope and survive abusive behaviors from their supervisors, who are supposed to provide education and support?

The present study investigated how they cope with the complex problems of supervision stress.

III. A CRITICAL INCIDENT STUDY

The present study adopted the critical incident methodology to helpful and hindering incidents as experienced by visible minorities students. The present chapter will focus on how the cope with supervision stress.

It is noteworthy that research on supervision has gradually moved from quantitative measures of supervisory behaviors (Worthington & Roehlke, 1979) to a phenomenological study of supervisees' subjective experiences (Hutt, Scott, & King, 1983; Worthen & McNeill, 1996). The Hutt et al. (1983) study examined both positive and negative experiences, while Worthen and McNeill (1996) only

examined supervisees' experience of "good" supervision. Neither of these studies focused on the experience of visible minority supervisees.

In several studies, students were asked to identify critical incidents within the supervision setting that resulted in changes in the trainee's effectiveness as a counselor (Ellis, 1991; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984). Typically, trainees were asked to describe critical incidents in each supervision session. These studies focus exclusively on positive critical incidents taking place within a supervision session.

The present research is the first comprehensive study of both negative and positive experiences of visible minority students.

3.1. Methodology

This study was based on a modified versionof Flanagan's (1954) Critical Incident Technique. The procedures followed closely Flanagan's (1954) direction that the objective be specified. This was accomplished both in explaining the research to participants during "orientation" and in the instruction given to participants prior to data collection. Participants were told: "The main objective of supervision is to develop supervisee's professional competence in the practice of counseling. Please describe specific incidents or examples of helpful and unhelpful supervision." Thus, the goal of supervision was clearly defined. Helpful and unhelpful incidents were defined with respect to the objective of developing professional competence in supervisees.

Secondly, I followed Flanagan's (1954) approach in defining critical incidents. Participants were told, "Think of a time when a supervisor has done or said something that you felt was an example of effective (ineffective) supervision.

Please explain why you judge that to be a helpful (or unhelpful) incident." In the spirit of Flanagan's emphasis on objectivity, critical incidents were defined as what the supervisor actually did or said that had significantly impacted the task of supervision. The researcher continued to ask for additional examples until the participants were not able to think of any more helpful or unhelpful incidents.

Thirdly, I adopted the expanded critical incident method used by the University of British Columbia Counseling Psychology, graduate students who had asked participants: What happened? What led up to it? What was the consequence or how did it turn out? Cochran (Lecture,1996) suggested that such questions provided a fuller context of the incident. Participants were also asked: What did it mean to you? How did you feel about it? How did you cope with it? This additional semi-structured, open-ended interview component incorporated Herzberg et al.'s (1959) line of questioning. U.B.C.'s expanded Critical Incident Technique allows participants to freely talk about their experiences and feelings (Borgen & Amundson, 1996).

Fourthly, in the event of negative incidents, participants were asked to indicate what the short-term and long-term consequences were and how they managed to cope with them. Typically, when participants explained why they considered an incident as unhelpful, they naturally talked about the negative consequences and their coping efforts. The additional instruction was designed to have a complete account of the sequence of events emphasized by Herzberg et al. (1959).

Fifthly, all participants were asked to recommend, on the basis of their personal experiences, ways to improve supervision. This question was helpful because it empowered participants to have a positive closure on their supervision experience. Secondly, it allowed participants to process and integrate supervision experience and come up with some recommendations on how to provide good supervision to visible minority students. The open-ended interview component is important because it allows supervisees to fully share their experiences and express their opions.

3.1.1 Recruitment of participants

Participants were recruited from universities in the Lower Mainland of British Columbia, Canada. Potential participants needed to meet the following qualifications: Member of a visible minority group, having had at least one year of supervision experience, and being able to articulate their supervision experience. The researcher and her supervisor also made use of their personal contacts.

As a result, 19 females and 6 males were recruited. The average ages for females and males were 32 and 37 years, respectively. The majority of the participants came from the three Universities in the Lower Mainland (UBC, SFU, and TWU). Three of the participants graduated from other provinces (Alberta and Ontario) and two from the United States. In terms of ethnic membership, there were 13 Chinese-Canadians, four Indo-Canadians, three First Nations, two Japanese-Canadians, one Afro-Canadian, one Korean-Canadian, and one Latin-Canadian. The 13 Chinese participants came from various parts of Asia, including Malaysia. In terms of levels of training, three were completing their

Masters degree, 18 had graduated with their Masters, one was a doctoral candidate, and three had already obtained their Ph.D. degrees.

