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**Supervision of resident assistant paraprofessionals in higher
education: Perceptions of supervisory roles**

Dean, Laura A., Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1991

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**SUPERVISION OF RESIDENT ASSISTANT PARAPROFESSIONALS IN
HIGHER EDUCATION: PERCEPTIONS OF SUPERVISORY ROLES**

by

Laura A. Dean

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro

1991

Approved by

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "L. A. Dean", is written over a horizontal line.

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APPROVAL PAGE

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This study examined a three-role model of supervision applied to supervisors of resident assistants in higher education. The Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI; Friedlander & Ward, 1984), which consists of three scales that assess relative emphasis of teacher, counselor, and consultant roles as perceived by supervisors, was used to explore applicability of the model. The SSI and questionnaires concerning demographic characteristics and experiential factors were administered to RA supervisors and a stratified random sample of RAs at North Carolina public universities. Responses were received from 86 supervisors and 363 RAs at 8 institutions.

The factor structure underlying RA supervisor responses on the SSI was compared with the factor structure underlying counselor supervisor responses as reported by Friedlander and Ward (1984). Relationships were examined between scores on each of the three SSI scales and supervisor demographic characteristics and experiential factors. Performance on the three SSI scales was compared for subgroups of supervisors: those who differed in training program orientation and those who differed in level of congruence of perceptions with their staffs.

Results of the study indicated that the RA supervisors perceived descriptors of supervisory roles using the same constructs as those used by counselor supervisors, thus supporting the use of the SSI in this setting. Performance on the SSI scales, representing relative emphasis of supervisory roles, was not, for the most part, significantly explained by recourse to the demographic characteristics and experiential factors. None of the

independent variables was a significant predictor for performance on the Teacher scale. However, experience in residence life and frequency of supervision were significant predictors of performance on the Counselor scale, and field of study was a significant predictor of performance on the Consultant scale. Supervisors from training programs with different orientations did not differ significantly in performance on any of the SSI scales. Supervisors who were grouped according to congruence of perceptions with their RAs generally did not differ in performance on any of the SSI scales. The exception was supervisors whose self-perceptions on the Teacher scale were most discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs. This group had a significantly higher mean Consultant scale score than did their congruent counterparts.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The role of student services on the college and university campus has changed dramatically in the second half of this century. Historically, these services were established for the maintenance of students enrolled in the institution. Students were housed, fed, provided sick care, and offered activities deemed to be supportive of and complementary to the academic mission of the school. Since the early 1970s, however, there has been recognition within institutions of higher education that students are affected by their total collegiate experience, not just the portion that occurs within the classroom and in academically-oriented activities. As a result, the goal of student services in colleges and universities has shifted from student maintenance to student development.

Rodgers (1980) defined student development as the "name given to various attempts to foster the development of college students" (p. 10). Blimling and Miltenberger (1984) suggested that it could be described "by saying that the purpose of working with students is to help identify areas in which students wish to grow, provide programs in those areas, and assess their success in meeting the goals they set" (p. 22). Higher education, then, is not only concerned with the content being learned, but with the process of learning, as well. Miller (1974) pointed out that this process was most readily seen within the context of the residence hall community, since it is there that many students spend much of their time and exhibit behavior that is

developmental in nature. Given that the residence environment can be an important site for students' social and educational growth, student affairs professionals have implemented policies and programs focused on providing an environment which supports the development of residents. Common to most residence life programs is the use of students who work within the residence setting in a paraprofessional capacity, typically as resident assistants (RAs). "The implementation of paraprofessional service delivery systems. . . is highly congruent within a student development model. Residence hall systems were one of the first student affairs areas to recognize the value of student staff" (Greenwood, 1980, p. 111). Blimling and Miltenberger (1984) referred to the RA as "the vanguard of the field of student development, since comparatively speaking the RA has the opportunity for extensive interaction with a large number of students" (p. vii).

Resident assistants have multiple roles. They are disciplinarians, helpers, teachers, facilitators, advisors, administrators, role models, counselors, and, more broadly, educators; at the same time, they are students themselves (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984; Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs, 1986; Powell, 1974; Strohm, 1980). As paraprofessionals, they must be trained and supervised in the skills necessary to carry out their responsibilities (Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs, 1988); as students, they also need opportunities which will enhance their own development. Ricci, Porterfield, and Piper (1987) pointed out that supervision by educational administrators has long had the dual focus of developing staff potential and ensuring effective organizational management. They compared

this dual focus with the business sector, in which effective management is the primary goal. Educational institutions, in contrast, have primary goals which involve developing human resource potentials.

Supervision of Resident Assistants

While pre-service training is important preparation for the job, on-going supervision is also crucial in the continuing development of student RAs. Upcraft (1982) suggested that improving the quality of RA supervision is the most important factor in strengthening residence hall programs. Ricci, Porterfield, and Piper (1987) outlined a model of developmental RA supervision which focuses on cognitive development level and personality type. Winston, Ullom, and Werring (1984) advocated "synergistic supervision," which emphasizes both the accomplishment of organizational goals and the education and personal growth of individual RAs. This approach to supervision involves education, structure and feedback, and support, characterized by a personal relationship of mutual trust and respect. Strohm (1980) suggested a strong "in-service education" approach, which includes (a) "ongoing encouragement, enhancement, and education of paraprofessionals;" (b) "opportunities to use experiences of paraprofessionals, faculty, and non-residence hall staff to add greater meaning to and resources for staff goals;" and (c) "skill training and support" (p. 119). The major aspects of the process described by Winston et al. (1984) and Strohm (1980) are reflected in Ender's (1984) three primary supervisor roles in the supervisory relationship: teaching, mentoring, and consultation. In the teaching role, supervisors provide training opportunities to address and reinforce helping skills. In the mentoring role, supervisors model helping skills and behaviors as they

interact with RAs; these activities reflect elements of a counseling orientation. In the consultant role, supervisors work closely with RAs to identify intervention strategies and needs for referral.

Teaching Role

One approach to RA supervision has been largely competency-based, focusing on objectives as the basis by which performance is evaluated. Ender, McCaffrey, and Miller (1979) argued that all student peer helpers need certain basic skills and competencies to become effective in their work with students. They outlined a training program which identifies specific competencies, such as facilitation skills and goal setting, and which is designed to educate students in applying them. One of the assumptions behind this approach is that "skill development occurs best when students are first exposed to a body of knowledge and then given opportunity to integrate that knowledge into their everyday lives" (Ender et al., 1979, p. 1). The Resident Assistant (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984), a frequently-used RA training manual, takes a similar approach, offering RAs specific steps to follow in dealing with various situations. Supervision emerging from this approach is patterned on a teacher-student model; the supervisor/RA relationship is perceived primarily as one in which the teaching of skills and information acquisition is emphasized.

Counseling Role

Powell (1974), discussing in-service education, emphasized that it should be responsive both to the needs of the participants and to their changing developmental task needs. He also noted the benefits to be realized from the involvement of students in their continuing education. "Students involved in

and excited about their own growth are helpful both in carrying out the many aspects of their responsibilities within a student development program and in seeing even the more mundane, mechanical aspects of their jobs positively as part of their roles as educators" (Powell, 1974, p. 202). In assuming a counseling role, supervisors focus on the developmental level and needs of individual staff members. This approach is based on the assumption that improved RA performance will result from the personal growth of the individual. Description of and support for such a developmental approach to supervision can be found in the literature related to supervision of counselors (e.g., Blocher, 1983; Cross & Brown, 1983; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Hogan, 1964; Krause & Allen, 1988; Littrell, Lee-Borden, & Lorenz, 1979; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; McNeill, Stoltenberg, & Pierce, 1985; Rabinowitz, Heppner, & Roehlke, 1986; Reising & Daniels, 1983; Stoltenberg, 1981). A blended teaching/counseling approach to the paraprofessional supervisory relationship reflects a recognition of both employee and student development needs. It therefore would seem intuitively to be beneficial; however, there is little empirical evidence to support this assumption.

Consulting Role

Because the students with whom RAs interact are their peers and because, in most of their functions, they are not in supervisory relationship to those students, a useful model for conceptualizing the RA and supervisor relationship is the consultation model, based on that suggested by Caplan (1970). The characteristics of consultation which are particularly germane to the RA role include the following: a) consultation is usually given as a short series of sessions which take place in response to the consultee's awareness of

current need for help with a work problem (in the RA's case, typically a resident's school problem), b) the consultant has no predetermined body of information to impart to particular consultees, and c) the goals are to help the consultee improve his or her handling or understanding of the current difficulty and to increase his or her capacity to master future problems of similar type (Caplan, 1970). These are characteristics typically thought to be desirable in residence hall paraprofessionals.

Relationship of Paraprofessional Supervision and Counseling Supervision

Because of several common characteristics, particularly a developmental emphasis, Brown (1985) suggested that the counseling supervision literature offers appropriate models for considering the nature of the supervision process with resident assistants. He outlined common elements in the supervision process as it occurs with supervisors and students across professional training experiences. Across settings, the supervisory relationships involve an educational experience in which the student provides a direct service to a third party, with the supervisor ultimately responsible for the welfare of the client and for the growth and evaluation of the student. The relationship involves intense interpersonal interactions, emphasizes the improvement of technical skills, and consists of one person having responsibility for the professional development and evaluation of the other.

At present, the literature related to student development and RAs offers support for the concept and importance of supervision. Much of what has been written, however, is prescriptive in nature. Little information exists regarding how the process is experienced and therefore viewed by those who are engaged in it. The counseling supervision literature offers models of the

process as well as research regarding supervisory effectiveness, behaviors, styles, roles, and perceptions. Because of common elements in the supervisory process in the two settings, research on counseling supervision offers a framework against which RA supervision can be considered.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the supervisory process as it occurs with resident assistant paraprofessionals. Researchers have not examined the balance of supervisory roles in RA supervision or the ways in which this supervisory process may be seen as similar to or different from that which occurs in other settings. Further, the perceptions of the process by those involved in it have not been explored. This study investigated the presence of and relative emphasis on teaching, counseling, and consulting roles in RA supervision. It also examined the possibility of a bridge between counseling supervision and paraprofessional supervision by comparing the extent to which the factors underlying the processes are the same. Finally, it provided insight into the variables which affect the ways in which RA supervisors and RAs perceive the supervisory relationship. The study benefits student development professionals by increasing understanding of the supervisory process in this setting. Such understanding can provide the basis for planning training and for developing further research, including studies of effectiveness.

Need for the Study

Resident assistants are vital to the success of residence life and student development programs. Their effectiveness is related to a variety of factors, including the extent to which they receive the supervision they need to

perform well and benefit from the position. While much has been written and studied regarding the selection, training, and evaluation of RAs, little research has focused on the supervision of paraprofessionals in residence halls.

Without a clear understanding of the nature of the supervisory process as it occurs with RAs, it is difficult for student development professionals to address the training and supervision needs of RA supervisors. If supervisory roles in this setting are perceived as they are in counseling settings, then the counseling supervision literature justifiably can be considered as a basis for further work with RA supervision. Also, determining whether demographic characteristics and experiential factors are associated with perceived supervisory roles may enable those supervising RA supervisors to anticipate behaviors and to better address needs. This study explored a three-role conceptualization of supervision in work with RAs.

Statement of the Problem

The study investigated the relative extent to which resident assistant supervisors perceive the roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant as being present in the supervisory relationship. Specifically, the research questions were the following:

1. How similar is the factor structure underlying RA supervisor perceptions of supervisory roles, as measured by the Supervisory Styles Inventory, to the factor structure underlying the perceptions of counselor supervisors?
2. To what extent can supervisor performance on the Task Oriented (Teaching) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors?

3. To what extent can supervisor performance on the Interpersonally Sensitive (Counseling) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors?
4. To what extent can supervisor performance on the Attractive (Consulting) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors?
5. To what extent do the responses on the Supervisory Styles Inventory of supervisors who describe their training program as oriented toward counseling differ from supervisors who describe their training program as oriented toward administration?
6. To what extent do the responses on the Supervisory Styles Inventory of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style are congruent with the perceptions of their RAs differ from the responses of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style are discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs?

Definition of Terms

Paraprofessionals--"persons who work alongside professionally trained workers in an auxiliary role, carrying out tasks and functions that contribute to professional objectives. Usually such workers have less formal education than professionals, they are involved in direct services of a relatively concrete and routine nature, and they are supervised and directed by professionally trained workers" (Schindler & Brawley, 1987, p. 2)

Resident Assistants--student paraprofessionals who supervise and assist undergraduate students in college and university residence halls (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984)

Supervisor--"one who oversees the work of another with responsibility for the quality of that work" (Leddick & Bernard, 1980, p. 187)

Supervision--"a dyadic human interaction with a focus on modifying the behavior of the supervisee, so he or she may provide better service to a third person ordinarily not present" (Hess, 1980, p. 16)

Supervisory Role--the approach the supervisor uses with the didactic material being presented to the supervisee (Bernard, 1979); synonymous in this study with supervisory style

Teacher--supervisory role emphasizing the teaching of skills and information acquisition; patterned on a teacher-student model

Counselor--supervisory role emphasizing the personal and professional development of supervisees; patterned on a counselor-client model

Consultant--supervisory role emphasizing response to the supervisee's awareness of current need for help with a work problem (adapted from Brown, Pryzwansky, & Schulte, 1987)

Organization of the Study

The study is presented in five chapters. Chapter I is an introduction to the role of resident assistant paraprofessionals within student development programs. It provides an overview of supervision as it is related to resident assistants and describes the three major supervisory styles to be examined. It links RA supervision to counseling supervision and includes the purpose of

the study, need for the study, statement of the problem, and definition of terms.

Chapter II, Review of Related Literature, is comprised of two major sections: paraprofessionals and supervision. The review of literature related to paraprofessionals includes origins and roles of paraprofessionals; paraprofessionals as peer counselors, in higher education, and in student services; and specifically, emergence of the student development concept and residence halls and resident assistants. The review of the supervision literature describes skills-focused supervision and developmental supervision. The overview of supervision research examines supervision as a developmental process, the effectiveness of supervision, and supervisory behaviors, styles, roles, and perceptions.

Chapter III discusses the methodology used in the study and includes information regarding instruments used, participants in the study, procedures followed, and methods of data analysis used.

Chapter IV describes the results of the data analysis. Discussion of the analysis and results parallels the research hypotheses.

Chapter V includes a summary of the study, a discussion of conclusions, and implications for the field. It further includes an examination of limitations of the study and offers recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature relevant to this study can be divided into two sections: the nature and role of paraprofessionals, particularly resident assistants in higher education, and the supervision process. Paraprofessionals are an important part of the delivery of human services. Using paraprofessionals expands services quantitatively by increasing the number of available service providers; it also expands services qualitatively through the benefits that accrue to the service providers from playing the help-giving role (Riessman, 1982). The use of paraprofessionals, then, creates the obligation on the part of professional staff members to offer the support needed so that they can succeed in their roles. Supervision of the work of paraprofessionals is an important part of this support.

The use of paraprofessionals in student development in higher education leads to a complex set of supervisory needs. Student paraprofessionals must be trained adequately in the skills required to perform their duties, and supervision must be provided to ensure that such responsibilities are carried out. However, student paraprofessionals are, in fact, students as well as employees. A commitment to a high quality student development program would suggest that RAs must be provided with experiences which will support and promote their individual growth (Greenwood, 1980). Supervision of paraprofessionals in higher education, then, logically includes a dual focus on assisting them to perform well and supporting their individual development.

Paraprofessionals

Across the human services, professionals have long turned to others who are not formally trained in the field for assistance in service delivery. Those providing such assistance have generally been referred to as paraprofessionals. Schindler and Brawley (1987) defined paraprofessionals as "persons who work alongside professionally trained workers in an auxiliary role, carrying out tasks and functions that contribute to professional objectives. Usually such workers have less formal education than professionals, they are involved in direct services of a relatively concrete and routine nature, and they are supervised and directed by professionally trained workers" (p. 2). Additionally, paraprofessionals are typically drawn from the population with which they work. The indigenous nature of these assistants contributes to their usefulness. In a 1983 international survey of the use and training of paraprofessional human service personnel, it was noted that paraprofessional helpers are more likely than their professional counterparts to share class, cultural ethnic, racial, and other characteristics with their clients (Schindler & Brawley, 1987). Schindler and Brawley further suggested that when the paraprofessional is a member of the community being served, sharing the language, experience, and outlook of those who are to be helped, the offered help will be more appropriate, more readily accepted, and more effective.

The role of the resident assistant as a paraprofessional can best be understood by tracing the development of paraprofessionals from their origins in community mental health and social work to their various functions in higher education (Giddan & Austin, 1982). The RA position has its

antecedents in the indigenous peer helper and new career movements of the 1960s. Paraprofessionals, especially RAs, have been used extensively on campuses, but the RA role broadened with the emergence of the concept of student development. Resident assistants are now viewed as being in a position to have a significant impact on the development of students (Winston et al., 1984).

Origins of Paraprofessionals

Although paraprofessionals have existed in a variety of professions, much of the history of such helpers in the human services can be traced to the community mental health and social work movements in the 1960s (Wicks, 1978). The term paraprofessional emerged when a variety of human service programs incorporated the indigenous poor into their service delivery models (Pearl, 1981). Referred to as "new careers," this approach was conceived at the height of the civil rights movement and nurtured by the increasing concern with economic inequality and inadequate human services. A "new careerist," according to Wicks (1978), was "an untrained resident of a poverty area who seeks a position at entry level which would provide the needed education to advance to full professional status" (p. 9). The concept achieved national prominence in the mid-1960s with enactment of federal antipoverty legislation directed at creating training and job-development programs for paraprofessional workers (Chen, 1976). Also, the Community Mental Health Centers Act of 1963 led to the creation of mental health centers which typically involved paraprofessionals in service delivery (Wicks, 1978).

According to Wicks (1978), the human services field in the 1960s was characterized by "one general, pervading theme, namely, that everyone

(including the poor and unemployed) has a right to know what resources exist in the community, to have access to them as clients and workers, and to be involved in the creative expansion of current services" (p. 29). The emphasis, therefore, was on the creation of new careers and roles for paraprofessionals. Wagenfeld and Robin (1981) referred to this as the "paraprofessional movement," because it displayed the characteristics associated with a social movement: leaders, followers, an ideology, and a set of goals. Chen (1976, p. 105) disagreed, calling new careers a "useful strategy" rather than a social movement.

Whether social movement or useful strategy, the use of paraprofessionals became, in effect, a self-help movement when declining support for services among the affluent in the 1970s necessitated a higher level of involvement among the poor to help themselves (Pearl, 1981). Wicks (1978) described this as a revolution against the status quo in mental health. Calling it the "fourth revolution," he traced its evolution from previous revolutions: the development of moral treatment in the late eighteenth century, the emergence of Freudian psychology, and the use of and reliance on psychotropic drugs. All of these set the stage for the community mental health movement, in which the goal is to provide comprehensive and continuous care for people in their living and working environments. This approach is based on the belief that it is best to treat people where they are (Wicks, 1978). Paraprofessionals became an important component of this outreach.

Teare (1978) pointed out a number of motives for the use of paraprofessionals. These include solving a worker shortage, providing

employment opportunities, increasing the efficiency of services (by using differentially skilled personnel), increasing the effectiveness of services, and providing beneficial work experience for the paraprofessionals. Austin (1978) noted that use of paraprofessionals varied by agency. For some, paraprofessionals were simply a source of cheap labor; for others, their involvement was an opportunity to raise the quality of service based on special knowledge of the target population and increased ethnic diversity on service staffs. In general, however, the goal was service reform (Chen, 1976). Agencies sought more effective links with their clients through more individualized attention, a greater range of outreach services, and better understanding of client needs. Paraprofessionals served a bridging function as liaisons with client populations. They assisted in making professional services more relevant to communities where the mores and lifestyle were different from those of human service agencies (Wicks, 1978).

The paraprofessional movement benefitted both the population served and the paraprofessionals themselves. Teare (1978) noted that under certain conditions, therapeutic benefits accrue to workers by virtue of their being part of the helping process. Whether such personal changes occur is primarily determined by the structure and quality of the setting in which they work (Chen, 1976). However, as Gartner (1971) suggested, "the introduction and implementation of paraprofessional programs, to borrow concepts from the physical sciences, would appear to have a catalytic, precipitant, and even synergetic effect. As he (sic) cuts across the various human-service fields and as he has a positive effect on the consumer--be it

student, patient, or client--the paraprofessional is both a contributor and a challenger at the very center of contemporary practice" (p. 29).

Roles of Paraprofessionals

Paraprofessionals have been used to assist with a wide variety of human service functions. Sobey (1969) categorized typical paraprofessional functions as caretaking, bridging, sustenance or social support, and professional assistance activities. McPheeters, King, and Teare (1972) expanded these to describe paraprofessional roles: outreach worker, broker, advocate, evaluator, teacher, behavior changer, mobilizer, consultant, community planner, caregiver, data manager, and administrator. Paraprofessionals have been used extensively in special education (Courson & Heward, 1988; Keystone Area Education, 1988), bilingual education (Berney & Sjostrom, 1989), education and services for the disabled (Baldwin, 1987; Brown & Wight-Felske, 1987; Jimenez & Iseyama, 1987; Myles & Simpson, 1989; Schlaht, 1986), general classroom settings (Woolf & Bassett, 1988), library services (Alire, 1986; Bednar, 1988; Bishoff, 1987; DuMont, 1988; Hiatt, 1987; Kovacic, 1987; Murfin & Bunge, 1988); relaxation training for chemotherapy patients (Carey & Burish, 1987); prison settings (McShane, 1987), and long-term care for the elderly (France, 1989; Nahemow, Casey, Gauthier, Lusky, & Wolf, 1988). The involvement of paraprofessionals permits increased efficiency and effectiveness of services (Teare, 1978).

When paraprofessionals provide direct service to members of the population from which they come, they are functioning as peer helpers. Educational settings have been a primary focus of such programs. Peer helpers have been used to promote student involvement in school (Lynn,

1986), to assist younger students (Bowman, 1983; Thomas, 1987), to assist in career education (Thompson, 1983), to reduce numbers of school dropouts and levels of negative behavior (Kehayan, 1987), to deal with school phobic students (Diamond, 1985), to assist with school psychological service delivery (McManus, 1984), to prevent alcohol and drug abuse (Lovell & Hachmeister, 1989), to increase AIDS awareness (Center for Population Options, 1988), to assist pregnant and parenting teenagers (Canam, 1985), and to address the needs of mainstreamed disabled students (Smoot, 1985). Peer helper programs have been shown to be effective in facilitating student adjustment (Peterson & Peppas, 1988), promoting orientation of high school and college freshmen (Huey, 1985; Russel & Thompson, 1987), and facilitating social and play skills in students with autistic characteristics (Durlak & Short, 1986). Additionally, trained peer helpers are perceived to be more facilitative than untrained helpers (McDowell, 1983).

Paraprofessionals as Peer Counselors

Indigenous paraprofessionals often serve as peer counselors, offering assistance with problems similar to their own. An outgrowth of the self-help movement, peer counseling programs take advantage of the minimal social distance between helper and help recipient (Giddan, 1988). As with other paraprofessional roles, peer counselors are not intended to act in the place of professionals. Instead, they act to complement and enhance the work of professional staff members. Peer counseling has been described as a system of training people to help each other through empathy and decision making (Carr, 1984).

Peer counseling programs have been implemented with elderly persons (Burke & Hayes, 1986; Hoffman, 1983), Native Americans (Runion & Gregory, 1984), adolescents (de Rosenroll & Moyer, 1983; Esplin, 1985; Hurrelmann, 1988), and low-achieving students (Kehayan, 1983). They have been conducted in rehabilitation settings (Farley & Akridge (1986), elementary schools (Downe, Altmann, & Nysetvold, 1986; Mitchum, 1983), middle schools (Bowman, 1986), and high schools (Blain & Brusko, 1985; Kuner, 1984; Lynn, 1986). Such programs have been directed toward adolescent suicide prevention (Fairfax County Public Schools, 1987; Friedrich, Matus, & Rinn, 1985), career development in high school students (France, 1984), and delinquency prevention (Fatum, 1987). Vacc (1973) suggested that the use of peer counselors in drug abuse programs is likely to result in greater acceptance of helping behaviors, better rapport, lessened threat of legal and administrative retribution, increased information regarding the problem, and more effective referrals.

Peer counselors are perceived as highly effective in social leadership, group discussion, and individual counseling roles (Guttman, 1985). Peer counseling has been shown to increase coping and perceived social support and to decrease stress in adolescents (Carty, 1988). Additionally, peer counselor training has been shown to result in improved self-concept and social relationships (Sanborn & Myrick, 1983).

Paraprofessionals in Higher Education

Paraprofessionals in their various capacities have been used extensively in higher education. The utilization of students as peer helpers can be traced to the use of student tutors in colonial colleges and universities (Ender, 1984).

Recently, concern with student development and the need to make efficient use of limited resources have resulted in a wider range of roles for paraprofessionals in higher education (Ender & McFadden, 1980).

Although paraprofessionals in higher education have their roots in the new careers movement, Giddan (1988) noted that new careers were intended to provide permanent jobs and structure for an upwardly mobile career, while most campus paraprofessionals are relatively transient and do not view their roles as career paths.

Zunker (1975) surveyed the use of students as paraprofessionals in four-year colleges and universities nationwide and found that 76% reported using students in paraprofessional positions. Comparison with similar studies conducted in 1959 (Powell, 1959) and 1963 (Brown & Zunker, 1966) revealed a trend toward increased use of students as paraprofessionals. The studies indicated that the most extensive use of paraprofessionals was in residence halls, with 89% of schools in the Zunker study reporting students in such roles. That study showed a significant increase of students involved as paraprofessionals in academic departments, reading and study habits centers, and counseling centers, with increased use also evident in student social centers and student religious centers and continued extensive use in new student orientation. It also showed significantly more students involved in vocational guidance and in educational program planning than did the earlier study. Respondents noted that use of paraprofessionals across campus was cost-effective and assisted in addressing budgetary constraints. They also indicated that more systematic training and supervision were essential.

Further, the majority of respondents believed that the use of student paraprofessionals was likely to increase.

Winston and Ender (1988) conducted a follow-up study to assess the depth and breadth of student paraprofessional use in divisions of college student affairs. For the study, they defined paraprofessionals as "undergraduate students who have been selected and trained to offer services or programs to their peers. These services are intentionally designed to assist in the adjustment, satisfaction, and/or persistence of students" (p. 466). Of the respondents (n=118), 72% reported the existence of at least one paraprofessional program in student affairs, a percentage that does not differ significantly from Zunker's study. Results confirmed the earlier findings that the most extensive use of paraprofessionals is in residence halls (81.2%) and in new student orientation (82.4%). Residence halls were the most often reported site of paraprofessional use among four-year institutions (94.4%) and among private institutions (96.0%). More than one-third of all institutions also reported using paraprofessionals in counseling centers, career planning and placement centers, student judiciaries, academic advising, and student activities. The major change from the previous study was the greater diversity of settings that reported using paraprofessionals. The study classified 25% of all programs as so specific or unique to the institution that they were grouped in an "other" category for data analysis.

According to Winston and Ender (1988), paraprofessionals have a variety of responsibilities in their roles. The most frequent activities in which paraprofessionals engage, which were expected of students in more than one-half of the programs, were providing information, explaining policies and

procedures, performing administrative-clerical tasks, making referrals to other agencies, providing personal counseling, and implementing social activities. In residence halls, the five most important activities were enforcing rules, explaining policies and procedures, providing information, providing personal counseling, and implementing social activities.

In addition to surveying paraprofessional activities, Winston and Ender (1988) also investigated working conditions, including the availability and frequency of supervision of paraprofessionals by program setting. For residence halls, 93.8% of the administrators responding reported that supervision was available. Of those reporting that supervision was provided, 46.7% indicated that it occurred daily and 31.7% reported weekly supervision.

Program administrators and coordinators were asked to identify their rationale for using paraprofessionals (Winston & Ender, 1988). The primary reasons given were that paraprofessionals are less costly staff, that paraprofessionals are more effective than professionals, that the program aids in the paraprofessional's personal development, and that the program enables the institution to provide more services to more students. For residence hall paraprofessionals, the most frequently reported rationale was that the program aids in paraprofessional development (84.6%), with more than half of the respondents also indicating that the program permits more services to be provided. Approximately half of the respondents indicated that lower staffing costs were a rationale for paraprofessional use in residence halls. Ender (1984) suggested that several factors have contributed to the increased use of paraprofessionals on campus. First, research supports the effectiveness of paraprofessionals. Further, service in such positions has a positive effect on

the students in those roles. Through the use of paraprofessionals, institutions can offer more services to more students at lower cost, and professionals' time can be used more efficiently.

It can be expected that use of paraprofessionals in higher education will continue to increase. Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAOs) and paraprofessional program administrators and coordinators were asked to forecast campus staffing patterns in the next ten years (Winston & Ender, 1988). Of the CSAOs, 57.6% indicated that they expected an increase in the number of paraprofessional staff members, with an additional 35% projecting the number to remain approximately the same. Paraprofessional program administrators and coordinators were somewhat less optimistic, with 28.4% expecting an increase, 56.5% projecting no change, and 11.2% uncertain about future numbers of paraprofessionals. Winston and Ender concluded that "apparently, those charged with the overall administration of student affairs, and generally with preparing budgets, envision greater paraprofessional use than do those immediately responsible for paraprofessional programs" (p. 472). They also noted that the trend toward greater diversity in paraprofessional roles suggests that institutions are broadening the scope of paraprofessional involvement. Taken together, these factors suggest that "dwindling financial resources in student affairs divisions and in higher education overall may be somewhat offset by the increased use of a less expensive human resource--student paraprofessionals" (Winston & Ender, 1988, p. 472).

Paraprofessionals in Student Services

Just as paraprofessionals have functioned in diverse capacities in community and educational settings, students also have been used as paraprofessionals in student service areas across campus. They have worked as peer consultants to student organizations (Presser, Miller, & Rapin, 1984), in career planning and placement (Carr, 1986; France & McDowell, 1982; Hansen & Johnston, 1986; Kenzler, 1983), in academic support programs (Buck & Pineda, 1985; Forristall-Brown & Brown, 1984; Lundeberg, 1988), in minority retention programs (Francisco, 1983; Illinois Community College Board, 1989; Lewis, 1986), in academic advising (Devlin-Scherer, 1985; Elliott, 1985; Flores & Weeks, 1988; Jones, 1984), as orientation advisors (Davis & Ballard, 1985; Johnson, 1987), in disabled student services (Forman & Hartman, 1986), in programs for returning adult students (Chickering, 1987), in programs to reduce student stress (Harris-Campbell, 1988; Whitman, Spendlove, & Clark, 1984), in drug abuse programs (Vacc, 1973), in recruitment and admissions (Hernandez & Luevano, 1983), in support programs for student athletes (Whitner & Sanz, 1988), and in general peer counseling programs (Anderson et al., 1979). Paraprofessionals have become increasingly important as divisions of student affairs attempt to maintain and improve services in the face of limited resources (Ender & McFadden, 1980).

Emergence of the Student Development Concept. The nature of the paraprofessional role, particularly that of the resident assistant, has changed as the philosophy about an institution's extracurricular relationship to students has evolved (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). Prior to the mid-1900s, the primary purpose of residence halls, and other student services, was the

custodial care of students. This perspective evolved into a belief that the institution was to act *in loco parentis* (in lieu of parents). After World War II, however, the influx of older students and students from more diverse backgrounds presented a challenge to those who worked with students. It was in the 1930s and 1940s that a new philosophy emerged, referred to as the "student personnel point of view." This approach emphasized the importance of viewing the student as a whole person and of considering the total environment as educational and an influence on development. The personnel point of view was translated into the "student services approach," in which the institutional relationship to students was defined primarily in terms of necessary services. In the 1970s and 1980s, this relationship was again reconceptualized as the "student development approach." Blimling and Miltenberger (1984) described this approach as being characterized by the following:

1. An acceptance of developmental philosophy characterized by the belief that the individual growth toward maturation is sequential, increasing in complexity, universal, and quantitatively different.
2. An acceptance of students as determinors of their own destinies.
3. A belief that the role of student personnel people (residence hall staff) as educators with definable skills is to assist students in accomplishing goals that they have identified for themselves.

4. The belief that students are able to determine what is best for themselves.
5. A recognition that the student is a total living organism and that the university must deal with both his (sic) cognitive and his affective development; that it is not possible to develop the mind and simply assume that the rest of the person's development will occur naturally. (pp. 22-23)

With the emergence of this perspective, the role of residence halls and residence assistants broadened. Rather than simply housing students or providing additional educational experiences for them, the goal became the creation and provision of an environment which supports and encourages the social, psychological, and intellectual development of the individual.

Attention was focused on the question of whether development could be promoted intentionally, specifically through student affairs (Creamer, 1990). As described by the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (1988), "the educational experience of students consists of both academic efforts in the classroom and developmental opportunities through student services and development programs" (p. 3). It is within this context that the current resident assistant role exists.

Residence Halls and Resident Assistants. The resident assistant (RA) position has been described as "the foundation of nearly every residence hall program across the country" (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984, p. vii). Compared with other paraprofessionals in student services, RAs typically have the opportunity for more extensive interaction over a longer period of time.

They are, therefore, in a position to have a significant impact on the development of students.

Student residences have existed in some form since the thirteenth century (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). While their nature and use have changed since their inception, a major change in residence philosophy in the 1930s influenced the current state of residence life. Prior to the 1930s, dormitories were provided primarily for the shelter and protection of students (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984; Winston et al., 1984). With increased emphasis of the role of extracurricular life, however, new attention was focused on the residence hall as a site of further educational experiences. The period of time after World War II through the 1960s saw a great influx of students into higher education. This, in turn, created a need for additional housing, and federal support for construction contributed to a major increase in the numbers of residence halls across the country. To accommodate enrollment increases, the residence halls built during this time were often large, high-rise structures.

As higher education began to examine its role in the social, psychological, and intellectual development of the student and attempted to integrate the large numbers of students, living in large groups, into the life of the institution, attention was focused on the educational role of the residence hall (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). It was at this time that resident assistant positions began to be developed. Initially, RAs functioned to maintain order and to serve as a liaison between administration and students; at this time, the position was often called "proctor," reflecting the emphasis on enforcement of rules (Winston et al., 1984). However, the turbulence of the 1960s and 1970s and the liberalization of campus policies as a result of that time presented RAs

with a broader set of functions in the residence environment. This larger RA role also mirrored the emergence of paraprofessionals in the community mental health movement. The term "resident assistants" or "resident advisors" reflected a shift from the disciplinary focus toward a role as a peer helper (Winston et al., 1984). The residence hall has continued to be an important site of student development efforts on campus, and RAs have become an integral part of this work.

According to Blimling and Miltenberger (1984), the resident assistant position is relatively similar in institutions across the country. They described four roles in which RAs are involved: role model, counselor (or consultant or advisor), teacher, and student. Winston et al. (1984) expanded these to six: model of effective student, peer helper, information and referral agent, socializer, leader and organizer, clerical worker, and limit setter and conflict mediator. It is clear that the RA position encompasses a broad range of roles; each of these roles, in turn, entails a variety of activities. Within the various roles, common expectations of RAs are handling administrative details, helping to provide control, helping to establish a healthy residence hall environment, assisting individual student needs, and supporting hall government programs (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). Such expectations require the RA to have competencies in a number of areas in order to be successful. Blimling and Miltenberger (1984) listed six basic skills necessary for effective residence hall staff work: conceptual application skills, counseling skills, basic information skills, administrative skills, teaching skills, leadership skills, crisis-management skills, and good human relations skills.

The range of responsibilities expected of RAs has implications for the ways in which professional staff members need to work with them. Implementation of programs involving paraprofessionals requires consideration of a number of issues, including program goals and objectives, recruitment, selection, training, supervision, compensation, evaluation, and ethical and legal issues (Ender, 1984). Further, working with paraprofessionals requires attending to the two primary dimensions of their role: paraprofessional employee and student. Because they are employees, professional staff members must provide them with the elements of any employment situation: adequate selection practices, training, supervision, and evaluation. Additionally, however, these paraprofessionals are students. As such, they cannot be treated only as employees. The concept of student development, if it is to be applied to any students, must be applied to resident assistants. Professional staff members must address the developmental needs of RAs and provide experiences through which they can grow as individuals in addition to succeeding as employees.

Supervision

In general, "a supervisor is one who oversees the work of another with responsibility for the quality of that work" (Leddick & Bernard, 1980, p. 187). Therefore, in any organization where people work in hierarchical relation to one another, the process of supervision occurs. What is meant by the term supervision, however, differs from setting to setting. One important distinction relates to the object or outcome of the process. In some settings, the object of supervision is the performance of tasks resulting in the accomplishment of organizational goals (Hellriegel, Slocum, & Woodman,

1983); in others, the desired outcome includes the development of the supervisee (Stoltenberg, 1981). In business and industrial settings, the former object is typically the primary one. In the human services, however, the latter has more often been a focus of the supervisory process. The dual nature of the resident assistant role dictates that both of these outcomes receive attention, and discussion of the supervision of resident assistants must recognize this dual focus. The context of an emphasis on student development, however, suggests that approaches to supervision which focus on a developmental perspective are particularly relevant to work in this setting. Therefore, while both managerial and developmental supervision are germane, this review of related literature will focus on developmental approaches to supervision.

Managerial Supervision

Supervision has been described as the process of getting work accomplished through other people (Broadwell, 1986; Christenson, Johnson, & Stinson, 1982; George, 1985; Gray, 1984). More narrowly, supervisors have been defined as "first-line managers who have direct contact with employees and facilitate completion of work tasks" (Catt & Miller, 1985, p. 5). These viewpoints overlap with descriptions of management and leadership. Catt and Miller (1985) suggested that management "involves achievement of objectives through directing human and equipment resources. This involves planning, staffing, organizing, and controlling" (p. 6). Supervision, then, is one aspect of management. Hellriegel et al. (1983) described leadership as a managerial role involving "responsibility for directing and coordinating the activities of subordinates to accomplish organizational goals" (p. 12). Aspects of this role

have to do with staffing, motivating subordinates, controlling the activities of subordinates, and probing for problems that need managerial attention. Leadership involves "a relationship between two or more people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed" (Hellriegel et al., 1983, p. 393). It is "a means of getting a group of people to move in a certain direction" (Broadwell, 1986, p. 225) or "the process of influencing the activities of individuals or groups toward goal accomplishment" (Christenson et al., 1982, p. 155).

Gray (1984), however, argues that supervision and leadership are not synonymous. The process of supervision requires other behaviors, activities, skills, and responsibilities that are not inherent in the leadership role. Gray (1984) suggested that the major distinction between leadership and supervision is that "the process of leadership is largely behavioral in nature, whereas supervision goes far beyond the psychological and sociological determinants of behavior" (p. 266). Supervisory roles include supporter, technical advisor, authority figure, scapegoat, listener, evaluator, decision maker, communicator, and trainer (Gray, 1984). As George (1985) suggested, a good leader does not have to be a good supervisor, but a good supervisor needs to possess characteristics of a good leader. Supervisors must have leadership skills, but they must also have skills in other areas to function effectively.