3.1.2 Procedure

All potential participants were first contacted by telephone and told about the purpose of the study, the nature of their participation, and they were assured of confidentiality and anonymity with respect of data collection and data analysis. The interviewer then made an appointment to meet with each participant at a time and place convenient to that individual. During the initial stage of the interview, the researcher provided an orientation of the study, answered whatever questions they might have and then asked them to sign the Consent Form. Then, the interviewer proceeded with the interview with a tape-recorder. At the end of the interview, the tape was transcribed verbatim and given an identification code.

Two graduate students from two different universities served as interviewers for two reasons. Firstly, based on my experience in pilot study, some U.B.C. students were reluctant to disclose their supervision experience. It might be because they were concerned that some of the things they said about certain supervisors might get back to these supervisor. Their concerns would be lessened if they were interviewed by someone not connected with UBC. Secondly, having two interviewers might help minimize potential interviewer bias in qualitative research, which is vulnerable to this kind of bias.

3.1.3 Content analysis of the interview data

The recorded interviews were coded and transcribed verbatim. The following procedure was employed to extract categories from the protocols:

1. The researcher read over several transcripts in order to get a sense of the scope and variety of the interview materials. This initial reading identified four clear sections, namely, positive incidents, negative incidents, outcomes of negative incidents, and recommendations. These sections closely parallel the questions of the interview (i.e., positive incidents, negative incidents, coping with negative incidents, and recommendations for change).
2. Both positive and negative incidents were identified by + or - respectively on the left margin of the transcript. Any specific incident was counted only once, even when the participant returned to the same incident several times in the course of the interview. In other words, the process of progressive elaboration seemed to be at work, when the participants returned to the same critical incident with more and more details. Two criteria were used to identify each critical incident: (a) the description of the incident was complete in the sense of having a beginning and an end; and (b) the incident was clearly related to supervision. It was worth noting that many critical incidents did not always consist of all three sequential components — what happened, what led up to it and what the consequences were. For example, a demeaning remark by a supervisor constituted a critical incident, but the participant could not recall what led up to that hurtful remark.

3. Each report of critical incident typically consisted of several meaning units, which were similar to Herzberg et al.'s (1959) thought units. A meaning unit may vary in length from one sentence or one paragraph, but it must contain a complete and clear idea marked by a transition in meaning (Aanstoos, 1983; Giorgi, 1975). The researcher identified each relevant meaning unit by bracketing it with a pencil. A meaning unit was considered relevant if it had a direct bearing on the phenomenon under investigation. Thus, any recollection of the supervision and related experiences would be considered relevant, while any comments on other matters, such as boy-friend-girl-friend issues, money matters, etc., would not be considered relevant. Such distinction is necessary, because in any open-ended interview situation, there is a tendency for participants to digress occasionally and talk about personal issues unrelated to the subject matter of the interview. "The end of this step is a series of meaning units still expressed in the subject's own everyday language" (Giorgi, 1997, p.236).
4. A descriptor of each relevant meaning unit was created by the researcher and written on a 1" x 3" Post-it Note attached to the right margin of transcript as a tab. A descriptor could be a phrase or a sentence that accurately captures the meaning of the unit. "My supervisor validated me" would be an example.
5. A database of the relevant meaning units was created. Each meaning unit was entered under the appropriate Section (i.e. Positive Incidents, etc.) with its descriptor and code. For instance, "Vf1p3t" indicated that this meaning unit was taken from the interview of the first Female Visible Minority Student on

the top section of Page 3. When there were more than 3 meaning units per page, a numerical value was used in the code. Thus, Vf1p6(4) indicated that it was the fourth meaning unit on Page 6 of Female participant 1. Such a procedure makes it possible for other researchers to check on validity of the coding in the proper context of the transcript.

6. In the process of describing meaning units, it soon became apparent that some descriptors were very similar in meaning. For example, “My supervisor was supportive and encouraging” was conceptually not different from “My supervisor validated me.” Thus, these descriptors with highly similar meanings were merged under a broader category “Supervisor was appreciative, accepting, supportive, encouraging, and validating.” Such merging was an ongoing process.