Supervision is based in a formal position held by one person in relation to others. Gray (1984) defined a supervisor as "a first-level manager who is accountable for the performance of operative employees" (pp. 27-28). He suggested that three concepts constitute the main elements of any managerial role, including supervision. These are authority, responsibility, and

accountability. Authority is defined as the right to make decisions, responsibility as the obligation to make decisions, and accountability as being answerable for the exercise of authority and responsibility (Gray, 1984, p. 27). He further described three properties of supervisory roles that distinguish them from other managerial roles in the organization: (a) their place in the organizational hierarchy, (b) the people they supervise, and (c) the amount of authority they have. Supervisors, then, are "those individuals who occupy the first level of management in the organization. In other words, they perform the managerial functions--planning, organizing, directing, and controlling--at the first level above the operative employees. Below this level such functions may be performed, but not by one person for another" (Gray, 1984, p. 27). Christenson et al. (1982) concurred, stating that supervisors are first-line managers involved with planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling. George (1985) outlined three levels of supervisors but agreed that the supervisory functions are planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling. Broadwell (1985) expanded the list of supervisory functions to include delegating, training, controlling, communicating, motivating, and appraising and assessing potential.

The human resources approach to management suggests a broader interpretation of the role of the supervisor (French, 1990). Human resources management refers to "the philosophy, policies, procedures, and practices related to the management of people within an organization" (French, 1990, p. 8). Further, it "encompasses a dynamic, organization-wide perspective that is action-oriented and based on theory and research from many disciplines, including the study of human behavior" (French, 1990, p. 10). The human

resources management movement emerged from six interrelated sources: (a) the scientific management movement, (b) the industrial welfare movement, (c) early industrial psychology, (d) the human relations movement, (e) the labor movement and the emergence of free collective bargaining, and (f) the development of human resources management as a profession (French, 1990). As such, it represents the blending of the traditional managerial functions with an increased concern for the role and needs of the people working in the organization. The approach recognizes the relationship between productivity and satisfaction with work. While the object of supervision is primarily the accomplishment of organizational goals through effective task accomplishment, the human resources perspective also involves paying attention to the needs of the workers.

Developmental Supervision

Such attention to the needs of the supervisee is characteristic of supervision conducted with counselors and counselor trainees. In this setting, "the goal of supervision is to produce more competent counselors" (Bernard, 1979, p. 61). More specifically, supervision is "an intensive, interpersonally focused, one-to-one relationship in which one person is designated to facilitate the development of therapeutic competence in the other person" (Loganbill et al., 1982, p. 4). These definitions reflect a dual focus on the counselor as a counselor and on the outcomes of counseling. The supervisor, according to Borders and Leddick (1987), is "responsible for both a counselor and that counselor's clients, for the counselor's learning and the client's welfare. . . [the supervisor is] a teacher, counselor, consultant, administrator, and evaluator" (p. 2).

Leddick and Bernard (1980) traced the development of counseling supervision from its formal inception associated with psychoanalysis, which was characterized by a polarized relationship between supervisor and supervisee. As counseling psychology evolved from the authoritativeness of the psychoanalytic approach to the more democratic or nondirective client-centered philosophy, the practice of supervision was similarly affected. Research on supervision in the 1960s and 1970s focused on the usefulness of different supervisor roles and on the supervisor/trainee relationship. However, results were largely contradictory and inconclusive. For example, Leddick and Bernard cited studies showing "that (a) modeling is the most effective form of supervision (Alssid & Hutchinson, 1977; Gulanick & Schmeck, 1977), (b) the didactic form is most effective (Hansen, Pound, & Petro, 1976), (c) personal growth provides better learning than didactic models (Selfridge, Weitz, Abromowitz, Calabria, Abromowitz, & Steger, 1975)" (p. 188). Behavioral approaches emphasizing learning theory were developed during this time as well. "By 1966, the field of supervision has three major models: dynamic, facilitative, and behavioral. With such rapid expansion, the field was chaotic, highly competitive, and polarized. The growth of the field of cognitive psychology provided an impetus for the collaboration of the three models" (Leddick & Bernard, 1980). These models, with skills training approaches, represent the major trends in the development of counseling supervision practice.

Bartlett (1983) suggested that a developmental-integrative approach, focused on determining the level of competency at which the supervisee is functioning and providing an optimal environment to facilitate growth,

represents a fourth major category of contemporary models. Holloway (1987) described the developmental approach as the application of descriptions of psychosocial development to counselor trainees' clinical learning. She categorized as developmental the models of individual supervision outlined in Littrell et al. (1979), Stoltenberg (1981), Loganbill et al. (1982), and Blocher (1983), noting that Hogan's (1964) developmental conception of supervision is referred to in many recent models. Summarizing the relationship of developmental theories to supervision, Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) noted, "Of particular relevance to the developmental model of supervision is the concept of stages of growth that build upon previous stages into increasingly complex structures. The counselor's adaptability is stimulated by the complexity of these structures. Growth from stage to stage is characterized by small areas of higher functioning within a given stage, which expands to other areas until functioning is predominantly at the next higher stage of development. Environmental effects in encouraging development are important, and organizing learning from simple to complex concepts is critical" (pp. 10-11).

Supervisory Models. As Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) pointed out, "It is necessary to remember that our models are only useful analogies or metaphors and not the real entity or process" (p. 137). Still, models are useful for illustrating concepts in ways that render them accessible for consideration and discussion. Leddick and Bernard (1980) outlined consistencies in the treatment of supervision across models. Among these are the following: (a) roles for the supervisor have been stressed rather than specific techniques or competencies, and (b) where either a teacher or therapist role is cited, that

stance is often presented as exclusive of other roles (Leddick & Bernard, 1980, p. 193). This focus on supervisor roles is a theme throughout models of supervision.

Hess (1980), summarizing supervision models, defined supervision as "essentially a dyadic human interaction with a focus on modifying the behavior of the supervisee, so he or she may provide better service to a third person (patient) ordinarily not present" (p. 16). He further defined it as "a quintessential interpersonal interaction with the general goal that one person, the supervisor, meets with another, the supervisee, in an effort to make the latter more effective in helping people in psychotherapy" (Hess, 1980, p. 25). Models, then are ways to understand how the relationship might be structured. Hess (1980) characterized the models according to supervisor role: lecturer, teacher, case review, collegial-peer, monitor, and therapist.

Hogan (1964) outlined the supervisory process in a four-stage model of development. In level one, the supervisee is dependent on the supervisor, who provides teaching, interpretation, support, and awareness training. In level two, the supervisee is faced with a dependency-autonomy conflict regarding the supervisory relationship. The supervisor maintains support and exemplification, adding ambivalence clarification to the supervision process. In level three, the supervisee has only conditional dependency, and supervision becomes more collegial. Confrontation is introduced, and sharing and exemplification also exist. Finally, the level four supervisee is considered a master counselor characterized by personal autonomy, insightful awareness, personal security, stable motivation, and an awareness of the need to confront

his or her own problems. The general movement of the supervisor, then, is from expert to consultant.

Littrell et al. (1979) described models in terms of the role relationship involved. They defined four primary models: "(a) counseling/therapeutic, which focuses on understanding and overcoming personal and emotional concerns that prevent effective counseling; (b) teaching, which emphasizes the conceptualization and implementation of effective treatment plans to meet clients' concerns; (c) consulting, which stresses meeting with a supervisor as a colleague about issues related to helping clients; and (d) self-supervising, which concentrates on incorporating the attitudes, skills, and knowledge of the previous models as a self-supervisor" (pp. 129-130). They further proposed a developmental framework which incorporates these models into a unified process, beginning, after the establishment of a working relationship and goal-setting, with the counseling/therapeutic and teaching models and moving through the consulting model, with the goal being the self-supervising model.

Stoltenberg's (1981) counselor complexity model focuses on the development of the supervisee. Drawing heavily on Hogan (1964), he described optimal environments at each level which constitute the conditions likely to result in continued development. For counselors at level one, characterized by dependency on the supervisor, the environment should encourage autonomy within a normative structure. The supervisor uses instruction, interpretation, support, awareness training, and exemplification. At level two, characterized by the dependency-autonomy conflict, the optimal environment is highly autonomous with low normative structure. The

supervisor uses support, ambivalence clarification, exemplification, and less instruction. Level three counselors, characterized by conditional dependency, respond best in an environment which provides autonomy with minimal structure. The supervisor treats the supervisee more as a peer; the interaction involves more sharing, mutual exemplification, and confrontation. Finally, at level four, the master counselor is one who can function adequately in most environments, with supervision becoming a collegial process if continued. Thus, within this model the characteristics of the teaching, counseling/therapeutic, and consulting roles can be identified.

Loganbill et al. (1982) described a conceptual model which suggests that there are four basic functions of the supervisory process. While the first focuses on the welfare of the client and maintains the highest priority, the other three focus on the supervisee. They involve "the enhancement of the supervisee's growth within each stage of development, . . . promoting the transition of the supervisee from stage to stage within the course of his or her development, and . . . the evaluative function of supervision" (Loganbill et al., 1982, p. 4). The model focuses primarily on the supervisee and the stages of development experienced in each of eight different content issues. The role of the supervisor is described in terms of the supervisory functions; these are implemented through the intervention strategies, which include facilitative, confrontive, conceptual, prescriptive, and catalytic interventions.

The emphasis on supervisee development seen in Stoltenberg (1981) and in Loganbill et al. (1982) is further reflected in Blocher's (1983) cognitive developmental approach to counseling supervision. For Blocher, supervision is "a specialized instructional process in which the supervisor attempts to

facilitate the growth of a counselor-in-preparation, using as the primary educational medium the student's interaction with real clients for whose welfare the student has some degree of professional, ethical, and moral responsibility. The primary focus of the supervisory process is, then, clearly on the growth of the counselor-in-preparation" (p. 27). Blocher discussed Hess's (1980) roles framework, concluding that the teacher role, while not a complete description, most accurately reflects supervision as a learning process.

Bartlett (1983) also based his discussion of types of supervision, roles, and functions on Hess's framework. Bartlett described the roles and functions as follow: (a) the scholar-teacher, who instructs in general areas of counseling; (b) the teacher, who instructs in specific counseling skills; (c) the master therapist, who instructs in specific counseling skills to meet client's needs; (d) the consultant, who processes and facilitates content of supervision sessions; (e) the evaluator, who maintains standards; and (f) the therapist, who performs therapy. The primary function of the supervisor, however, is that of integrator, requiring that the supervisor be adaptive to the various role options described.

Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) built their Integrated Developmental Model (IDM) on the work of Hogan (1964), Stoltenberg (1981), and Loganbill et al. (1982). Postulating three levels of supervisee development, they suggested that the supervisory environment for level one supervisees should provide structure to keep the anxiety of the counselor at manageable levels. The supervisor is viewed as an expert, and the supervisee is dependent on the supervisor. This subsides as supervisee confidence increases, and direction

and structure are reduced accordingly. At level two, the supervisor provides a more questioning environment, including additional confrontations. Using Loganbill et al.'s (1982) structure, conceptual and catalytic interventions are added to the facilitative ones. At level three, the supervisee develops more autonomy, and the supervisory environment is both flexible and person-oriented. Finally, at what Stoltenberg and Delworth term "Level 3 Integrated," the supervisee has become a master therapist, using, in their terminology, consultation rather than supervision when needed.

Holloway (1988) distinguished between models of counselor development and training models for supervision. "A counselor development model describes changes in the emerging counselor as they are actuated in the trainee. A training model, on the other hand, prescribes actions to be taken within the context of the supervisory relationship to facilitate change in the counselor trainee" (Holloway, 1988, p. 138). Questioning whether current models actually describe counselor development or whether they more accurately reflect training models, Holloway suggested that more research needs to be conducted to determine the extent to which changes observed in counselor trainees are attributable to the particular kinds of training they receive. Much of the current work in the field, including examinations of supervisory roles and styles, relates to models of training.

Supervision Research

Research conducted in the area of supervision has focused on several areas: testing specific supervision models, examining the developmental nature of the process, evaluating effectiveness, exploring the results of supervisory behaviors, and examining supervisory styles, supervisor roles,

and perceptions of the supervision process. Overall, results have supported the developmental nature of the supervision process and the conceptualization of the supervisory role as being comprised of three elements: teacher, counselor, and consultant.

Supervision as a Developmental Process. Reising and Daniels (1983) studied the construct validity and developmental structure of Hogan's (1964) developmental supervision model. The Counselor Development Questionnaire (CDQ), comprised of statements trainees might make about themselves and statements they might make about their needs for supervision, was administered to 141 counseling psychology practicum students, interns, and professional staff. Factors emerging from the analysis were grouped as trainee factors or supervisory needs factors. Trainee factors included anxiety/doubt, independence, commitment ambivalence, method, self-understanding, work validation, criticism readiness, and supervision comfort. Supervisory needs factors included emotional consultation, skills training, respectful confrontation, reciprocal confrontation, benign support, behavioral monitoring, and peer consultation. The authors concluded that Hogan's model of counselor development was supported but that "the simple stage model is inadequate to describe the complex structure of issues subsumed within Hogan's model. Counselor development appears to be a complex rather than a simple process" (Reising & Daniels, 1983, p. 239).

Stoltenberg's counselor complexity model has been generally supported in several studies. McNeill et al. (1985) examined trainees' perceptions of their counseling and supervision behaviors as measured by a self-report instrument, the Supervisee Levels Questionnaire (SLQ). The 91 trainees were

categorized into levels according to amount of education, counseling experience, and amount of supervision received. Their hypothesis was that as experiential levels increased, the trainee would report characteristics associated with higher stages of counselor development. Significant differences were found for each SLQ subscale, Self-Awareness, Dependency-Autonomy, and Theory/Skills Acquisition. Thus, the results provide support for Stoltenberg's constructs. Trainees appeared to progress through a continuous developmental sequence, moving from a dependent to a more autonomous role as a counselor and having a decreased need for external direction in counseling and supervision. Self-confidence and ability to critique one's own skills increased, and application of theory and skills became easier. This development appeared to occur along with increased counseling experience, education, and supervision. McNeill et al. (1985) also noted that the results are consistent with those reported by Reising and Daniels (1983). They concluded that "the empirical evidence appears to be mounting toward the validation and utility of a developmental approach to conceptualizing counselor training and supervision" (McNeill et al., 1985, p. 633).

Krause and Allen (1988) used Stoltenberg's (1981) model in an examination of perceptions of counselor supervision from the perspectives of supervisors and supervisees. Questionnaires comprised of items related to demographic characteristics, supervisory behaviors, satisfaction and personal impact of supervision, and supervisee characteristics were completed by 87 supervisors and 77 supervisees. Items were clustered through factor analysis, and the resultant clusters were teacher, counselor, respectful sharing,

satisfied colleague, dynamic counselor, perceived impact, laissez-faire, and preparation. Testing the hypothesis that supervisors would report varying supervisory behavior according to the developmental level of supervisees, multivariate analyses were conducted on supervisors' questionnaires. Three clusters achieved significance for discriminations in responding for the four developmental levels: counselor, satisfied colleague, and perceived impact. Further analysis indicated that structuring and directing behaviors decreased as supervisees were perceived to be at higher developmental levels. Collegial and consultative relationships were reported with increasing frequency as supervisees advanced in development. These results are consistent with Stoltenberg's (1981) description of optimal supervision environments for supervisees at the four developmental levels. Analysis of the supervisees' questionnaires resulted in five clusters: supervisor as mentor, supervisor as counselor, directive supervisor, supervisor as dynamic counselor, and process-centered supervision. None of the clusters reached significance with regard to supervisees' self-reported level of development, suggesting that supervisees did not perceive the variation in behavior that their supervisors indicated they made with supervisees of different developmental levels.

Further analysis examined the relationship between satisfaction and supervisory behavior (Krause & Allen, 1988). Results suggested that supervisees prefer relationships with supervisors in which supervisors are seen as providing a relatively collegial, self-reflexive, mutually respectful interaction, with characteristics of a counseling relationship (e.g., focus on furthering supervisee self-understanding and personal development). The authors concluded that the results of the study provide partial support for the

counselor complexity model. Supervisors rated their supervision behaviors in a manner consistent with the developmental aspect of the model. Supervisees, however, perceived no such differences. The authors suggested that "greater satisfaction with supervision is related more to supervisors' general style, theory, and assumptions than to particular structural aspects of supervision. . . our results provide support for the argument that the general assumptive sets and attitudinal stances of supervisors outweigh the impact of specific supervision structure, format, and technique" (Krause & Allen, 1988, p. 80).

Friedlander and Snyder (1983) examined trainees' expectations for the supervisory process and the relative contributions of level of experience and individual differences in predicting such expectations. Basing their study primarily on Stoltenberg's (1981) model, the authors represented trainee's confidence in mastering important counseling skills through a measure of self-efficacy. They further hypothesized that Stoltenberg's levels of structure and instruction could be integrated with social influence theory, with Stage One supervisors relying on legitimate power, or expertness, and Stage Four supervisors using referent power (attractiveness). "Thus, beginners and less self-efficacious trainees might expect supervisors to be *evaluative experts*, while more advanced, confident trainees would look for *attractive supporters*" (Friedlander & Snyder, 1983, p. 343). Eighty-two volunteer participants representing three levels of counseling experience completed four instruments: a Self-Efficacy Inventory, a Training Experiences Questionnaire, the Supervisor Rating Form, and the Supervisor Questionnaire. Results indicated that trainees' expectations for supervision were significantly predicted from self-efficacy and outcome expectancies but not level of

experience. "Specifically, more confident trainees and those with higher expectations for supervision to affect their clients and themselves indicated expecting more from supervisors in every respect. More self-efficacious trainees had higher expectations for expertness and evaluation. Participants generally expected attractive, trustworthy, evaluative supervisors to have a particular impact on their personal development, but the expected impact on actual counseling behavior was more closely linked with expecting a supportive supervisory relationship" (Friedlander & Snyder, 1983, pp. 346-347). Further, trainees across experience levels expected supervisors to be more trustworthy than expert, more expert than attractive, and more evaluative than supportive.

In a series of three studies, Heppner and Roehlke (1984) examined differences across counselor trainee levels with regard to the interpersonal influence process between supervisor and trainee, trainees' perceptions of supervisor behaviors contributing to supervisory effectiveness, and trainees' perceptions of the most important or critical incidents that occur within supervision. Results supported a developmental model of supervision. Across three trainee levels, variables related to the interpersonal influence process differed, different supervisory behaviors appeared to be perceived as effective at different levels, supervisees' ratings of the effectiveness of specific supervisory behaviors differed, and different critical incidents were reported. Specifically, the authors reported that trainee perceptions of supervisor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness were related to trainee ratings of supervisory impact for trainees at the lower levels, rather than to supervisory ratings of impact. Further, beginning counselors in the second

study rated supervision as better when supervisors provided support as well as skill training. Trainee ratings of effective supervision were consistently related to a supportive supervisory relationship. Finally, results regarding the reporting of critical incidents support a developmental progression from "support/awareness/enhancement issues to more self-disclosing, personally threatening types of issues" (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984, p. 87).

Using the counselor complexity model, Miars, Tracey, Ray, Cornfeld, O'Farrell, and Gelso (1983) studied variation in supervision process across trainee experience levels to determine whether practicing supervisors perceived themselves varying their supervision behaviors across trainee experience levels. A Level of Supervision Survey was completed by 37 experienced Ph.D.-level supervisors. Results showed that supervisors significantly varied supervision between the second and third of four levels studied, but not at the other levels, suggesting the use of two separate supervision environments, one for beginning and one for advanced trainees. The dimensions of structure, directiveness, instruction, and degree of collegiality were the central features that supervisors reported would vary with trainee level.

Support for a developmental model was also found by Rabinowitz, Heppner, and Roehlke (1986) in a study of process and outcome variables of supervision over time. Forty-five pairs of supervisors and supervisees completed a supervision checklist of critical incidents and important supervisory interventions weekly and at the end of the semester. Results indicated that the most important supervision issues and interventions, regardless of experience level, were those related to supervisory support,

treatment planning, and seeking advice and direction from the supervisor. Supervisees at lower experience levels rated "getting support from my supervisor" and the intervention "supporting, reassuring, nurturing" as more important than did advanced supervisees. Additionally, more advanced supervisees reported being more open to examining personal issues in supervision. The authors suggested that "the patterns seemed to portray for all trainee groups the importance of establishing a working relationship, followed by a movement from dependency toward autonomy"(Rabinowitz et al., 1986, p. 299), supporting a developmental progression.

Support for conceptualization of supervision as a developmental process was also indicated by Cross and Brown's (1983) analysis of supervisor behaviors. Analysis of frequency of supervisor behaviors as judged by 51 supervisees revealed four factors: evaluative support, time/structure, method of supervision, and rapport. Method of supervision was found to be statistically significant with beginning trainees emphasizing more the method and tasks of supervision. Also, experienced supervisees reported a less structured interaction with supervisors that was more supportive and more of a relationship.

Collectively, these studies support the idea that the supervision process is one that varies with the experience level of the supervisee. Supervision with beginning supervisees is characterized by more structure and more emphasis on skills and tasks, elements of the teaching role. Supervision with advanced supervisees, in contrast, is characterized by more emphasis on personal characteristics of the supervisee, reflecting a counseling approach, and a more collegial, or consultative, relationship.

Effectiveness of Supervision. Kaplan (1983) summarized practicum supervision research conducted from 1975 to 1982. Articles were grouped in two categories: maximizing effectiveness and focusing on specific techniques. Nearly 75% of the 42 articles included in the study were concerned with effectiveness of the process. Overall, practicum supervision was found to be worthwhile and beneficial. However, focusing on personality characteristics or value systems of those involved produced mixed results in predicting effectiveness. Examination of specific techniques indicated positive outcomes resulting from the use of microtraining, dual supervision, peer supervision, modeling, and Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR).

Worthington and Roehlke (1979) examined effective supervision as it is related to specific supervisor behaviors. Sixteen supervisors and 31 beginning practicum counselors rated the importance to good supervision of 42 supervisor behaviors. Supervisors considered behaviors concerning feedback as being among the most important. Also rated highly by supervisors was being sensitive to the difference between supervisee descriptions of his or her actions and how the supervisee actually behaves, as well as confronting appropriately. Helping supervisees develop self-confidence as counselors and assess their own strengths also were identified as important for effective supervision. Supervisees, in contrast, identified several behaviors as being more effective than did the supervisors. These included the supervisor modeling task-oriented behaviors during supervisory sessions, sharing his or her own counseling experiences, providing assessment and treatment literature, and providing initial structure. Worthington and Roehlke (1979) suggested that beginning counselors "seemed

to rate supervision as better when their supervisors more directly *taught* them how to counsel within a supportive relationship and then encouraged them to try out the newly learned counseling skills" (p. 70).

Supervisory Behaviors. Heppner and Handley (1982) also examined supervisory behaviors and their relation to perceived supervisor expertness, attractiveness, or trustworthiness. Twenty supervisor-supervisee pairs completed the Counselor Rating Form and the Supervisor Questionnaire. Results suggested that when supervisees, particularly those at the beginning level, perceived supervisors as engaging frequently in evaluative behaviors, they also tended to perceive the supervisor as more expert, attractive, and trustworthy. Thus, beginning level supervisees may tend to view evaluative supervisory behaviors as being more consistent with effective supervisors.

Worthington and Stern (1985) considered structural and behavioral effects on supervisory relationships. Supervisees in 95 supervisor-supervisee pairs rated the supervisory relationship as most influenced by activity of the supervisor, goal orientation, and supportive behaviors. Further, supervisees' evaluations of the benefit of supervision and competence of their supervisors depended on three clusters of supervisor behaviors: encouraging independence while giving assistance, dealing with supervisee defensiveness, and supervisor openness.

Holloway and Wolleat (1981) used an interactional analysis system that categorizes supervisor behaviors on both cognitive and affective dimensions of the supervisor and supervisee to examine style differences in beginning supervisors. Twenty-four supervision interviews were videotaped and analyzed to determine the amount of variance in supervisory interaction

behaviors and the stability of interactional behaviors of individual supervisors across interviews with two different supervisees. While the study is limited by the use of only two sessions per supervisor, results indicated that supervisor behaviors tend to vary with individual supervisor and are differentially stable across interviews. Supervisors appeared to have individual style differences that were consistent across interviews with different supervisees.

Supervisory Styles. Handley (1982) examined the relationship between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles and the supervision process. Thirty-three supervisor-supervisee pairs completed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, the Counselor Evaluation and Rating Scale, and individual Likert scales of satisfaction. Cognitive style similarity between supervisors and supervisees on specific MBTI scales (Sensing/Intuition) was found to be related to mutual perceptions of their interpersonal relationships. Also, the results suggest that supervisees' scores on the Sensing/Intuition dimension were related to supervisors' perceptions of the interpersonal nature of their relationship, supervisors' satisfaction with supervisees' performance, and supervisors' evaluation of supervisees. This relationship of supervisee scores and supervisor perceptions and evaluation appears to support the assumptions of a developmental approach to supervision. Overall, the findings suggest that an intuitive cognitive style is one that supervisors value and that the interpersonal supervisory relationship may be enhanced when there is similarity with regard to style in this area.

Carey and Williams (1986), however, also explored cognitive style in supervision, and their results did not support those of Handley (1982). The study involved 18 supervisors and 46 supervisees who completed the MBTI and the Counselor Evaluation Rating Scale or the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory after at least six supervision sessions. Results did not demonstrate a strong relationship between cognitive style of supervisees and supervision process or outcome measures.

Supervisor Roles. Bernard (1979) outlined a model for identification and training of supervision skills and described the roles in which the skills are demonstrated. She defined the supervisor role as "the approach the supervisor uses with the didactic material being presented to the counselor" (p. 63). According to Bernard, three basic roles have been identified for supervisors working with counselors in training: the teacher-student approach, the counselor-client approach, and the consultant approach.

Defined simply, the three roles might be viewed in terms of their goals. The supervisor as teacher focuses on some knowledge or expertise that he or she wishes to transmit to the counselor. The supervisor as counselor places priority on the counselor's personal needs, with the belief that this focus will allow the counselor to overcome the nervousness or self-doubt that impedes natural development. The supervisor as consultant focuses on a relationship with the counselor that is explorative in nature and assumes that the counselor has the ability to express his or her supervision needs. (Bernard, 1979, p. 64).

Bernard suggested that supervisors should become comfortable with each of the roles and that the role for a particular supervision contact should be chosen deliberately by the supervisor. Such choice should be based on a sound rationale rather than on personal preference and should be focused on addressing the needs of the supervisee. The roles interact with the counseling functions of process, conceptualization, and personalization to create nine potential choice points for the supervisor to consider. Bernard asserted that "the supervisor needs (a) a range of role alternatives, (b) a framework in which to fit counseling functions, and (c) guidelines for determining supervision goals and approaches" (p. 67).

The three roles proposed by Bernard (1979) were examined by Stenack and Dye (1982) to determine whether a clear distinction existed among them. Behavioral descriptions of 60 supervisor activities were rated by 36 supervisors according to appropriateness for each of the three supervision roles. Results indicated a relatively clear distinction between the teacher and counselor roles, with the consultant role overlapping the others, particularly the teacher role. As a result of the analyses, the authors developed role descriptions based on the supervisor behaviors (see Appendix A). Goodyear, Abadie, and Efros (1984) further examined these roles in a study of differential perception of supervision by Ekstein, Ellis, Polster, and Rogers. Results supported the utility of Bernard's (1979) model in differentiating supervisory approaches, particularly the teacher and counselor roles.

Perceptions of Supervision. Friedlander and Ward (1984) explored the distinctive dimensions of the supervisory relationship through the development and administration of the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI).

Their goal was "to identify empirically the dimensions of supervisory style that are perceived as salient both by highly experienced supervisors with diverse orientations and by supervisees at different levels of training in a variety of settings" (pp. 541-542). In a series of analyses, they determined that three factors consistently emerged from the perceptions of heterogeneous samples of supervisors and supervisees. According to Friedlander and Ward, these factors, Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive, and Task Oriented, parallel the consultant, counselor, and teacher roles described by Bernard (1979) and by Stenack and Dye (1982). The SSI factor Attractive reflects a collegial dimension of supervision, the factor Interpersonally Sensitive indicates a relationship-oriented approach, and the factor Task Oriented reflects a content-focused style. Friedlander and Ward concluded from their research that supervisory style is multidimensional and that a particular supervisor's style is best represented as a profile, with varying degrees of attractiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, and task orientation.

Bernard's model was also generally supported by studies of the dimensionality of supervisor roles as perceived by supervisors (Ellis & Dell, 1986). Using a multidimensional scaling (MDS) research design, the authors concluded that the cognitive map used by supervisors to think about supervision can be represented in three dimensions. "The first of these dimensions contrasts the supervisory functions of process versus conceptualization as indexed by behavioral versus nonbehavioral nature of the functions. The second dimension contrasts the supervisor roles of consultant with the combined roles of teacher and counselor. Important to decisions about this dimension are issues of who structures the interaction and

who has power in it. The third dimension cuts across the role-function classification to contrast the function of personalization with the role of teacher. This dimension is perhaps best understood by its indicators, cognitive versus emotional and nonsupportive versus supportive" (Ellis & Dell, 1986, p. 287). The authors noted that the first dimension is similar to the supervisory needs factors of skills training and behavioral monitoring obtained by Reising and Daniels (1983). The second dimension is similar to Reising and Daniels' supervisory needs factors of peer consultation, reciprocal confrontation, mutuality, and skills training, as well as to the Task Oriented scale of the SSI (Friedlander & Ward, 1984). The third dimension corresponds to the Attractive scale of the SSI and to Reising and Daniels' factors of emotional consultation and benign support.

Summary

The literature supports the conceptualization of supervision as a developmental process and the description of the primary supervisory roles as teacher, counselor, and consultant. Several supervisory models suggest that appropriate and effective use of these roles varies with the developmental level of the supervisee. Current student development practice in higher education is consistent with a developmental focus for supervision. Paraprofessionals in higher education have complex supervisory needs. They are employees, and as such they need to acquire the skills required to accomplish successfully the tasks that comprise their jobs. They are also students, and student development concepts suggest that they therefore should be treated differently from employees in other settings. Developmental supervision, including the use of different supervisory roles with supervisees

at different developmental levels, reflects such a concern with student development. Very little has been written, however, about the nature of the supervisory process which is unique to paraprofessionals in student development in higher education. The purpose of this study, then, was to investigate the perceptions of RA supervisors regarding the supervision process with residence hall staff members. Are their perceptions consistent with perceptions of the process by supervisors in other human service fields? Specifically, how do those in higher education see the supervision process with regard to the supervisory roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant?

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

A review of the related literature supports the conceptualization of the counseling supervision process as comprising the roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant (Bernard, 1979; Ellis & Dell, 1986; Friedlander & Ward, 1984; Goodyear et al., 1984; Stenack & Dye, 1982). Similar support is lacking, however, for such a conceptualization of the supervision process as it occurs with resident assistant paraprofessionals in higher education. This chapter presents the design and methodology for the study. The discussion includes research hypotheses, description of instruments and participants, overview of procedures, and description of statistical procedures used in data analysis.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. The factor structure underlying RA supervisor perceptions of supervisory roles, as measured by the Supervisory Styles Inventory, is similar to the factor structure underlying the perceptions of counselor supervisors.
2. Supervisor performance on the Task Oriented (Teaching) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory can be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors including gender, graduate credit hours, field of study, type of residence position (i.e., full-time or part-time), experience in residence life, supervisory training, frequency of providing supervision, and number of RAs supervised.

3. Supervisor performance on the Interpersonally Sensitive (Counseling) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory can be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors including gender, graduate credit hours, field of study, type of residence position (i.e., full-time or part-time), experience in residence life, supervisory training, frequency of providing supervision, and number of RAs supervised.
4. Supervisor performance on the Attractive (Consulting) scale of the Supervisory Styles Inventory can be explained by recourse to demographic characteristics and experiential factors including gender, graduate credit hours, field of study, type of residence position (i.e., full-time or part-time), experience in residence life, supervisory training, frequency of providing supervision, and number of RAs supervised.
5. The responses on the Supervisory Styles Inventory of supervisors who describe their training program as oriented toward counseling are higher on the Interpersonally Sensitive scale and lower on the Task Oriented scale than the responses of supervisors who describe their training program as oriented toward administration.
6. The responses on the Supervisory Styles Inventory of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style are congruent with the perceptions of their RAs will be the same as the responses of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style are discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs.

Instruments

Directors of Residence Life at participating institutions completed an institutional questionnaire. Supervisors and RAs completed a demographic and experiential questionnaire and the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI; Friedlander & Ward, 1984).

Institutional Questionnaire

The institutional questionnaire (see Appendix B) was designed to provide descriptive information about participating universities and residence life programs and to provide a basis on which to assess comparability of institutions. Selection of variables was based on Winston and Ender's (1988) study of use of student paraprofessionals in divisions of college student affairs, factors useful in describing characteristics of the institutions, and standards for comprehensive residence life programs (CAS, 1986).

Demographic and Experiential Questionnaire

Demographic and experiential questions for supervisors (see Appendix D) included gender, age, highest degree, graduate credit hours accumulated, field of study, program orientation (for those in education), type of residence life position (i.e., full-time or part-time), type of residence (i.e., co-ed, all female, or all male), classification of residents (i.e., all freshmen, all upperclass students, or mixed freshmen and upperclass students), experience in residence life, years between college graduation and beginning work in residence life, training in supervision, frequency of providing supervision, number of RAs supervised, and satisfaction with current supervisory skills. These variables were selected from two sources: a survey of relevant literature and identification of participant characteristics which help to describe the group

and which might therefore be expected to be related to differences. Amount of education (McNeill et al., 1985), amount of experience (Friedlander & Snyder, 1983; McNeill et al., 1985), and satisfaction (Krause & Allen, 1988) emerged from the literature as factors related to differences in supervisory approach. Variables related to training and frequency of supervision were identified by Winston and Ender (1988) as important in consideration of use of student paraprofessionals. Additional variables, such as degree, credit hours, field of study, and type of residence position, were selected for their ability to describe supervisor characteristics which were expected to influence results.

Demographic questions for RAs (see Appendix E) included gender, age, year in school, semesters in current position, and type of residence (i.e., co-ed, all female, or all male). These also were chosen for their ability to describe RA characteristics.

Supervisory Styles Inventory

The Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI; Friedlander & Ward, 1984) is a 33 item instrument developed to assess supervisor and trainee perceptions of the salient and distinctive dimensions of supervisory style. It was developed to be relevant to differing forms of supervision in a variety of settings (Friedlander & Ward, 1984), rather than being narrowly focused on factors specific to counseling supervision. The inventory, in parallel versions for supervisors and trainees, asks respondents to rate the supervisor on each of 33 one-word descriptors (e.g., goal-oriented) using a seven point Likert scale ranging from "not very" (1) to "very" (7). It measures the degree to which a supervisor or trainee perceives in the supervisor behaviors which are representative of each of three dimensions of supervisory style: Attractive, Interpersonally

Sensitive, and Task-Oriented. Of the 33 adjectives, 25 are scorable, with seven items on the Attractive scale, seven on the Interpersonally Sensitive scale, and 10 on the Task-Oriented scale. Raw scores on the designated items for each scale are totalled, and the sums are divided by the number of items to obtain a mean scale index. The scale index ranges from 1 to 7, with a higher mean score indicating greater perceived emphasis of the particular style (Efstation, Patton, & Kardash, 1990; Friedlander & Ward, 1984). For this study, the directions were modified to reflect the setting (e.g., "Please indicate. . . your perception of your style as a supervisor of resident assistants.").

To develop the SSI, Friedlander and Ward (1984) generated a pool of 124 items from content analyses of transcribed interviews with experienced supervisors with a variety of professional backgrounds. The items represented supervisory behaviors in the form of one-word adjectives. The list was revised to include only desirable descriptors that pertained especially to supervision. Some items were then eliminated based on a matrix of the same supervisors' clustering of items into supervisory styles. The remaining items were rated by (a) supervisors who were directors of psychology internship training programs and by (b) practicum and internship trainees. Results were subjected to iterative principal components factor analysis, and three factors were retained in each analysis. These factors accounted for 39% of the variance in the supervisors' ratings and 53% of the variance in the trainees' ratings. For both, Factor 1 represented over half of the known variance. Descriptors loading highly on this factor (e.g., warm, supportive, flexible) reflected a collegial dimension of supervision, and the authors designated it Attractive. Items loading highly on Factor 2 (e.g., therapeutic, perceptive,

committed) suggested a relationship-oriented supervision style. This factor was designated Interpersonally Sensitive. Finally, adjectives loading highly on Factor 3 (e.g., goal-oriented, practical, structured) reflected a content-focused approach, and the factor was designated Task-Oriented. The final scales were obtained by selecting the 25 items with loadings $\geq .35$ on the same factor in both analyses (supervisor and trainee) and eliminating items with similar loadings on more than one factor in both analyses and those with loadings consistently less than .35.

Reliability was established using Cronbach's alpha to estimate internal consistency of each of the three scales separately and combined (Friedlander & Ward, 1984). For both versions of the SSI, alphas ranged from .76 to .93. Item-scale correlations ranged from .70 to .88 for the Attractive scale, from .51 to .82 for the Interpersonally Sensitive scale, and from .38 to .76 for the Task-Oriented scale. Test-retest reliabilities of the ratings of master's level trainees (N=32) were .92 for the combined scales, .94 for the Attractive scale, .91 for the Interpersonally Sensitive scale, and .78 for the Task-Oriented scale.

Convergent validity was established through the use of Stenack and Dye's (1982) variables related to supervisory role behavior. Intercorrelations of doctoral practicum students' ratings on the SSI with the three composite variables from Stenack and Dye's teacher, counselor, and consultant items showed moderate to high relationships ($ps < .001$) with the exception of the correlation of the Task-Oriented scale and the counselor variable ($r=.21$). Friedlander and Ward (1984) suggested that the results demonstrate convergent validity because of the strong relationships between the

empirically derived SSI scales and Stenack and Dye's (1982) measure of supervisory role behavior.

Friedlander and Ward (1984) also examined the discriminant utility of the scales by comparing 138 supervisors' SSI self-ratings by theoretical orientation (psychodynamic versus cognitive-behavioral). Results indicated significantly higher Interpersonally Sensitive self-ratings by the psychodynamic group ($F=3.82$, $p < .05$) and significantly higher Task-Oriented ratings by the cognitive-behavioral group ($F=6.93$, $p < .01$). There were no significant differences for the Attractive scale. These results support the use of the instrument to discriminate among supervisors with different theoretical orientations to the supervision process.

Additional cross validation studies were conducted to replicate the factor structure and reliability of the SSI on new samples of supervisors and trainees (Friedlander & Ward, 1984). Using the same analytical methods and the same decision rules as in the previous studies, the three original factors again emerged. The reliability of the instrument was also supported. Cronbach's alpha showed internal consistency measures ranging from .70 to .84 for the supervisor version and from .84 to .89 for the trainee version. The three-factor model was also replicated by Efstation et al. (1990) in a study involving 185 supervisors and 178 trainees.

Participants

Participants for this study were direct supervisors of resident assistants and a random sample of resident assistants at public, four-year postsecondary educational institutions in North Carolina. Nine universities, including two research institutions, one doctoral-granting institution, and six

comprehensive institutions, were identified as comprising the most homogeneous group of public universities in the state. All nine institutions agreed to participate. Participants included all those residence staff members who were identified by the Director of Residence Life (or comparable staff member) as having direct supervisory responsibility for resident assistants. Additionally, the study included five resident assistants from each supervisor's staff, chosen by random sampling stratified by supervisor as described below.

Institutions

Responses were received from the following eight institutions: Appalachian State University, East Carolina University, North Carolina State University, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina at Charlotte, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, University of North Carolina at Wilmington, and Western Carolina University. Descriptive information on the institutions is reported in Table 1.