Finally categories were extracted from the descriptors following the procedure of Step 6. The main criterion for the final decision was that a category must contain a distinct, psychological meaning and shared by several participants. Thus, “language difficulties and cultural barriers”, “problem in getting a practicum site” and other difficulties related to minority status were all combined into the general category of “Difficulties of being a visible ethnic minority.” However, occasionally, a category was experienced by only one or two individuals, but it had a clear and important psychological meaning; such categories were also retained. For example, some coping efforts were idiosyncratic and specific to a particular situation; therefore, the criterion of extracting relatively general categories was somewhat relaxed, resulting in many specific coping strategies.

3.2 RESULTS

3.2.1 Categories of Coping

In reporting negative incidents, almost invariably participants talked about how these incidents had affected them and how they tried to cope. A total of 42 meaning units were related to coping efforts. Fifteen categories of coping were extracted. Some of the coping strategies, such as **"**Sought support from friends, spouse and other students**"** were shared by many of the participants. However, some of the coping strategy, such as "Wrote down everything so that others may know**"** was reported by only one person.

The frequency and participation rate for each strategy are shown in Table 4. The fifteen coping categories were organized into four areas in order to provide a broad taxonomy of coping strategies. Higher levels of categories are helpful, because several of the coping themes were reported by one participant only.

Appendix H shows both definitions and examples for different coping strategies for each coping category. The 15 coping categories were again classified according to the above four broader areas of coping.

Table 4

Areas and categories of coping

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
A. Help seeking	**9**	**(36%)**	**15**	**(35.7%)**
A1. Sought support from friends, spouse and other students	7	(28%)	8	(19.0%)
A2. Sought supervision from other sources	4	(16%)	5	(11.9%)
A3. Sought support from God	2	(8%)	2	(4.8%)
B. Existential coping	**8**	**(32%)**	**10**	**(23.8%)**
B1. Accepted what could not be changed	3	(12%)	3	(7.1%)
B2. Kept quiet	3	(12%)	5	(11.9%)
B3. Learned to put it all behind me	2	(8%)	2	(4.8%)
C. Active coping	**6**	**(24%)**	**11**	**(26.2%)**
C1. Counselled myself	3	(12%)	3	(7.1%)
C2. Learned more about the language and culture	3	(12%)	3	(7.1%)
C3. Changed my direction in research and counselling	1	(4%)	2	(4.8%)
C4. Confronting	1	(4%)	1	(2.4%)
C5. Switched to another program or supervisor	1	(4%)	1	(2.4%)
C6. Wrote down everything so that others may know	1	(4%)	1	(2.4%)

(table continues)

Table 4 (continued)

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
D. Emotional coping	**2**	**(8%)**	**6**	**(14.3%)**
D1. Tried to make something positive of a negative experience	2	(8%)	3	(7.1%)
D2. Became very defensive	1	(4%)	2	(4.8%)
D3. Concealed my anger	1	(4%)	1	(2.4%)
	N = 25		Total = 42	

Note. *The number of participants reporting each area or category is given in the Participation column, with the participation rate given in parenthesis. **The number of meaning units cited for each category is given in the Frequency column, with the percentage of the total number of meaning units given in parenthesis.

The category of existential coping refers to accepting and enduring a situation which one is powerless to change (Wong, 1991, 1993). Help seeking (Flett, Blankstein, Hicken, & Watson, 1995; Wong, 1993) refers to attempts to seek emotional and practical social support from a variety of sources. Emotional coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) refers to various cognitive and defensive efforts to managing one's feelings without actually solving the problem. Active coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) includes various active attempts to improve oneself and confront the problem.

Recommendations

A total of 88 meaning units were related to recommendations. Most of the comments were given in response to the question "In your opinion, what could be done to improve the quality of supervision for visible minority students?" However, occasionally, in the course of describing negative incidents, some participants spontaneously suggested ways to prevent the kind of problems they had experienced. Many of the recommendations were made by only one or two participants but appeared to have important implications; therefore, they were retained as categories. Altogether, thirty-three categories were extracted. These specific recommendations can be grouped into four broad areas.

The first area addresses the need to improve cross-cultural supervision competencies in counselor education. The second area refers to the need to improve the quality of supervision in general; most of the recommendations belong to this area. The third area recommends departmental changes in order to meet the needs of ethnic minority students in a multicultural society. The fourth

area recommends changes minority students need to make in order to do better in counselling training in the majority culture.