The amount of pre-service training provided for those staff members who directly supervise resident assistants ranged from less than 5 hours (n=1) to more than 50 hours, with the largest number of institutions (n=4) reporting training of more than 50 hours. The amount of pre-service training provided for new resident assistants ranged from 16 to 35 hours (n=3) to more than 50 hours (n=2). The amount of in-service training provided each semester for staff members who directly supervise RAs ranged from less than 5 hours (n=2) to 36-50 hours (n=1), with the largest number of institutions reporting 6 to 15 hours of in-service training per semester (n=3). The amount of in-service training provided for RAs each semester ranged from less than 5 hours (n=1) to 16 to 35 hours (n=3), with most institutions (n=5) providing 6 to 15 hours of in-service training for RAs.

Table 1

Description of the Eight Participating Institutions

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|
| Enrollment | | |
| 5000-9999 | 2 | 25.0 |
| 10,000-14,999 | 3 | 37.5 |
| 15,000-19,999 | 1 | 12.5 |
| 20,000 or more | 2 | 25.0 |
| Resident population | | |
| 1,500-2,999 | 2 | 25.0 |
| 3,000-4,499 | 3 | 37.5 |
| 4,500-5,999 | 1 | 12.5 |
| 6,000-7,499 | 2 | 25.0 |
| Pre-service training: supervisors | | |
| less than 5 hours | 1 | 12.5 |
| 6-15 hours | 1 | 12.5 |
| 16-35 hours | 2 | 25.0 |
| 36-50 hours | 0 | 0.0 |
| more than 50 hours | 4 | 50.0 |
| Pre-service training: RAs | | |
| 16-35 hours | 3 | 37.5 |
| 36-50 hours | 3 | 37.5 |
| more than 50 hours | 2 | 25.0 |
| In-service training: supervisors | | |
| less than 5 hours | 2 | 25.0 |
| 6-15 hours | 3 | 37.5 |
| 16-35 hours | 2 | 25.0 |
| 36-50 hours | 1 | 12.5 |

(table continues)

Table 1, continued

Description of the Eight Participating Institutions

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|
| In-service training: RAs | | |
| less than 5 hours | 1 | 12.5 |
| 6-15 hours | 5 | 62.5 |
| 16-35 hours | 2 | 25.0 |
| Frequency of supervision | | |
| weekly | 2 | 25.0 |
| biweekly | 3 | 37.5 |
| monthly | 2 | 25.0 |
| informal/ as needed | 1 | 12.5 |
| Goals and objectives | | |
| individual & group educational & developmental opportunities | 8 | 100.0 |
| residential facilities | 8 | 100.0 |
| management functions | 8 | 100.0 |
| food services, where applicable | 2 | 25.0 |

Directors of residence life reported frequencies of meeting with individual RA supervisors for the purpose of supervision that ranged from weekly (n=2) to biweekly (n=3) and monthly (n=2), with 1 institution reporting supervision occurring on an "informal/as needed" basis.

To assess comparability of residence life programs across institutions, directors of residence life were asked to identify goals and objectives of the residence life program at their institutions (see Appendix B). The goals and objectives listed were adapted from the Program Standards for Housing and

Residential Life of the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Student Development Programs (CAS, 1986). All institutions reported that the three primary standards were included in the goals and objectives of their residence life programs. Two institutions also indicated that the standard related to food services was included in their goals and objectives.

Supervisors

The nine institutions which agreed to participate employed a total of 100 supervisors during the semester in which the study was conducted. From the eight institutions that responded, supervisor response rate was 88% (n=86), with individual campus response rates ranging from 75% to 100%. Descriptive information concerning the supervisors is reported in Table 2. Of the 86 supervisors in the study, a majority was female (54.7%), and nearly half of the group was between the ages of 25 and 29 (48.2%). Most held master's degrees (52.9%), and half of the group reported having more than 40 graduate credit hours (50%). Most of the supervisors (59.3%) reported that their graduate field of study was education. Of those who studied education, the largest proportion (43.9%) characterized their training program as oriented primarily toward counseling.

More than half of the group (56%) reported having full-time residence life positions. Most of the supervisors (65.9%) worked in co-ed residence halls or areas, and most supervisors (85.7%) work with mixed freshmen and upperclass residents.

The largest proportion of the supervisors (41.4%) have worked in residence life for 3 to 5 years and most of the group (58.8%) worked less than 1 year or not at all after college before beginning work in residence life.

Table 2
Description of the 86 Supervisors

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------------|-----------|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Gender | | | | |
| female | 47 | 54.7 | 47 | 54.7 |
| male | 39 | 45.3 | 86 | 100.0 |
| Age | | | | |
| 20-24 | 30 | 35.3 | 30 | 35.3 |
| 25-29 | 41 | 48.2 | 71 | 83.5 |
| 30-34 | 8 | 9.4 | 79 | 92.9 |
| 35-39 | 4 | 4.7 | 83 | 97.6 |
| 40 or older | 2 | 2.4 | 85 | 100.0 |
| Highest degree | | | | |
| no degree | 8 | 9.4 | 8 | 9.4 |
| bachelor's | 32 | 37.6 | 40 | 47.1 |
| master's | 45 | 52.9 | 85 | 100.0 |
| Graduate credit hours | | | | |
| none | 8 | 9.3 | 8 | 9.3 |
| 1-9 | 6 | 7.0 | 14 | 16.3 |
| 10-19 | 8 | 9.3 | 22 | 25.6 |
| 20-29 | 7 | 8.1 | 29 | 33.7 |
| 30-39 | 14 | 16.3 | 43 | 50.0 |
| 40-49 | 23 | 26.7 | 66 | 76.7 |
| 50 or more | 20 | 23.3 | 86 | 100.0 |

(table continues)

Table 2, continued
Description of the 86 Supervisors

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Field of study | | | | |
| business/econ. | 9 | 10.5 | 9 | 10.5 |
| education | 51 | 59.3 | 60 | 69.8 |
| fine arts | 1 | 1.2 | 61 | 70.9 |
| humanities/lib.arts | 6 | 7.0 | 67 | 77.9 |
| math/phys.sciences | 1 | 1.2 | 68 | 79.1 |
| social sciences | 5 | 5.8 | 73 | 84.9 |
| other | 13 | 15.1 | 86 | 100.0 |
| Program orientation | | | | |
| administration | 22 | 26.8 | 22 | 26.8 |
| counseling | 36 | 43.9 | 58 | 70.7 |
| teaching | 1 | 1.2 | 59 | 72.0 |
| not education | 23 | 28.0 | 82 | 100.0 |
| Position type | | | | |
| full-time | 47 | 56.0 | 47 | 56.0 |
| part-time | 37 | 44.0 | 84 | 100.0 |
| Residence type | | | | |
| co-ed | 56 | 65.9 | 56 | 65.9 |
| all female | 20 | 23.5 | 76 | 89.4 |
| all male | 9 | 10.6 | 85 | 100.0 |
| Residents | | | | |
| all freshmen | 3 | 4.3 | 3 | 4.3 |
| all upperclass | 7 | 10.0 | 10 | 14.3 |
| mixed | 60 | 85.7 | 70 | 100.0 |

(table continues)

Table 2, continued
Description of the 86 Supervisors

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Experience | | | | |
| less than 1 year | 12 | 17.1 | 12 | 17.1 |
| 1-2 years | 21 | 30.0 | 33 | 47.1 |
| 3-5 years | 29 | 41.4 | 62 | 88.6 |
| 6-10 years | 6 | 8.6 | 68 | 97.1 |
| more than 10 years | 2 | 2.9 | 70 | 100.0 |
| Work before residence life | | | | |
| <1 year/not at all | 40 | 58.8 | 40 | 58.8 |
| 1-2 years | 17 | 25.0 | 57 | 83.8 |
| 3-5 years | 10 | 14.7 | 67 | 98.5 |
| 6-10 years | 1 | 1.5 | 68 | 100.0 |
| more than 10 years | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Training | | | | |
| 0-4 hours | 19 | 27.1 | 19 | 27.1 |
| 5-8 hours | 10 | 14.3 | 29 | 41.4 |
| 9-12 hours | 8 | 11.4 | 37 | 52.9 |
| 13-16 hours | 8 | 11.4 | 45 | 64.3 |
| 17-20 hours | 5 | 7.1 | 50 | 71.4 |
| 21-24 hours | 3 | 4.3 | 53 | 75.7 |
| more than 24 hours | 17 | 24.3 | 70 | 100.0 |
| Supervision frequency | | | | |
| daily | 4 | 5.8 | 4 | 5.8 |
| weekly | 23 | 33.3 | 27 | 39.1 |
| biweekly | 20 | 29.0 | 47 | 68.1 |
| monthly | 8 | 11.6 | 55 | 79.7 |
| once per term | -- | -- | -- | 79.7 |
| informal/as needed | 14 | 20.3 | 69 | 100.0 |

(table continues)

Table 2, continued
Description of the 86 Supervisors

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|----------------------|--------------------|
| RAs--staff size | | | | |
| 5 or fewer | 15 | 21.4 | 15 | 21.4 |
| 6-9 | 26 | 37.1 | 41 | 58.6 |
| 10-14 | 16 | 22.9 | 57 | 81.4 |
| 15-19 | 6 | 8.6 | 63 | 90.0 |
| 20-24 | 4 | 5.7 | 67 | 95.7 |
| 25-29 | 2 | 2.9 | 69 | 98.6 |
| 30 or more | 1 | 1.4 | 70 | 100.0 |
| Satisfaction | | | | |
| 1 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2 | 2 | 2.9 | 2 | 2.9 |
| 3 | 3 | 4.3 | 5 | 7.1 |
| 4 | 15 | 21.4 | 20 | 28.6 |
| 5 | 25 | 35.7 | 45 | 64.3 |
| 6 | 22 | 31.4 | 67 | 95.7 |
| 7 | 3 | 4.3 | 70 | 100.0 |

Cumulative frequencies less than n=86 resulted from incomplete responses.

Training in supervision, related specifically to supervising RAs, received in the current position ranged from 0 to 4 hours (27.1%) to more than 24 hours (24.3%). Most supervisors report meeting with individual RAs for the purpose of supervision weekly (33.3%) or biweekly (29%). The largest proportion of supervisors have staffs of 6 to 9 RAs (37.1%), with 81.4% of the supervisors having staffs of fewer than 15 RAs. When asked to rate satisfaction with their

current skills as a supervisor on a scale from 1 to 7, most respondents rated their satisfaction at the 5 (35.7%) or 6 (31.4%) levels.

Resident Assistants

The eight institutions which participated in the study employed a total of 459 resident assistants during the semester in which the study was conducted. RA response rate for the stratified sample was 79% (n=363), with individual campus response rates ranging from 72% to 95%. Descriptive information is reported in Table 3. Of the 363 RAs in the study, a majority was female (55.1%), and more than half of the group was aged 20 or 21 (62%). The largest group in terms of class standing was juniors (38.3%), with nearly as many seniors (36.6%). More than half (61.4%) reported that they were in their first or second semester of work as an RA. Just over half (52.8%) reported working in co-ed residence halls.

Procedures

The Directors of Residence Life (or comparable staff members) at the eight universities listed above were contacted by telephone by the researcher and invited to participate in the study. The purpose and procedures of the study were described, including the specific activities requested of the directors. These included completing and returning the institutional questionnaire and announcing the study to the supervisors. They were further told that, in order to simplify the involvement of the residence life office, the coordination of the study on their campus, including distribution, collection, and follow-up, would be handled by a colleague of the researcher. One director asked to coordinate the study herself within the residence life office, and the researcher agreed to this procedure. The directors, after

Table 3
Description of the 363 Resident Assistants

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------------|-----------|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Gender | | | | |
| female | 196 | 55.1 | 196 | 55.1 |
| male | 160 | 44.9 | 356 | 100.0 |
| Age | | | | |
| 18 | 7 | 2.0 | 7 | 2.0 |
| 19 | 48 | 13.5 | 55 | 15.5 |
| 20 | 106 | 29.9 | 161 | 45.4 |
| 21 | 114 | 32.1 | 275 | 77.5 |
| 22 | 51 | 14.4 | 326 | 91.8 |
| 23 or older | 29 | 8.2 | 355 | 100.0 |
| Year | | | | |
| freshman | 7 | 2.0 | 7 | 2.0 |
| sophomore | 74 | 20.8 | 81 | 22.8 |
| junior | 136 | 38.3 | 217 | 61.1 |
| senior | 130 | 36.6 | 347 | 97.7 |
| grad. student | 8 | 2.3 | 355 | 100.0 |
| Experience (semesters) | | | | |
| 1 | 49 | 13.8 | 49 | 13.8 |
| 2 | 169 | 47.6 | 218 | 61.4 |
| 3 | 33 | 9.3 | 251 | 70.7 |
| 4 | 65 | 18.3 | 316 | 89.0 |
| 5 | 11 | 3.1 | 327 | 92.1 |
| 6 | 20 | 5.6 | 347 | 97.7 |
| 7 | 3 | 0.8 | 350 | 98.6 |
| 8 | 4 | 1.1 | 354 | 99.7 |
| 9 | 1 | 0.3 | 355 | 100.0 |

(table continues)

Table 3, continued

Description of the 363 Resident Assistants

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Residence type | | | | |
| co-ed | 187 | 52.8 | 187 | 52.8 |
| all female | 92 | 26.0 | 279 | 78.8 |
| all male | 75 | 21.2 | 354 | 100.0 |

Cumulative frequencies less than n=363 resulted from incomplete responses.

agreeing to participate, were asked for the names and campus addresses of their RA supervisors, as well as the number of RAs supervised by each supervisor. The directors were then sent a letter confirming their participation, outlining procedures to be followed, designating the study coordinator for the campus, and providing the institutional questionnaire (coded for institution; Appendix B) and postage-paid return envelope.

For each campus (with the exception of the one mentioned above), the researcher contacted a member of the North Carolina Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors (NCAWDAC) and requested assistance with coordination of the study on that campus. The primary purpose of this was to increase the response rate by involving a colleague who was committed to doing necessary follow-up and whose position or role, particularly if outside residence life, might have encouraged a high level of participation and provided an increased sense of confidentiality. These individuals were contacted by telephone, and the study and their requested involvement in it were explained in detail. They were asked to distribute and collect materials, to

track returns, and to make follow-up contacts with those who do not respond. The designated coordinators were sent a packet (Appendix C) which included a cover letter, a list of instructions, the appropriate number of supervisor packets (described below; Appendix D), five RA packets for each supervisor (described below; Appendix E), and a postage-paid envelope in which to return the materials to the researcher.

Supervisor packets (Appendix D) included a cover letter, instructions, the SSI (supervisor form), the demographic questionnaire, an envelope, coded by institution and supervisor, and an adhesive return label with the name and campus address of the campus coordinator. Responses to the SSI and the demographic sheet were recorded on a computer-scannable answer sheet. The answer sheet was coded by the researcher to indicate institution (letter code), supervisor status (1 digit code), and specific supervisor (3 digit code). Additionally, each supervisor was provided with 5 RA packets (fewer where staff size was smaller than 5) and a separate, coded return envelope, also labelled for return to the campus coordinator. The instructions asked the supervisor to compile an alphabetical list of all the RAs he or she supervises. For each supervisor, the researcher used a calculator random number generator to select 5 numbers at random from the staff size of that supervisor. The supervisor was asked to distribute the 5 RA packets to the RAs whose positions on the alphabetical list corresponded to the random numbers provided. It was suggested that the RA instruments be administered at the conclusion of the next staff meeting or other appropriate group setting, and a return date was given to allow approximately one week for completion.

RA packets (Appendix E) included a cover letter, instructions, the SSI (RA form), and the demographic questionnaire. A return envelope, coded by supervisor and labelled with the name and campus address of the campus coordinator, was provided for each group of RAs. Responses to the SSI and the demographic sheet were recorded on a computer-scannable answer sheet. The answer sheets were coded by the researcher to indicate institution (letter code), supervisor (3 digit code), RA status (1 digit code), and specific RA (6 digit code). RAs were requested to respond to the instruments according to instructions and to seal their answer forms in the envelope provided before returning it to their supervisor.

Institutional questionnaires were returned directly to the researcher. Supervisor and RA responses were returned to the campus coordinator, who returned them to the researcher as a group. The campus coordinator tracked responses using the coding on return envelopes and made follow-up contacts with any supervisors whose materials were not returned by the date designated. A response rate sufficient to conduct the data analyses was needed. If this had not been achieved when materials had been received from the campuses, the researcher would have conducted an additional follow-up with non-respondents.

Supervisor and RA answer sheets were optically scanned into the VAX computer system at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Analysis was conducted using the SAS data analysis program. Description of specific analyses follows.

Data Analyses

Scoring

On the SSI, participants rated each item on a scale from 1 to 7 to indicate the degree to which the descriptor is characteristic of the supervisor's approach to supervision. Raw scores on the designated items for each scale were totalled, and the sums were divided by the number of items to obtain a mean scale index. The scale index ranges from 1 to 7, with a higher mean score indicating greater perceived emphasis of the particular style (Efstation, Patton, & Kardash, 1990; Friedlander & Ward, 1984).

Descriptive Statistics

Using the SAS statistical package, descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, and frequency distributions were calculated for each group (i.e., supervisors and RAs), for each scale (Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive, and Task Oriented) and for each variable (listed above and included in Appendices D and E). Also, descriptive statistics were calculated for each item on the institutional questionnaire, and results were examined to assure institutional comparability.

Factor Analysis

To test the first hypothesis described above, that the factor structure underlying perceptions of supervisory roles is the same for RA supervisors as for counselor supervisors, the SSI ratings by RA supervisors were subjected to iterative principal components factor analysis. The resulting pattern of factor loadings was then compared with those reported by Friedlander and Ward (1984) to determine the extent to which the underlying structure is similar. This analysis replicated the original factor analysis conducted by Friedlander

and Ward in the development and validation of the SSI and was intended to provide information regarding the validity of the SSI for use in this setting.

Regression

To test the second, third, and fourth hypotheses described above, separate regression analyses were conducted on supervisor responses for each of the three SSI scales. This provides an exploratory look at the collective and individual effects of the independent variables, the demographic characteristics and experiential factors, on each dependent variable, the scores on the three SSI scales. The independent variables included in the regression analyses were the following: gender, graduate credit hours, field of study, type of residence position (i.e., full-time or part-time), experience in residence life, supervisory training, frequency of providing supervision, and number of RAs supervised.

The results of the regression analyses provided an explanation of the relationship between scores on the SSI and this set of independent variables. Because these relationships can often be complex, two types of regression analysis were conducted to gain a more complete understanding of how the variables and scores are related. A traditional stepwise regression analysis determined the increment in proportion of variance accounted for by successive combinations of factors. A forward selection regression analysis was also performed. This approach identifies the best single explanatory variable, then keeping that, provides the successive variables that add the most explanatory information. Comparison of the two solutions provides a more complete understanding of the relationships between scores on the SSI and the variables under consideration.

Planned comparisons

To test the fifth and sixth hypotheses, planned comparisons were conducted. The scores on each of the three SSI scales were compared for supervisors who described their training program as oriented toward counseling and those who described their training program as oriented toward administration. T-tests were conducted to examine whether the two groups differed significantly (.05 alpha level) on any of the scales. Because of the number of analyses that were involved, the appropriate Bonferroni adjustments would ordinarily be used to protect the desired alpha level. However, the purpose of this analysis was exploratory. Therefore, the .05 alpha level was maintained, although it was liberal, for the purpose of examining trends as well as significance.

To test the final hypothesis, the responses on the three SSI scales of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style were congruent with the perceptions of their RAs were compared with the responses of supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style were discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs. To identify "congruent supervisors" and "discrepant supervisors," difference scores were calculated by subtracting the mean of the five RA scores on each scale from the supervisor's score on each scale and then squaring the results. After rank ordering the difference scores, those in the upper third were termed congruent supervisors, and those in the lower third were termed discrepant supervisors. The SSI scale scores of the two groups were then compared, using t-tests and a .05 alpha level.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The chapter consists of two major sections: results and discussion. Data are presented in subsections which parallel the research hypotheses and data analyses described in Chapter III. The discussion section includes interpretations of the results.

Results

The results reported in this section are based on descriptive and inferential statistics which were used to examine performance on the inventory, similarities to previous research, relationships between the dependent variables and demographic and experiential factors, and differences between subgroups of the participants. Descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and frequency distributions were calculated to describe supervisor and resident assistant performance on the three scales of the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI; Friedlander & Ward, 1984). Results of additional descriptive analyses were reported in Chapter III in the discussion of participants. Inferential statistics used include factor analysis, forward selection and stepwise multiple regression, and t-tests. Using the results of these analyses, overall findings relevant to the stated hypotheses are examined. The discussion begins with examination of the results of the factor analysis, since this part of the study was designed to explore the validity of using the Supervisory Styles Inventory with residence hall staff members.

Factor Structure

To examine whether the factor structure underlying perceptions of supervisory roles is the same for RA supervisors as for counselor supervisors, the SSI ratings by RA supervisors (n=86) were subjected to iterative principal components factor analysis. A varimax rotation was used to enhance interpretability of the results. Further, since the results were to be used in a confirmatory mode, a three-factor solution was sought. The resulting pattern of factor loadings was compared with those reported by Friedlander and Ward (1984) to determine the extent to which the underlying structure was similar. To permit a preliminary exploration of the factor structure, a complete solution was sought to examine the item distribution over significant factors.

This initial rotated factor analysis (Appendix F) yielded nine factors, of which four accounted for approximately half of the variance (50.3%). Comparison with the results of Friedlander and Ward's (1984) rotated factor loadings (for the 25 scorable items only) is presented in Table 4. The items which loaded highest on Factor 1 of the Friedlander and Ward study, representing the Attractive or Consultant scale of the SSI, correspond directly with the group of items with the highest loading on Factor 1 in the current study. The items which comprise Factor 2 of the original study, representing the Interpersonally Sensitive or Counselor scale, are distributed across Factors 5, 6, 7, and 8 of the current study. These four factors include 7 of the 8 original Factor 2 items; the eighth loads highest on Factor 3. A similar distribution occurs with the Factor 3 items. The 10 items representing the Task Oriented or Teacher scale load highest in Factors 2, 3, 4, and 9 of the current study. The nine factor rotated solution in the current analysis appears to group items in a

Table 4

Comparison of Rotated Factor Loading Patterns for 86 RA Supervisors

| SSI Item | Factor with Highest Loading/Factor Loading | | | |
|---------------|--|------|----------------|------|
| | Counselor Supervisors (Study 1, Friedlander & Ward, 1984) | | RA Supervisors | |
| friendly | 1 | .697 | 1 | .825 |
| flexible | 1 | .652 | 1 | .347 |
| trusting | 1 | .633 | 1 | .584 |
| warm | 1 | .600 | 1 | .820 |
| open | 1 | .562 | 1 | .647 |
| positive | 1 | .515 | 1 | .536 |
| supportive | 1 | .507 | 1 | .859 |
| intuitive | 2 | .665 | 5 | .722 |
| invested | 2 | .659 | 6 | .713 |
| committed | 2 | .613 | 6 | .490 |
| perceptive | 2 | .610 | 5 | .677 |
| reflective | 2 | .507 | 7 | .453 |
| creative | 2 | .441 | 7 | .548 |
| resourceful | 2 | .389 | 3 | .389 |
| therapeutic | 2 | .388 | 8 | .549 |
| structured | 3 | .718 | 4 | .645 |
| focused | 3 | .699 | 2 | .771 |
| goal oriented | 3 | .652 | 2 | .743 |
| prescriptive | 3 | .627 | 4 | .765 |
| thorough | 3 | .582 | 2 | .679 |
| explicit | 3 | .570 | 4 | .576 |
| evaluative | 3 | .561 | 4 | .680 |
| didactic | 3 | .557 | 9 | .662 |
| practical | 3 | .512 | 3 | .796 |
| concrete | 3 | .479 | 3 | .485 |

Note: Table includes scorable SSI items only.

similar, but more highly discriminated, pattern compared with the Friedlander and Ward study. Only one of the nine factors, Factor 3, includes items from more than one of the SSI scales. To better assess the similarity between the factor patterns of the Friedlander and Ward (1984) study and the current study, a confirmatory analysis was undertaken. A three factor solution was sought to permit a more direct comparison of factor loadings. The item groups resulting from the three factor solution, reported in Table 5, corresponded to the item groups in Friedlander and Ward's three factors for 24 of the 25 items. These three factors, then, seem to represent the same constructs, although the order of the factors differs in the two solutions. The original study produced a Consultant/Counselor/Teacher-ordered solution, whereas the current study produced a Teacher/Consultant/Counselor-ordered solution. However, the similar factor groupings support the hypothesis that the underlying factor structure is the same for both counselor supervisors and RA supervisors.

Scores on the Supervisory Styles Inventory

Scores on the Supervisory Styles Inventory, reported in Table 6, were calculated for supervisors and for resident assistants. The results indicate that supervisor self-perceptions and resident assistant perceptions of their supervisors were similar in relative emphasis of supervisory roles. Both groups viewed Consultant as the strongest role and Teacher as the weakest role. RA ratings were elevated somewhat compared with supervisor ratings on each of the three scales, but scores from both groups on all three scales ranged only from 5.116 to 5.998.

Table 5
Comparison of SSI Factors and Three Factor Solution

| SSI Item | Factor Loadings by Factor ^a | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Friedlander & Ward, 1984 (Study 1) | | | Current Study | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| friendly | .697 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .781 | .000 |
| flexible | .652 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .399 | .301 |
| trusting | .633 | .329 | .000 | .000 | .593 | .000 |
| warm | .600 | .514 | .000 | .000 | .796 | .000 |
| open | .562 | .403 | .000 | .000 | .668 | .000 |
| positive | .515 | .385 | .000 | .336 | .535 | .000 |
| supportive | .507 | .465 | .000 | .000 | .873 | .000 |
| intuitive | .000 | .665 | .000 | .000 | .353 | .475 |
| invested | .000 | .659 | .000 | .368 | .275 | .475 |
| committed | .000 | .613 | .000 | .000 | .331 | .411 |
| perceptive | .000 | .610 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .401 |
| reflective | .000 | .507 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .332 |
| resourceful ^b | .000 | .389 | .361 | .469 | .000 | .000 |
| therapeutic | .000 | .388 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .336 |
| structured | .000 | .000 | .718 | .760 | .000 | .000 |
| focused | .000 | .000 | .699 | .632 | .000 | .000 |
| goal oriented | .000 | .000 | .652 | .461 | .000 | .308 |
| prescriptive | .000 | .000 | .627 | .480 | .000 | .000 |
| thorough | .000 | .306 | .582 | .776 | .000 | .000 |
| explicit | .000 | .000 | .570 | .702 | .000 | .000 |
| evaluative | -.258 | .000 | .561 | .632 | .000 | .000 |
| didactic | .000 | .000 | .557 | .269 | .000 | .000 |
| practical | .274 | .000 | .512 | .489 | .000 | -.285 |
| concrete | .000 | .000 | .479 | .672 | .000 | .000 |

Note: Table includes scorable SSI items only. Factor loadings below .250 are reported as .000.

^a Bold print indicates highest factor loading for each item.

^b "Resourceful" is the only item which does not group with the same factor as it did in the Friedlander & Ward (1984) study.

Table 6
SSI Scores for Supervisors and Resident Assistants

| Group | Scale | N | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|----------------------------|------------|-----|-------|-----------------------|
| Supervisors | | | | |
| | Teacher | 83 | 5.116 | 0.738 |
| | Counselor | 81 | 5.432 | 0.556 |
| | Consultant | 82 | 5.920 | 0.714 |
| Resident Assistants | | | | |
| | Teacher | 325 | 5.575 | 0.982 |
| | Counselor | 341 | 5.628 | 1.003 |
| | Consultant | 350 | 5.998 | 1.077 |

Note: N for each group and scale reflects the number of respondents who rated all items related to the scale. Means were calculated on the number of complete responses.

Relationship between SSI Scores and Demographic and Experiential Factors

The second, third, and fourth hypotheses concerned the relationship between SSI scores and the independent variables: gender, graduate credit hours, field of study, type of residence position, experience in residence life, supervisory training, frequency of providing supervision, and number of RAs supervised. Regression analyses were conducted to explore these relationships.

Table 7 presents the results of both the forward selection and stepwise regression procedures for the Teacher scale. The analyses indicated that none

Table 7
Results of Regression Analyses on Teacher, Counselor, and Consultant Scales

| Dependent Variable | Significant Predictors | Partial R ² | Model R ² | F Ratio | p Value |
|--------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|---------|---------|
| Teacher | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Counselor | Experience in Residence Life | .119 | .119 | 8.385 | <.01 |
| | Frequency of Providing Supervision | .088 | .207 | 6.772 | <.02 |
| Consultant | Field of Study | .077 | .077 | 5.259 | <.05 |

of the independent variables contributed significantly to explanation of scores on this scale. The forward selection analysis identified frequency of supervision as the best single explanatory variable ($R^2=.011$), followed by field of study (model $R^2=.018$), full-time or part-time employment status (model $R^2=.027$), and experience in residence life (model $R^2=.045$). Collectively, however, these four variables accounted for only 4.5% of the variance in Teacher scores, and none of them reached significance. This is supported by the stepwise regression analysis, in which none of the independent variables met the .150 significance level for entry into the regression.

Results of the forward selection and stepwise regression procedures for the Counselor scale are reported in Table 7. The results indicated that two of the independent variables contributed significantly to explanation of

performance on that scale. In both the forward selection and stepwise procedures, experience in residence life ($R^2=.119$) and frequency of supervision (model $R^2=.207$) together accounted for approximately 21% of the variance in performance on the Counselor scale.

Results of the regression analyses for the Consultant scale indicated that only one independent variable, field of study ($R^2=.077$), offered a significant contribution to explanation of scores on that scale.

Comparison of Supervisors by Program Orientation

The fifth hypothesis stated that supervisors who described their training program as oriented toward counseling and those who described their training programs as oriented toward administration would differ in their scores on the SSI. Specifically, supervisors who described their training program as oriented toward counseling were expected to have stronger Counselor scores and lower Teacher scores than those who described their training programs as oriented toward administration. Results of t-tests comparing these two groups on each of the SSI scales are reported in Table 8. These data indicated that although the groups differed in the anticipated directions, the differences were not significant ($\alpha=.05$).

Comparison of Congruent and Discrepant Supervisors

Responses on the three SSI scales were compared for supervisors whose self-perceptions of supervisory style were congruent with the perceptions of their RAs and those whose self-perceptions were discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs. Table 9 presents the difference scores that were calculated for all cases in which responses were received from a supervisor and from at least one of his or her RAs ($n=79$). The absolute values of the

Table 8
Comparison of Supervisors by Program Orientation

| SSI Scale | | | | | |
|---------------------|----|-------|--------------------|---------|---------|
| Program Orientation | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | T Ratio | p Value |
| Teacher | | | | | |
| administrative | 22 | 5.205 | 0.735 | | |
| counseling | 34 | 4.968 | 0.805 | 1.112 | n s |
| Counselor | | | | | |
| administrative | 22 | 5.438 | 0.456 | | |
| counseling | 34 | 5.515 | 0.662 | -0.478 | n s |
| Consultant | | | | | |
| administrative | 21 | 5.721 | 0.770 | | |
| counseling | 34 | 5.971 | 0.766 | -1.172 | n s |

difference scores were rank ordered and divided into thirds. The upper third (n=26) was comprised of those whose perceptions were most similar to those of their staffs; these were termed congruent supervisors. The lower third (n=26) was comprised of those whose perceptions were most different from those of their staffs; these were termed discrepant supervisors. The scale scores of the two groups were then compared ($\alpha=.05$).

Supervisors who were congruent or discrepant on the Teacher scale differed significantly from each other on the Teacher and Consultant scales. Congruent Teachers scored significantly higher on the Teacher scale, and discrepant Teachers scored significantly higher on the Consultant scale.

Table 9

Comparison of Congruent and Discrepant Supervisors

| <u>Comparison Scale</u> | | | | | |
|-------------------------|----|-------|--------------------|---------|---------|
| Scale Group | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | T Ratio | p Value |
| <u>Teacher</u> | | | | | |
| Teacher | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 5.331 | 0.470 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 4.688 | 0.924 | 3.160 | <.01 |
| Counselor | | | | | |
| congruent | 25 | 5.340 | 0.671 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.389 | 0.443 | -0.312 | n s |
| Consultant | | | | | |
| congruent | 25 | 5.674 | 0.749 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 6.038 | 0.553 | -1.981 | <.06 |
| <u>Counselor</u> | | | | | |
| Teacher | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 5.100 | 0.678 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.081 | 0.599 | 0.108 | n s |
| Counselor | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 5.519 | 0.506 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.269 | 0.537 | 1.728 | n s |
| Consultant | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 5.841 | 0.714 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.808 | 0.782 | 0.159 | n s |
| <u>Consultant</u> | | | | | |
| Teacher | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 5.096 | 0.527 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.396 | 0.754 | -1.663 | n s |
| Counselor | | | | | |
| congruent | 25 | 5.555 | 0.452 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.409 | 0.697 | 0.886 | n s |
| Consultant | | | | | |
| congruent | 26 | 6.225 | 0.483 | | |
| discrepant | 26 | 5.764 | 0.976 | 2.161 | <.05 |

However, they did not differ significantly on the Counselor scale. Supervisors who were congruent or discrepant on the Counselor scale did not differ significantly from each other on any of the three scales. On the Consultant scale, congruent and discrepant supervisors differed significantly from each other on the Consultant scale only, with congruent supervisors scoring significantly higher.

Discussion

The initial hypothesis of this study, that the factor structure underlying perceptions of supervisory roles is similar for counselor supervisors and RA supervisors, was supported by the results. The similarity in factor structure, as demonstrated by the correspondence of factor analysis solutions, suggests that the supervisors in these two settings perceived supervisory roles in terms of similar constructs. The three factors in the original study, which Friedlander and Ward (1984) termed Attractive, Interpersonally Sensitive, and Task Oriented, also emerged from the factor analysis of responses in the current study. This supports the use of the Supervisory Styles Inventory with residence life staff members, since they appear to respond using the constructs on which the instrument is based.

The hypotheses involving the relationships between supervisor performance on each of the three SSI scales and demographic characteristics and experiential factors were partially supported. While some of the demographic characteristics and experiential factors explain significant amounts of the variance in performance on the scales, the independent variables included in this study did not, for the most part, contribute greatly to explanation of variance in performance on the scales. This suggests that self-

perceptions of emphasis of Teacher, Counselor, and Consultant roles may be related to factors not included in this study. This will be considered further in the next chapter.

The hypothesis that responses on the SSI would differ for supervisors based on differences in the orientation of their training programs was not supported. The two groups of supervisors, those from administratively-oriented programs and those from counseling-oriented programs, did not differ significantly in performance on any of the SSI scales. There were, however, nonsignificant differences in the predicted directions.

Finally, the comparison of congruent and discrepant supervisors yielded mixed results. Significant differences were to be anticipated on the scales used to create the discrepancy measures (e.g., congruent and discrepant Teachers would be expected to differ on the Teacher scale). Thus, the only actual significant difference was between congruent and discrepant Teachers on the Consultant scale. Discrepant Teachers had significantly higher Consultant scores than congruent Teachers.

Overall, the results of this study suggest that the three-role model of supervision has application to residence life settings. Demographic and experiential factors, including experience in residence life, frequency of providing supervision, and field of study, were useful in explaining variance in supervisor self-perceptions of supervisory roles. However, a number of other supervisor variables did not appear to be significantly related to self-perceptions of supervisory roles, and supervisors generally did not appear to differ in their self-perceptions based on the orientation of their training programs or their level of congruence with their staffs' perceptions of them.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter consists of four sections: a summary of the research; conclusions that may be drawn from the study; implications of the results for student affairs professionals, residence life staff members, and counselor educators; and a discussion of limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

Summary

The study was an examination of a three-role model of supervision applied to supervisors of resident assistants in higher education. The model, which includes the roles of teacher, counselor, and consultant, was explored through the use of the Supervisory Styles Inventory (SSI; Friedlander & Ward, 1984), an instrument designed to assess relative emphasis of the roles by supervisors. The SSI and questionnaires concerning demographic characteristics and experiential factors were administered to RA supervisors and a stratified random sample of RAs at nine North Carolina public universities. Responses were received from 86 supervisors and 363 RAs at 8 institutions.

Three broad areas were explored. First, the factor structure underlying RA supervisor responses on the SSI was compared with the factor structure underlying counselor supervisor responses, which can be characterized as three supervisory roles, as reported by Friedlander and Ward (1984). Next, the relationships were examined between performance on each of the three scales

of the SSI, corresponding to the three roles in the model being examined, and demographic characteristics and experiential factors. Finally, performance on the three SSI scales was compared for subgroups of supervisors: those who differ in training program orientation and those who differ in level of congruence of perceptions with their staffs.

Results of the study indicated that the RA supervisors perceive descriptors of supervisory roles using the same constructs as those used by counselor supervisors. However, performance on the SSI scales, representing relative emphasis of the roles, is not for the most part significantly explained by recourse to the demographic characteristics and experiential factors. None of the independent variables is a significant predictor for performance on the Teacher scale. Experience in residence life and frequency of supervision are significant predictors of performance on the Counselor scale. More experience and higher frequency of supervision are associated with stronger emphasis of the Counselor role. Field of study is a significant predictor of performance on the Consultant scale. Supervisors from training programs with different orientations do not differ significantly in performance on any of the SSI scales. Finally, supervisors who are grouped according to congruence of perceptions with their RAs generally do not differ in performance on any of the SSI scales. The exception is supervisors whose self-perceptions on the Teacher scale are most discrepant from the perceptions of their RAs. This group had a significantly higher mean Consultant scale score than their congruent counterparts.

Conclusions

Several conclusions may be derived from the results of this study of supervision of resident assistant paraprofessionals in higher education. Based on the results of the factor analysis of supervisor responses on the SSI, it can be concluded that there is support for the application of the three-role model of supervision to supervision in residence life settings. RA supervisors appear to perceive supervisory roles through constructs which are similar to those used by counselor supervisors. These constructs, which can be termed Teacher, Counselor, and Consultant, provide a way to characterize the functions of the supervisor in this setting. While it was beyond the scope of this study to determine whether this model is adequate to describe inclusively the supervisory functions present in residence life, the correspondence between factor structures suggests that supervision in these two settings has these three roles in common.

The only SSI item on which counselor supervisors and RA supervisors appear to differ is the descriptor "resourceful." In the factor analysis of counselor supervisor responses (Friedlander & Ward, 1984), this item loads highest on the Interpersonally Sensitive, or Counselor, scale. This suggests that the term resourceful is construed as a supervisor characteristic which is relationship oriented, along with other characteristics such as creative, therapeutic, and intuitive. For the RA supervisors, however, resourceful loads highest on the Task Oriented, or Teacher, scale, with characteristics such as practical and concrete. It appears, therefore, that resourceful is seen by RA supervisors as being related to information sharing or skills training.

An examination of the relationship of the three-role model, and therefore the SSI, to demographic characteristics and experiential factors of the supervisors indicates that these variables are of limited use in explaining variance on the SSI scales. Because of the modest R-square values, it can be concluded that the model was misspecified. The regression variables do not appear to be those factors associated with explanation of performance on the SSI. This may have resulted from interrelationships among the independent variables or from the effects of factors beyond these variables. The results of this study suggest that these factors in this combination are not the factors which would contribute most to explanation of performance on the SSI.

Despite some weaknesses in the model, it can be concluded that, overall, the factors that affect role emphasis include experience in residence life, frequency of providing supervision, and field of study. The first two of these variables are associated with performance on the Counselor scale of the SSI. Considered together and in relation to a counseling emphasis, experience in residence life and frequency of providing supervision seem to indicate a progression toward increased counseling emphasis with increased experience in residence life and increased frequency of supervision. A possible explanation is that experience in residence life leads to a higher comfort level with the supervisory role in general and with the counseling or interpersonal function in particular. A higher comfort level may result both in increased frequency of providing individual supervision and in more emphasis of the Counselor role. This would suggest a developmental model similar to that proposed by Littrell et al. (1979), reflecting the counseling, teaching, and consulting role relationships.