The broad categories and frequency and participation rate for each recommendation are shown in Table 5. The definitions and exemplars for each recommendation are shown in Appendix I.

Table 5

Areas and categories of recommendations

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
A. Needs to improve the quality of supervision	**18**	**(72%)**	**39**	**(44.8%)**
A1. Supervisors need to provide more validation, encouragement and support	6	(24%)	8	(9.2%)
A2. Need better relationship and communication between supervisor and supervisee.	3	(12%)	3	(3.4%)
A3. Supervisors need to allow students room to take risks and grow.	3	(12%)	3	(3.4%)
A4. Supervisors need to demonstrate and model for students.	3	(12%)	3	(3.4%)
A5. Supervisors need to provide specific and constructive feedback.	3	(12%)	3	(3.4%)
A6. Supervisors need to emphasize student development.	2	(8%)	2	(2.3%)
A7. Supervisors need to maintain a positive group dynamic.	2	(8%)	2	(2.3%)
A8. Supervisors need to provide a safe and trusting environment.	1	(4%)	3	(3.4%)

A9. Supervisors need to challenge students.	1	(4%)	2	(2.3%)

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
A10. Supervisors need to be supervised.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A11. Need more emphasis on clinical training and professional development.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A12. Supervisors needs to emphasize spiritual needs.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A13. Need to resolve conflict in an open and professional manner.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A14. Need more experienced supervisors in basic counseling skills.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A15. Supervisors need to be secure in themselves.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A16. Supervisors need to provide more structure in supervision.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A17. Need better communication between site supervisors and university supervisors.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
A18. Need to be aware of personality	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)

	differences.				
A19.	Supervisors need to show commitment and interest in their students.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
B. Needs to improve multicultural supervision competencies	**14**	**(56%)**	**25**	**(28.7%)**
B1. Supervisors need to better understand minority students.	6	(24%)	9	(10.3%)
B2. Supervisors need to be more aware of demographic, political and cultural issues.	6	(24%)	6	(6.9%)
B3. Supervisors need to be open-minded and allow alternative models.	5	(20%)	8	(9.2%)
B4. Supervisors need to know their own ethnic-cultural identity.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
B5. Assumptions and practices of counseling need to be questioned.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
C. Needs for departments to make changes	**10**	**(40%)**	**18**	**(20.7%)**
C1. Department needs to admit and help international students.	5	(20%)	5	(5.7%)
C2. Department needs to require everyone to receive multicultural training.	4	(16%)	6	(6.9%)
C3. Evaluation needs to become fairer	1	(4%)	3	(3.4%)

and more democratic.

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Areas (in bold) and categories (indented)	Participation*		Frequency**	
C4. Department needs to hire minority supervisors.	1	(4%)	2	(2.3%)
C5. Department needs to weed out weak students.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
C6. Department needs to provide counselling for graduate students.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
D. Needs for minority students to make changes	**4**	**(16%)**	**5**	**(5.7%)**
D1. Minority students need to be more self-confident and assertive.	2	(8%)	2	(2.3%)
D2. Minority counsellors need to develop alternative counselling services.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
D3. Need to get organized and form an ethnic minority student group.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
D4. Students should take note of what the supervisor said.	1	(4%)	1	(1.1%)
	N = 25		Total = 87	

Note. *The number of participants reporting each category or area is given in the Participation column, with the participation rate given in parenthesis. **The number of meaning units cited for each category or area is given in the

Frequency column, with the percentage of the total number of meaning units given in parenthesis.

A new finding

The category “Too many compliments” (12%) was an interesting new finding. Three participants reported that their supervisors were not helpful, because the supervisors constantly praised them, no matter what they did. These supervisees were wondering whether the supervisors were sincere. They also felt that they did not learn very much if the supervisors only complimented them without pointing out areas that they needed to improve. Supervisors need to strike a balance between unconditional positive regard and constructive criticisms.

Coping with Negative Supervision Experience

Negative incidents in supervision were often stressful and resulted in coping actions. Therefore, coping behaviours are the outcomes of negative incidents. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) defined stress as a “particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being” (p.19). Wong (1990) redefined stress as “problematic internal or external condition that creates tension/upset in the individual and calls for some form of coping” (p.70), because some of the stress may stem from internal conditions,

such as intrapsychic conflicts. In short, stressful events are always problems that require a solution.