The relationship of Counseling emphasis to experience and frequency levels with RA supervisors, however, indicates that if a developmental progression is present, a counseling emphasis would reflect a higher supervisor developmental level, rather than an initial one as Littrell, Lee-Borden, and Lorenz (1979) suggested. This is more consistent with the optimal environments described by Stoltenberg (1981), in which level one is characterized by autonomy within a normative structure and successive levels offer decreasing structure. Applying the three-role conceptualization to this model, Stoltenberg's progression could be characterized as Teacher--Counselor --Consultant. The Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) Integrated Developmental Model could be characterized in this way as well.

The current study offers some support for the presence of a developmental progression of supervisory roles in RA supervision. Results from the regression analysis on the Counselor scale suggest that Counselor may represent the highest developmental level in residence life supervision. The variables associated with this progression, particularly length of residence life experience, indicate that a Counselor emphasis is one that emerges or is developed over time. The Teacher role could be construed as the opposite end of the spectrum, since its focus on content offers the normative structure that has been suggested as appropriate for beginning supervisees. Also, the Teacher role would seem to be furthest from the interpersonal approach indicated by the Counselor role. The Consultant role, with its problem-solving orientation, might represent the middle ground, having less structure and more autonomy. The Teacher role, then, would focus on content in a relatively impersonal way. The problem-solving approach of the

Consultant begins to involve the supervisee in a more personal way. Finally, the Counselor role represents the least distance between supervisor and supervisee. This also reflects Stenack and Dye's (1982) study of the three roles, in which the Teacher and Counselor roles were relatively distinct, with the Consultant role overlapping the others. Logically, then, and drawing from the counseling supervision literature, there is some support for the existence of a Teacher--Consultant--Counselor supervisory role progression in this setting. Alternatively, the progression may be from Teacher to Counselor, with Consultant overlapping both to a great extent. This is consistent with Stenack and Dye's (1982) finding that the Consultant role is less distinct than the other two roles.

In many counseling supervision models (e.g., Stoltenberg, 1981; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987), the developmental progression suggested seems to be one through which counselor and supervisor become increasingly separate. The counselor develops from a level where he or she "needs" a high level of structure and of assistance to a level characterized by a more collegial supervisory relationship. This progression is predicated on the supervisee moving through successive levels of development as a counselor. The existence of a supervisory progression in residence life which involves supervisory movement from a Teacher approach to a Counselor function suggests that although there is support for conceptualizing the three roles this way, the sequence of progression may be unique in this setting.

A possible explanation for the difference in sequence between counseling and RA supervision is related to the nature of the setting and the purposes of supervision. A general goal of counseling supervision is to

develop competent counselors who can practice with a minimum of direct supervision. The objective, in broad terms, is separation. The progression being suggested for residence life, however, seems to be directed toward increasing and deepening the supervisor-RA relationship. This may reflect the realities of living in the workplace and the resultant needs for strong staff relationships. It may also be responsive to the developmental needs of the RAs. As young adults, one of their primary concerns is the working out of interpersonal relationships. The supervisory relationship may become a focus of this concern.

The association of field of study with emphasis of the Consultant role may also be related to a supervisory role progression. While field of study, for this analysis, was represented only as six categories (the seventh being "other"; see Appendix D), emphasis of this role does vary by field of study. Additional research would need to explore further the nature of this association and the specific field of study characteristics related to performance on the Consultant scale. Such recommendations are discussed in more detail below.

From the analysis, it may be concluded that training program orientation does not significantly affect supervisor role emphasis. The design of this study does not include exploration of other RA supervisor functions which may be associated with training program orientation. Also, characterization of training program orientation was assessed by supervisor self-report only. There may, therefore, be inaccuracies or inconsistencies in such characterizations that affect the results.

Finally, the results suggest that similarity of supervisor/RA perceptions is minimally related to supervisor role emphasis. Those supervisors whose self-perceptions on the Teacher scale are most discrepant from those of their RAs were found to have significantly higher scores on the Consultant scale than those whose self-perceptions are congruent with those of their RAs. This may be related to the overlap of the Consultant role with the other roles, as described above. Differing perceptions of supervisor emphasis of the Teacher role result from one of two conditions: supervisors seeing themselves as strong Teachers when their RAs do not, and supervisors not seeing themselves as strong Teachers when their RAs see them that way. In either case, the overlap of the problem-solving orientation of the Consultant role and the content orientation of the Teacher role may result in a blurring of the distinction, particularly in cases where there is a lack of agreement regarding the supervisor's primary focus. The reason for the relationship between discrepant Teacher scores and emphasis of the Consultant role is not clear. One possibility, however, is related to the Teacher-Consultant-Counselor progression described above and to the overlap between Teacher and Consultant roles. Stenack and Dye (1982) found that the Consultant role was less distinct than the other roles. Factors which are associated with discrepant Teacher scores may be associated with Consultant role behaviors as well.

Implications for Practice

The literature related to supervision of resident assistant paraprofessionals in higher education is lacking an empirical basis for description of the supervisory process in that setting. This study was designed to investigate the nature of the supervision process in residence life and to

begin to describe similarities and differences of RA supervision to supervision in other settings, such as counseling, about which more is known. Knowledge about the supervisory process in residence life settings is relevant for student affairs professionals in general, residence life staff members in particular, and counselor educators or others who train student development specialists. This section examines implications of the study for these three groups.

Student Affairs Professionals

Student affairs professionals are frequently charged with designing and conducting residence hall staff selection, training, supervision, and evaluation. Because limited data regarding supervision in residence life have been available, the subject has often been ignored. These professionals, however, are in a position to be highly influential in the development of supervisory skills in RA supervisors. This study offers support for use of a three-role model of supervision in this setting. The Teacher-Consultant-Counselor model can serve as a framework for training and for supervising the supervisors. Further, it can provide a basis on which research can be planned to explore the presence and relative emphasis of the roles on a specific staff. Resulting data can be used to guide further training for residence hall staff members.

Residence Hall Staff Members

Residence hall staff members, particularly direct supervisors of resident assistants, are in perhaps the best position to benefit from increased knowledge regarding the nature of the supervisory process in residence life. By using the three-role model as a framework and developing awareness of their own supervisory style and roles, staff members can conceptualize their

supervisory relationships differently and can work to develop capabilities across roles. Such a focus on implications of style and personality differences has been used in residence hall staff training (Brush, 1989). At this point, the bridge between the counseling supervision literature and RA supervision suggests that there may be a developmental progression underlying RA supervision. Thus, there is support for residence hall staff members to use as a working hypothesis a developmental approach to working with RA staffs.

Counselor Educators

Much is known about supervision as it relates to counseling trainees. While much less is known about supervision as it relates to residence hall staff members, this study provides support for the use of the counseling supervision literature as a framework for understanding and exploring supervision in this setting. Counselor educators and others who train student development specialists can use the results of this study as a bridge between supervisory settings. Also, because RA supervision has not been extensively explored, this study can be used to suggest directions for further research, as described below.

Limitations of the Study

As an exploratory study, it is important to delineate what this study was designed to do, what it accomplished, and what it was not intended to do. Limitations of the study are discussed for the purposes of describing the conclusions that may be drawn and of providing a basis on which recommendations for further research may be made.

A primary limitation of the study is related to the differences between the RA supervisors and the supervisors involved in Friedlander and Ward's (1984)

validation studies of the Supervisory Styles Inventory. The group of RA supervisors was primarily comprised of graduate students and master's level professionals. The supervisors in the Friedlander and Ward studies were doctoral-level psychologists. Therefore, while similarities in perceptions and underlying factor structure are indicative of similarities in the supervision processes in counseling and in residence life programs, the slight difference that exists may be attributable to differences in participant characteristics rather than to the existence of distinct processes in the two settings.

The supervisors involved in this study were staff members who directly supervise RAs at public universities that agreed to participate in the study. Results therefore generalize only to those in similar settings. While there may be limited applicability to residence life programs in independent institutions or to the supervision of other paraprofessionals in higher education, generalizability to such situations is not supported by the study.

The study is also limited by the size of the sample included. While the response rate from supervisors at participating institutions was high (88%), the sample size was relatively small ($n=86$). Additionally, a number of supervisors ($n=16$, approximately) failed to respond to the questions on the back of the demographic and experiential questionnaire. Therefore, results involving data from questions 41-48 should be regarded as even more limited in applicability, since sample size for calculations involving these data was approximately $n=70$. An additional factor affecting use of the data is related to the method of data collection. All demographic and experiential data were collected through self-report responses. The study did not include methods to corroborate or confirm responses or to assess their accuracy.

A major limitation is related to the differences between RA supervisor functions and counselor supervisor functions and the use of the SSI in the study. Although the results support the use of the SSI in this setting to assess relative emphasis of the three supervisor roles, the study does not address the question of whether, in this setting, additional supervisor roles or functions exist. For example, RA supervisors also carry out administrative and evaluative functions. These are not accounted for or explored in the current study. It may, therefore, be only a partial description of the supervisory process in this setting. A related caution regarding the instrument concerns the purpose for which it was developed. The SSI is intended to be descriptive only. It does not assess effectiveness, and there is no empirical support for assigning value or merit to any of the supervisory roles. Results cannot, therefore, be interpreted as evaluative.

As described above, the counseling supervision literature suggests that supervisor role is, or can be, a choice which differs depending on characteristics of the supervisee. Specifically, the research supports the idea that supervisors vary their supervisory approach for supervisees at different developmental levels. The current study does not account for this possibility. Supervisors were asked to rate themselves as supervisors of RAs in general, rather than as supervisors of RAs at any given experience or developmental level. Therefore, differences may exist which are related to characteristics of residence hall staffs rather than to characteristics of supervisors.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study of the supervision process as it occurs with resident assistant paraprofessionals in higher education serves, in effect, as baseline

information in the field. Recommendations for further research are based on results of the study and are designed, in part, to address the limitations outlined above.

Further studies should involve larger samples and additional methods to confirm self-report data, to replicate the study, and to examine the roles and functions not accounted for by this study. These methods might include interviews, observations, activity reports or logs, or additional instruments. Using approaches such as these might also be designed to yield information related to the adequacy of a three-role conceptualization to describe supervision in residence hall settings. Additional supervisory functions, such as administration and evaluation, should be examined in order to more completely describe this unique supervisory process.

Refinement of demographic characteristics and experiential factors considered is also recommended. Although the factors as used in this study were of limited use in explaining performance on the SSI scales, this may be attributed to a variety of factors. The questions may need to be redesigned to enhance their discriminant capabilities. Also, there may be interrelationships among the independent variables that have not been accounted for in this study. It may also be true that supervisory role in this setting is affected by "nontraditional" variables, such as whether the supervisor works out of an office. Such physical factors may influence the nature of supervisory interaction. Residence halls are unique settings, and unique characteristics of the settings may yield more meaningful relationships.

Based on the support for the use of the three-role model and on the limited support for a developmental progression of supervisory roles, it is further recommended that future research explore the effects of RA developmental level on supervisory roles. The counseling supervision literature offers support and models for studies in this area. Also, once a more complete description of supervision in this setting has been developed, that description can be used as a basis on which to develop studies of effectiveness and outcomes.

Further studies of supervisor characteristics also are warranted. Supervisory role emphasis may result from a number of factors. Possible influences include supervisee developmental level, supervisory developmental or skill level, supervisor personality characteristics, amount and type of training for the role of resident or area director, and job requirements in a specific setting. Future research might explore these and other supervisor variables to assess their relationship with supervisory behavior and role choice.

Supervisors of resident assistants perform many functions in relation to their residence hall staffs; direct supervision is one of these. Results of this study suggest that supervisors have at least three roles with their RAs. They are teachers, consultants, and counselors. Further, the data appear to suggest the presence of a sequence of these roles across time. This study provides an exploratory look at the supervisory relationship between RAs and their supervisors and factors which may be associated with elements of that relationship. Further, it provides a basis on which to plan further research to refine and enhance understanding of this important process.

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Appendix A

Description of Three Supervisor Roles

ROLE 1: TEACHER

- A. Focus of the interaction is on the supervisee as a counselor.
- B. Intention or goal of the supervisor is to instruct.
- C. Specific activities in the teacher role include:
 - 1. Evaluate observed counseling session interactions.
 - 2. Identify appropriate interventions.
 - 3. Teach, demonstrate and/or model intervention techniques.
 - 4. Explain the rationale behind specific strategies and/or interventions.
 - 5. Interpret significant events in the counseling session.
- D. In order to describe the appropriate style or method of delivery for the teacher role, the concept of overt control of the interaction can best be utilized. In most supervision sessions, especially in situations where a close supervision relationship has not yet been established, covert control of the interaction rests with the supervisor. In the case of the teacher roles, the supervisor also retains overt control of the interaction. The teacher-supervisor remains in charge, determines the direction of interaction and functions as advisor/expert.

ROLE 2: COUNSELOR

- A. Focus of the interaction is on the supervisee as a person.
- B. Intention or goal of the supervisor is to facilitate supervisee self-growth as a counselor.
- C. Specific activities involved in the counselor role include:
 - 1. Explore supervisee feelings during the counseling and/or supervision session.
 - 2. Explore supervisee feelings concerning specific techniques and/or interventions.
 - 3. Facilitate supervisee self-exploration of confidences and/or worries in the counseling session.

4. Help the supervisee define personal competencies and areas for growth.
 5. Provide opportunities for supervisees to process their own affect and/or defenses.
- D. The counselor-supervisor functions in much the same capacity as a counselor with a client. The same counseling skills are involved. The major difference between a counselor-supervisor and a counselor is that the goal of the supervision process is related to supervisee functioning as a counselor. The supervisee does not become a client. Within the limitations of counseling specific limitations, however, the counselor-supervisor does utilize many of the counseling behaviors.

ROLE 3: CONSULTANT

- A. Focus of the interaction is on the client of the supervisee.
- B. Intention or goal of the supervisor is to generate data.
- C. Specific activities involved in the consultant role include:
 1. Provide alternative interventions and/or conceptualizations for supervisee use.
 2. Encourage supervisee brainstorming of strategies and/or interventions.
 3. Encourage supervisee discussion of client problems, motivations, etc.
 4. Solicit and attempt to satisfy supervisee needs during the supervision session.
 5. Allow the supervisee to structure the supervision session.
- D. The appropriate style or method of delivery for the consultant role can best be described by referring to the concept of overt control of the interaction introduced above. In the consultant role, the supervisor allows the supervisee to exert overt control of the interaction. The consultant-supervisor provides alternatives and options instead of answers as in the teacher role. The consultant-supervisor also encourages supervisee choice and responsibility.

Appendix B

School of Education

*Department of Counseling
and Specialized Educational Development*

*Curry Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5100 FAX (919) 334-5060*

THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
NORTH
CAROLINA
AT
GREENSBORO

February 7, 1991

Mr. Bob Dunnigan
Director of Residence Life
1st Floor, Hagaman Hall
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC 28608

Dear Bob:

I appreciate your willingness to have your institution included as one of the sites in my study of resident assistant supervision. As we discussed during our telephone conversation, your participation will involve your completing a short questionnaire on the institution and announcing the study to your RA supervisors. Included in this packet are the institutional questionnaire and a postage-paid return envelope. The questionnaire has been coded in the upper right hand corner for tracking purposes only. No information will be reported by institution. Please return the questionnaire in the envelope provided to me at your earliest convenience. In order to proceed with the study, I need to have all responses by February 18.

As we discussed, Barbara Daye will be the study coordinator on your campus. She will distribute and collect materials from the supervisors and the RAs chosen to participate. For your information, I have enclosed copies of the supervisor and RA materials and the procedures that the coordinator will follow. I have designed the procedures for the supervisors and RAs to ensure the confidentiality of their responses. This aspect of the study is vital to its success, since participants will respond most honestly when they feel assured that the information will be held in confidence. Again, I hope that you will join me in emphasizing that the results will be examined and reported by group only.

Of course, the participation of any individual is voluntary. I hope that you will encourage all of your staff members to participate, but each one is free to decide individually whether to complete the questionnaire.

I will be analyzing the results of the study in the coming weeks. I would be happy to share the results with you or to present a program on my findings for your staff. If that is of interest to you, we can discuss it in more detail at a later date.

Please review the materials I have included. If you have any questions about the study, the procedures described, or your participation, please do not hesitate to contact me. I can be reached at UNCG at 334-5100, extension 243, or at home at (919) 732-5777. I will look forward to receiving your institutional questionnaire by February 18. Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study and for your assistance with this part of my research.

Sincerely,

Laura A. Dean
Doctoral Student

**Supervision of Resident Assistants
Institutional Information**

Please respond to the following questions by circling the number corresponding to your answer. This information will be used for research purposes only; institutions included in the study will not be identified by name. Thank you for your help.

1. What is the enrollment of your institution?
 - 1.) under 5000
 - 2.) 5000-9999
 - 3.) 10,000-14,999
 - 4.) 15,000-19,999
 - 5.) 20,000 or more

2. What is your resident population?
 - 1.) under 1500
 - 2.) 1,500-2,999
 - 3.) 3,000-4,499
 - 4.) 4,500-5,999
 - 5.) 6,000-7,499
 - 6.) 7,500-8,999
 - 7.) 9,000 or more

3. How much pre-service training is provided for those staff members who directly supervise resident assistants?
 - 1.) none
 - 2.) less than 5 hours
 - 3.) 6-15 hours
 - 4.) 16-35 hours
 - 5.) 36-50 hours
 - 6.) more than 50 hours

4. How much pre-service training is provided for new resident assistants?
 - 1.) none
 - 2.) less than 5 hours
 - 3.) 6-15 hours
 - 4.) 16-35 hours
 - 5.) 36-50 hours
 - 6.) more than 50 hours

(Continued on back)

5. How much in-service training is provided each semester for those staff members who directly supervise resident assistants?
- 1.) none
 - 2.) less than 5 hours
 - 3.) 6-15 hours
 - 4.) 16-35 hours
 - 5.) 36-50 hours
 - 6.) more than 50 hours
6. How much in-service training is provided each semester for resident assistants?
- 1.) none
 - 2.) less than 5 hours
 - 3.) 6-15 hours
 - 4.) 16-35 hours
 - 5.) 36-50 hours
 - 6.) more than 50 hours
7. How often do you meet with individual RA supervisors for the purpose of supervision?
- 1.) daily
 - 2.) weekly
 - 3.) biweekly
 - 4.) monthly
 - 5.) once per term
 - 6.) informal/as needed
8. Do the goals and objectives of the residence life program at your institution include the following? (circle all that are included)
- 1.) individual and group educational and developmental opportunities
 - 2.) residential facilities that are clean, safe, well-maintained, reasonably priced, attractive, comfortable, properly designed, and conducive to study
 - 3.) management functions including planning, personnel, property management, purchasing, contract administration, financial control, and, where applicable, conference administration
 - 4.) food services, where applicable, which provide high quality, nutritious, and reasonably priced meals
 - 5.) no formal statement of goals and objectives

Please return this questionnaire by February 18 in the envelope provided.

Thank you for your assistance with this study.

Appendix C

School of Education

THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
NORTH
CAROLINA
AT
GREENSBORO

*Department of Counseling
and Specialized Educational Development*

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February 6, 1991

Ms. Barbara Daye
Associate Vice Chancellor for Student Development
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC 28608

Dear Barbara:

Thank you for your willingness to assist with the coordination of my dissertation study on your campus. As I explained to you during our telephone conversation, your role will be to distribute the enclosed materials to the RA supervisors on the list enclosed, to collect the completed instruments, and to return all materials to me. I have spoken with Bob Dunnigan, the Director of Residence Life on your campus, and I have his approval to conduct the study with the members of the residence life staff. I have also explained your participation as the campus coordinator for the study.