After reading the entire transcripts of the interviews, one cannot help but sense the deep pains suffered by many of the participants. Often, they dwelled on the painful events, as if they were seeking some resolution and healing. Such rumination is typical of individuals who have been traumatized (Peterson & Moon, 1999). For some of the participants, their psychological pain is aggravated by the shattering of their assumptive world (Janoff-Bulman, 1999) — they were struggling with such questions: how could supervisors harm their own supervisees? How could this have happened in a Counseling Psychology Department, where students are constantly taught the importance of empathy and unconditional positive regard? However, in spite of the scope and depth of their suffering, there is also the evidence of resilience and heroism. Those who have been wounded and traumatized somehow have managed to survive and grow. Their coping efforts shed light on both the nature of their problems, and their adjustment process. In order to facilitate discussion, their coping efforts are grouped into the following broad areas:

Help seeking

The most widely used coping strategy is help seeking with a 36% participation rate. However, some of the participants used more than one form of help seeking. For example, one may seek help from friends as well as pray to God for help.

The literature on help seeking and social support (Flett, Blankstein, Hicken & Watson, 1995) deals with both emotional, social support as well as practical, tangible help. According to Wong's (1993) congruence model, when the stressor is appraised as controllable by self, one employs instrumental or problem-focused coping. However, when the stressor is appraised as beyond one's control, one resorts to others for both emotional support and tangible help. To the extent participants expressed feelings of powerlessness and helplessness in dealing with a controlling and powerful supervisor, helping seeking would be an appropriate form of coping.

Many participants sought emotional support from friends, spouse, and other students. Two of the participants also sought comfort and strength from God through prayer. Four participants sought practical help by seeking supervision from other sources when their own supervisor failed to provide adequate supervision.

It was noted that no participant sought help from Counseling Services or Administration. This observation is consistent with the literature that Asian Americans tend to seek informal help from their own social-support networks (Chou, 1988; Sue & Sue, 1990).

Existential coping

When a negative event shatters individuals' assumptions or overwhelms their coping resources, they not only ask "why" questions, but also resort to existential coping, a strategy of accepting the negative event and incorporating it in rebuilding the assumptive world making something positive out of it (Janoff-

Bulman, 1999; Wong, 1991, 1993). The adaptive value of acceptance has been demonstrated by Carver and Scheier (1999).

The present findings provide some evidence of existential coping in terms of acceptance and endurance. The category “Accepted what could not be changed” refers to acceptance of an unpleasant reality, which was accompanied by a more realistic view of counsellor education. The category “Kept quiet” refers to accepting and enduring the negative situation quietly, because of the perceived futility of appeal and fear of reprisal (Ladany et al., 1996). They just wanted to endure the pain and tried to get out of the program as quickly as they could. The following are examples of existential coping:

> I think it’s very Japanese side of me to accept it as it is…Just take it in and be submissive. (Vm1p9b)
>
> I can’t really say anything. I was just doing my time there…I just wanted to finish my program. I just wanted my internship hours to be finished. That’s all my goal was for this internship. (Vf19p6m)

Active coping

This is similar to but broader than problem-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), because it also includes taking actions to improve oneself. Categories related to self-improvement include: “Counselled myself”, “Learned more about the language and culture”, and “Changed my direction in research and counselling”. In one instance, the participant actually moved in with a Canadian family in order to practise English and learn the Canadian culture. In

another instance, the participant changed her future direction in order to learn more about cross-cultural supervision and counselling.

One of the participants resorted to documenting her negative experience "Wrote down everything so that others may know". This coping action has some therapeutic benefits, because research has shown that writing about one's stressful event can be an effective coping strategy (Smyth & Pennebaker, 1999).

Emotional coping

Emotional coping refers to participants' attempts to manage their negative feelings of anger, resentment, worries, and fears. It is similar to but broader than the emotional-focused coping conceptualized by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). It includes defensiveness, anger management and positive reframing. Only two participants resorted to some form of emotional coping. "Became very defensive" can be counterproductive, because it would further confirm supervisor's negative evaluation of the supervisee as someone being defensive and resistant to feedback.

Needs to improve multicultural supervision competencies

This area had a participation rate of 56%. The categories cover the need for awareness, knowledge and understanding: "Assumptions and practices of counselling need to be questioned", "Supervisors need to better understand minority student", "Supervisors need to know their own ethnic-cultural identity" and "Supervisors need to be more aware of demographic, political, and cultural issues". The category "Supervisors need to be open-minded and allow alternative models" emphasizes the need for supervisors to be more accepting of

approaches and models of counseling that are different from the Western models but appropriate for other ethnic groups.

The needs for addressing multicultural issues and developing multicultural competencies have been emphasized elsewhere (Fong & Lease, 1997; Gopaul-McHicol & Brice-Baker, 1998; Kaiser, 1997; Wong, P. & Wong, L., 1999). Supervisors need to acquire these competencies in order to work effectively with ethnic minority students. Vasquez and McKinley (1982) emphasized that supervisors need to be more sensitive to the difficulties and struggles of ethnic minorities. Ladany et al. (1997) found that high levels of racial identity led to greater supervisor alliances. Constantine (1997) and Priest (1994) reported that some supervisors were reluctant to talk about racial, ethnic issues due to their own biases or lack of multicultural training. It is important to note that supervisors have the responsibility to address multicultural issues (Tyler, Brome, & Williams, 1991).

Sojourner Readjustment: Mental Health of International Students after One Year's Foreign Sojourn and its Psychosocial Correlates.

Journal of Nervous & Mental Disease. 185(4):263-268, April 1997.

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Abstract:

The problem of readjustment to the home culture among international students who have spent some time in a foreign culture has not received satisfactory empirical investigation in the literature. We present a longitudinal study of the readjustment of 199 Japanese adolescents who have been enrolled in 1-year placement with a host family in various countries of the world. The personality trait, coping style, social support, and emotional distress of the subjects were measured before departure, while abroad, and 6 months after return home. The students showed substantial emotional distress even 6 months after return from a foreign sojourn; neuroticism, emotion-oriented coping, and concurrently measured social support were found to significantly

predict mental health during readjustment. Close attention is recommended not only for the adjustment of the international students while abroad but also for the readjustment process involved in the so-called reverse culture shock.

The needs for educational institutes to make changes

Most of the categories in this area require that departmental leadership institute certain changes in order to meet the needs of ethnic minority students. Very few professors would voluntarily take courses and receive training in multicultural competencies, unless it is required by the department and accrediting agencies (Sue & Sue, 1990). There is also a need for due process and accountability to ensure that supervisors assume ethical and legal responsibilities towards ethnical minority supervisees because of their vulnerability to discrimination (Vasquez, 1992). Evaluation of supervisors may also improve supervision effectiveness (Worthen & Dougher, 2000).

The category “Department needs to weed out weak students” suggests that a stricter screening procedure might screen out academically weak students. While participants agreed that weak students need to be “weeded out”, but some wondered how this can be accomplished fairly without hurting minority students. They felt that expulsion from the program should happen only when there was a due process in place to avoid wrongful dismissal. Furthermore, they pointed out that the department should give sufficient help and support for the students who were deficient in some areas, and expulsion should not be considered unless students failed to improve in spite of remediation. Finally, participants

emphasized that supervisors should be accountable for their evaluation of minority students in order to prevent unfair assessment. .

Regarding the need of providing counseling to graduate students so that they could work through their personal issues, most participants interviewed agreed that this would be a good idea, but they did not think that the department should be directly involved because of issues of dual relationships and confidentiality. They suggested some other arrangements to facilitate counseling for graduate students. For example, some graduate programs, such as Biola School of Psychology, require all of their clinical students receive counseling from a list of recommended therapists who offer a special rate for graduate students.

Needs for minority students to make changes

Recommendations in this area are concerned with adaptation and acculturation. The category “Minority students need to be more self-confident and assertive” reflects the realization that their modesty and deference to authority could be counter-productive in this culture and they need to become more self-confident and assertive. The category “Need to get organized and form an ethnic minority student group” reflects the realization of a united voice addressing the needs of ethnic minority students. However, one of the participants interviewed was concerned that such an organization might create a ghetto and further isolate minority students.

Theoretical considerations

Which of the supervision models can best account for the above constellation of complex results? Since this study did not differentiate between beginning and advanced counselor students, it is not possible to verify developmental models of supervision (Watkins, 1995b; Worthington, 1987). The results clearly support Holloway's (1995) systems approach, because her seven dimensions of supervision were all implicated by the helpful categories as well as recommendations. Bernard's (1979, 1987) discrimination model receives support, because there is evidence of all three supervisor roles: teacher, counsellor and consultant. However, the mentoring model (Wong, L. & Wong, P., 1999) also seems to be a promising model, because all the positive Categories of supervision are attributes of mentors. In fact, several participants explicitly referred their effective supervisors as mentors.

Mentoring seems to provide a very promising model for cross-cultural supervision, because a mentor's attitude of caring and advocating for supervisees helps in overcoming fears and mistrust due to cultural barriers. Secondly, mentors can help supervisees acculturate to the prevailing norms and values of the organization (Wooldridge & Yeomans, 1994). The literature also indicates that minority supervisees prefer supervisors as mentors (Daniels, et al. 1999; Ladany, et al., 1997; McNeill, et al., 1995).

The mentoring model not only can encompass all the research findings on effective supervision, but can incorporate other models of supervision. For example, the discrimination model about roles of supervision can be absorbed by the various roles and functions of mentoring (Tentoni, 1995). By the same token,

developmental models of supervision are a part of the mentoring model, because mentoring is a developmental process, sensitive to the different levels of experiences of the protégé (Carmin, 1988).

The mentoring model has heuristic value for supervision research, because the model can predict effective supervision which is directly related to mentor-like attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, any increase or decrease of mentor activities should result in a corresponding change in supervision effectiveness. In addition for the theoretical value of the mentoring model, it also has practical benefits which have received wide recognition and empirical support.

Furthermore, in some collectivistic cultures such as certain Asian cultures, disclosing personal problems to others outside of the family is believed to bring shame and guilt to the entire family (Sue, 1994). For instance, in the highly-collectivistic Japanese culture, engaging in family activities aids in coping with stress (Homma-True, 1997). Yeh and Wang (2000) found that Asian Americans tended to use coping sources and practices that emphasized talking with familial and social relations rather than professionals such as counselors. In Asian families, parents also serve as a coping resource because of filial piety, a Confucian behavioral norm that structures the unvarying intergenerational relationship where parents and elders are seen as wiser and more knowledgeable. Consistent with the literature, Lay and colleagues (1998) found that Asian Canadians had a more interdependent self-construal in relation to family members than European Canadian.

In general, the behaviors, emotions, thoughts, and motivations of interdependent selves are seen as embedded in those of the group and closely connected with important others (Erez & Earley, 1993). Individuals from collectivistic cultures, including African American, Japanese, Mexican American, Turkish, and Asian American individuals, tend to avoid speaking about or formally reporting problems or difficulties since it is seen as burdening others in public (Hall, 2003; Heron et al., 1997; McCarty et al., 1999; Wasti and Cortina, 2002, Yeh et al. 2004). Consequently, the Western tradition of seeking help from a stranger such as a counselor or a psychologist may be culturally inappropriate from a collectivistic perspective (Yeh & Wang, 2000).

Collectivistic cultures promote *forbearance*, the withholding of one's opinions and emotions or the restraint shown in the face of provocation, as a means to maintain this social harmony. Forbearance is accomplished by keeping problems and opinions to oneself, willingness to sacrifice to put the needs of others before one's own, enduring in the face of adversity, and accepting one's fate (Henkin, 1985; Marsella, 1993). Additionally, in contrast to independent individuals, interdependent selves may adjust themselves to the social context rather than changing the situation (Ben-Ari & Lavee, 2004; Morling & Fiske, 1999; Weisz, Rothbaum, Blackburn, 1984; Yang, 1986).

Forbearance has emerged in numerous studies. Chinese value forbearance to the degree where it is viewed as a coping strategy that can foster a sense of enlightened awareness (Yue, 2001). Fukuhara (1989) found that students in Japan are reluctant to express their own problems to others and suggested that it may be because the students do not want to bother others or to disturb social harmony. In addition, Yeh and Inose (2002) found a trend for Asian students to keep their problems to themselves than to confront when they had problems. Similarly, almost a third of the Japanese college students reported that they preferred to keep problems to themselves (Yeh et al., 2001). Wasti and Cortina (2002) found that Turkish and Hispanic American women kept their problems to themselves more than the Anglo American women in their study.

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