I have enclosed all of the materials needed for the study. There is a packet for each of the supervisors listed; packets are labelled with the supervisor's name and campus address. Each packet contains a letter to the supervisor, instructions, and the supervisor's instruments, as well as a label with your name and campus address to be used to return the materials to you. The packets are coded corresponding to the supervisor list provided to assist you with tracking returns. Each supervisor packet also contains five (fewer where staff size is smaller) sets of RA materials (letter, instructions, and instruments), with a return envelope coded and labelled with your name and campus address.

Please read over the list of instructions enclosed and contact me if you have any questions. I can be reached at work at (919) 334-5100, ext. 243, or at home at (919) 732-5777. Because I am trying to move the study along quickly, I would like to have the completed materials back as soon as possible. Please return all supervisor and RA packets to me in the enclosed envelope by February 22.

Thank you for your help with this study.

Sincerely,

Laura A. Dean

**Supervision of Resident Assistants
Campus Coordinator Instructions**

1. Check the contents of this packet. It should contain the following:
 - a. a list of RA supervisors on your campus
 - b. an envelope for each supervisor listed, containing supervisor materials, a return label addressed to you, sets of RA materials, and an RA return envelope
 - c. a postage-paid envelope for your use in returning all completed materials (sealed supervisor and RA envelopes and the list of supervisors) to me
2. Distribute the supervisor packets in the manner that makes most sense for your campus. Some coordinators will choose to arrange to distribute packets at the next supervisor staff meeting; others will use campus mail, mailboxes, or other means.
3. I have requested that supervisors return their materials and those of their RAs directly to you in the envelopes provided by February 20. The supervisor and RA return envelopes are coded on the front lower left corner for tracking purposes. Supervisor packets are coded with a letter, which is your institutional code, and a number representing the individual supervisor (numbers correspond to those on your list of supervisors). RA packets are coded with the letter and supervisor code, followed by the letters "RA." As materials are returned to you, please keep track of those that are received by checking them off on the supervisor list. You should receive a supervisor packet and RA packet from each supervisor listed.
4. On the requested return date, please follow-up with any supervisors who have not returned their materials or their RA materials to you. Again, use the follow-up method that is most appropriate for your campus. Make one contact to request the materials; I will make any necessary additional contacts directly.
5. Place the supervisor list and all sealed supervisor and RA packets in the postage-paid envelope provided and return them to me as soon as possible. Please mail the materials to me no later than Friday, February 22.
6. If you have any questions or difficulties, please contact me at the telephone numbers given in the cover letter attached. I appreciate your help with conducting this study.

Appendix D

School of Education

*Department of Counseling
and Specialized Educational Development*

*Curry Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5100 FAX (919) 334-5060*

THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
NORTH
CAROLINA
AT
GREENSBORO

February 6, 1991

Dear Resident Assistant Supervisor:

The work that RAs do can make a difference in the lives of residents and in the success of the residence life program at your institution. One factor which may affect RA performance is the supervision you provide. As an RA supervisor, you play an important role for the students on your staff. I am interested in studying the supervision of RAs, with a particular focus on supervisory styles, and your institution has agreed to participate in this study. The more we know about the supervision of RAs, the better we can provide them with the assistance they need to be successful. This study is being conducted in conjunction with the School of Education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro as part of my work there.

I am interested in your perceptions of yourself as a supervisor. Your ratings should reflect your view of your style as a supervisor of resident assistants, rather than how you think a supervisor should act. Your responses will be held in complete confidence. Your supervisor, or your staff members, will not see the ratings, and the results will not be reported in terms of specific supervisors. Your responses will be combined with those of other RA supervisors from your institution and from other schools, and no individual responses will be reported. Please answer honestly and thoughtfully to ensure the usefulness of the study.

I have enclosed a list of instructions and the questionnaire to which you are asked to respond. The questionnaire should take you about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. I have provided an envelope in which you can seal and return your questionnaire in order to ensure the confidentiality of your responses. You may choose not to participate in the study. If you choose not to participate, please leave your answer sheet blank and return it as requested.

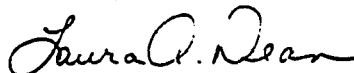
For each participating supervisor, five RAs are also being asked to participate by completing a similar questionnaire. If you supervise five or fewer RAs, please ask your entire staff to participate. I would suggest taking a

few minutes after your next staff meeting to allow them to complete their questionnaires. Their responses will be held in complete confidence as well, and results will not be reported in terms of specific supervisors. The information will provide a description of perceptions only. It does not evaluate quality or effectiveness of supervision. Responses from your staff will be combined with those of other RAs on your campus and at other institutions. Please help me to encourage honest RA responses by following the procedures described to ensure confidentiality and by assuring your RAs that their responses will be confidential, as well.

A colleague of mine is assisting with the coordination of this study on your campus. The name of your campus coordinator is listed at the bottom of the enclosed instructions sheet. Please return the completed materials to her in the envelopes provided by February 20, at the latest. Responding promptly will reduce the need for follow-up contacts and will enable the study to proceed as planned. If you have any questions about the study or procedures, please feel free to contact your campus coordinator or call me directly. I can be reached at work at (919) 334-5100, ext. 243, or at home at (919) 732-5777.

I appreciate your willingness to participate in this study. Learning more about the supervision of RAs is important so that those who work in residence life can better assist them in the work that they do. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,



Laura A. Dean
Doctoral Candidate

**Supervision of Resident Assistants
Supervisor Instructions**

Supervisor Responses

1. Check the contents of this packet. It should contain the following:
 - a. a computer-scannable instrument/answer sheet & sheet of additional questions
 - b. an adhesive return label, addressed to your campus coordinator
 - c. five sets of RA materials (fewer for smaller staffs)
 - d. a return envelope for the RA materials, addressed to your campus coordinator

2. To participate, please respond to the questions on the attached pages. Record all of your responses on the computer scan form, using a number 2 pencil. At the top of the form, please write in the date (month/day/year) in the space provided. Then respond to the items as described in the directions. Please note that, for items 1 through 33, you are asked to respond using a 7-point scale. Do not use the circles numbered 8-10 to respond to these items. Questions 34-48 are given on a separate page; however, please record your answers to these questions on the answer sheet as well. Please respond to all items.
NOTE: The answer sheets are pre-coded to identify institutions and supervisors. Such coding is for tracking and research purposes only. No individuals will be identified in the study.

3. Place the adhesive address label over your address label on the outside of the envelope, place your answer sheet in the envelope, seal it, and return it to the campus coordinator (named below) by Wednesday, February 20 at the latest. Be sure not to fold or crease the answer forms. Please use the envelope in which you received the materials, since it is coded for tracking purposes.

Campus Coordinator:

Continued on back.

RA Responses

As part of the study, five RAs will be chosen at random from each supervisor's staff. It is important that you carefully follow the instructions below to ensure that the RAs who participate are, in fact, chosen at random. If you have any questions about these procedures, please contact me or your campus coordinator. If you supervise five or fewer RAs, please ask your entire staff to participate, and skip directly to step #3.

1. Compile a list, in alphabetical order, of all of the RAs you supervise. Number them sequentially.
2. The RAs who should be asked to participate in the study are those whose numbers on the alphabetical list are the following: _____, _____, _____, _____, & _____.
3. Ask the designated RAs to participate in the study. (If any of them does not wish to participate, do not substitute another RA in that place. Simply ask the other RAs to place the uncompleted answer sheet in the RA envelope with the others.) Arrange for a time for them to complete the materials. I would suggest asking them to stay a few minutes after your next staff meeting (the RA questionnaire takes approximately 10 minutes) or arranging for the five of them to see you at a specific time.
4. Distribute one RA packet to each of the five RAs. Ask them to read the letter and instructions and to complete the questionnaire, using a number 2 pencil. Please remind them that all responses will be kept confidential. Ask them to pass the completed forms to one of the RAs to place in the envelope and seal it. Ask them to be sure that the forms are not folded or creased. Return the envelope containing RA questionnaires to the campus coordinator (address label is on the envelope).
5. Please complete your own questionnaire and arrange for your RAs to complete theirs as soon as possible. It is important that you return all completed materials to your campus coordinator as soon as possible, by February 20 at the latest, so that the study can proceed as planned.

Thank you for your assistance with this study.

| | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--|
| COURSE | | DATE | |
| INCORRECT MARKS ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ | CORRECT MARKS ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ | USE NO. 2 PENCIL | |

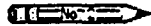
Supervisory Styles Inventory

adapted from Friedlander & Ward, 1984

Please indicate, on each of the following descriptors, your perception of your style as a supervisor of resident assistants.

Fill in the appropriate number on the scale, from 1 to 7, which best reflects your view of yourself, with 1 meaning that the descriptor is not very true of you and 7 meaning that the descriptor is very true of you.

Please use a No. 2 pencil.



- | | | |
|------------------|----|-----------------|
| 1. goal-oriented | 1 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 2. perceptive | 2 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 3. concrete | 3 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 4. explicit | 4 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 5. committed | 5 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 6. affirming | 6 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 7. practical | 7 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 8. sensitive | 8 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 9. collaborative | 9 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 10. intuitive | 10 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 11. reflective | 11 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 12. responsive | 12 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 13. structured | 13 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 14. evaluative | 14 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 15. friendly | 15 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 16. flexible | 16 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 17. prescriptive | 17 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 18. didactic | 18 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 19. thorough | 19 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 20. focused | 20 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 21. creative | 21 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 22. supportive | 22 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 23. open | 23 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |
| 24. realistic | 24 | ⓪ Ⓛ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓞ Ⓟ Ⓠ Ⓡ |

Continued on back.

1 = not very true of you

7 = very true of you

For the remaining questions, please see the attached sheet. Respond by darkening the appropriate circle next to the number corresponding to each question.

- 23. resourceful 25 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 26. invested 26 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 27. facilitative 27 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 28. therapeutic 28 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 29. positive 29 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 30. trusting 30 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 31. informative 31 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 32. humorous 32 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 33. warm 33 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 34 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 35 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 36 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 37 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 38 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 39 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 40 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 41 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 42 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 43 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 44 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 45 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 46 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 47 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 48 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Supervisors

Please record your answers to the following questions on the form used for the previous items. Using a number 2 pencil, darken the circle containing the number that corresponds to your response. Please be sure that your marks are dark and that they fill the circle completely. Do not make any stray marks on the answer sheet, and erase any mistakes completely. Do not fold or crease the answer sheet. Your answers will be kept confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Thank you for your help.

34. What is your gender?
1.) female 2.) male
35. What is your age?
1.) 20-24 2.) 25-29 3.) 30-34 4.) 35-39 5.) 40 or older
36. What is your highest degree?
1.) no degree 2.) bachelor's 3.) master's 4.) doctorate
37. How many graduate credit hours have you completed? (including those for degrees)
1.) none 2.) 1-9 3.) 10-19 4.) 20-29 5.) 30-39 6.) 40-49
7.) 50 or more
38. What is your graduate field of study (current field for undergraduates)?
1.) business/economics
2.) education
3.) fine arts
4.) humanities/liberal arts
5.) math/physical sciences
6.) social sciences
7.) other: _____ (please complete here and return this as well)
39. If your field of study is education, how would you characterize your program?
1.) oriented primarily toward administration
2.) oriented primarily toward counseling
3.) oriented primarily toward teaching
4.) field is not education
40. Is your residence life position 1.) full-time 2.) part-time?
41. Is your residence hall or area 1.) co-ed 2.) all female 3.) all male?

Continued on back.

42. Is your residence hall or area
- 1.) all freshmen
 - 2.) all upperclass students
 - 3.) mixed freshmen and upperclass students?
43. How long have you worked in residence life? (not including your own RA experience, if you were an RA)
- 1.) less than 1 year
 - 2.) 1-2 years
 - 3.) 3-5 years
 - 4.) 6-10 years
 - 5.) more than 10 years
44. How long did you work after college before you began working in residence life?
- 1.) less than 1 year/not at all
 - 2.) 1-2 years
 - 3.) 3-5 years
 - 4.) 6-10 years
 - 5.) more than 10 years
45. How much training (in clock hours) in supervision, related specifically to supervising RAs, have you received in your current position?
- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1.) 0-4 hours (half-day) | 5.) 17-20 hours |
| 2.) 5-8 hours (full-day) | 6.) 21-24 hours |
| 3.) 9-12 hours | 7.) more than 24 hours |
| 4.) 13-16 hours | |
46. How often do you meet with individual RAs for the purpose of supervision?
- | | |
|--------------|------------------------|
| 1.) daily | 4.) monthly |
| 2.) weekly | 5.) once per term |
| 3.) biweekly | 6.) informal/as needed |
47. How many RAs do you supervise?
- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1.) 5 or fewer | 5.) 20-24 |
| 2.) 6-9 | 6.) 25-29 |
| 3.) 10-14 | 7.) 30 or more |
| 4.) 15-19 | |
48. On a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 being "not very" and 7 being "very," how satisfied are you with your current skills as a supervisor?
(darken the circle that represents your level of satisfaction)

Thank you for your help!

Appendix E

School of Education

THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
NORTH
CAROLINA
AT
GREENSBORO

Department of Counseling
and Specialized Educational Development

Curry Building, UNCG
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5100 FAX (919) 334-5080

February 6, 1991

Dear Resident Assistant:

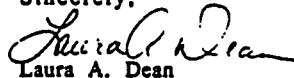
The work that you do as an RA can make a difference in the lives of your residents and in the success of the residence life program at your institution. One factor which may affect your ability to perform well in your position is the supervision you receive. I am interested in studying the supervision of RAs, with a particular focus on supervisory styles. The Office of Residence Life at your university has agreed to participate in this project. The study is being conducted in conjunction with the School of Education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro as part of my work there.

I am interested in your perceptions of your current supervisor. Your ratings should reflect your view of your current supervisor, rather than how you think a supervisor should act. Your supervisor is also being asked to rate himself or herself on similar items. The questions are designed to describe perceptions only. They do not evaluate quality or effectiveness of supervision. Your responses will be held in complete confidence. Your supervisor will not see your ratings, and the results will not be reported in terms of specific supervisors. Your responses will be combined with those of other RAs from your institution and from other schools, and no individual responses will be reported. Please answer honestly and thoughtfully to ensure the usefulness of the study.

You may choose not to participate in the study. If you choose not to participate, please leave your answer sheet blank and hand it in as requested. If you have questions about the study, please feel free to ask your supervisor, the study coordinator on your campus (listed on the instructions sheet) or contact me at work at (919) 334-5100, ext. 243, or at home at (919) 732-5777.

I appreciate your willingness to participate in this study. Learning more about the supervision of RAs is important so that those who work in residence life can better assist you in the work that you do. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,


Laura A. Dean

Doctoral Candidate

**Supervision of Resident Assistants
RA Instructions**

1. **Check the contents of this packet. It should contain the following:**
 - a. a computer-scannable instrument/answer sheet
 - b. a sheet of additional questions

Also, a return envelope has been provided for RA materials from your staff.

2. **To participate, please respond to the questions on the attached pages. Record all of your responses on the computer scan form, using a number 2 pencil. At the top of the form, please write in the date (month/day/year) in the space provided. Then respond to the items as described in the directions. Please note that, for items 1 through 33, you are asked to respond using a 7-point scale. Do not use the circles numbered 8-10 to respond to these items. Questions 34-38 are given on a separate page; however, please record your answers to these questions on the answer sheet as well. Make sure that your answer is recorded in the space correctly corresponding to the question numbers. Be sure not to fold or crease the answer sheet. The questionnaire should take you approximately 10 minutes to complete.**

NOTE: The answer sheets and return envelopes are pre-coded to identify institutions, supervisors, and RAs. Such coding is for tracking and research purposes only. No individuals will be identified in the study.

3. **One of the RAs completing the questionnaire should collect all RA answer forms, place them in the envelope provided, seal it, and return it to your supervisor. Your supervisor will then return the envelope to the campus coordinator whose name and address appears below and on the envelope. Please use the envelope provided, since it is coded for tracking purposes.**

4. **Please complete your questionnaires honestly, accurately, and promptly so that the study can proceed as planned.**

Campus Coordinator:

Thank you for your help!

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COURSE | | DATE | | | | | | | |
| INCORRECT MARKS ○ ○ ○ ○ | CORRECT MARKS ● ○ ● ○ | USE NO. 2 PENCIL | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ | ⑥ | ⑦ |

Supervisory Styles Inventory
adapted from Friedlander & Ward, 1984

Please indicate, on each of the following descriptors, your perception of your current supervisor for your RA position.

Fill in the appropriate number on the scale, from 1 to 7, which best reflects your view of your supervisor, with 1 meaning that the descriptor is not very true of your supervisor and 7 meaning that the descriptor is very true of your supervisor.

Please use a No. 2 pencil.



- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. goal-oriented | 1 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 2. perceptive | 2 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 3. concrete | 3 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 4. explicit | 4 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 5. committed | 5 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 6. affirming | 6 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 7. practical | 7 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 8. sensitive | 8 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 9. collaborative | 9 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 10. intuitive | 10 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 11. reflective | 11 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 12. responsive | 12 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 13. structured | 13 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 14. evaluative | 14 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 15. friendly | 15 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 16. flexible | 16 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 17. prescriptive | 17 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 18. didactic | 18 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 19. thorough | 19 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 20. focused | 20 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 21. creative | 21 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 22. supportive | 22 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 23. open | 23 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| 24. realistic | 24 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Continued on back.

1 = not very true of your supervisor
7 = very true of your supervisor

For the remaining questions, please see the attached sheet. Respond by darkening the appropriate circle next to the number corresponding to each question.

- 25. resourceful 25 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 26. invested 26 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 27. facilitative 27 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 28. therapeutic 28 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 29. positive 29 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 30. trusting 30 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 31. informative 31 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 32. humorous 32 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 33. warm 33 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 34 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 35 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 36 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 37 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 38 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 39 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 40 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 41 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 42 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 43 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 44 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 45 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 46 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 47 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
- 48 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Resident Assistants

Please record your answers to the following questions on the form used for the previous items. Using a number 2 pencil, darken the circle containing the number that corresponds to your response. Please be sure that your marks are dark and that they fill the circle completely. Do not make any stray marks on the answer sheet, and erase any mistakes completely. Do not fold or crease the answer sheet. Please be sure that you answer in the space numbered to correspond to the question numbers below. Your answers to all items will be kept confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Thank you for your help.

34. What is your gender?
1.) female 2.) male
35. What is your age?
1.) 18 2.) 19 3.) 20 4.) 21 5.) 22 6.) 23 or older
36. What is your year in school?
1.) freshman 2.) sophomore 3.) junior 4.) senior
5.) graduate student
37. How many semesters (including the current semester) have you worked as an RA?
(darken the circle corresponding to the number of semesters, including this semester)
38. Is your residence hall
1.) co-ed 2.) all female 3.) all male?

Thank you for your help!

Appendix F

Factor Analysis of Supervisor SSI Responses: Rotated Factor Pattern

| SSI Item | Factor | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| goal-oriented | -.021 | .743 | -.141 | .199 | .026 | .073 | -.010 | .137 | -.012 |
| perceptive | -.052 | -.065 | -.035 | -.028 | .677 | .147 | -.117 | .096 | -.044 |
| concrete | .122 | .366 | .485 | .295 | .108 | .068 | -.010 | -.142 | .129 |
| explicit | .088 | .366 | .300 | .576 | .091 | -.119 | -.062 | -.428 | .076 |
| committed | .342 | .256 | -.131 | .124 | .176 | .490 | .095 | -.049 | -.192 |
| affirming | .411 | -.066 | .031 | -.015 | .405 | .079 | .026 | -.030 | .083 |
| practical | .003 | .080 | .796 | .262 | -.029 | -.110 | -.175 | .259 | -.186 |
| sensitive | .672 | -.040 | -.100 | .023 | .184 | .133 | .003 | .320 | -.107 |
| collaborative | .295 | .179 | .109 | -.098 | .070 | -.104 | .390 | .514 | -.218 |
| intuitive | .265 | -.031 | -.001 | -.060 | .722 | .020 | .247 | .115 | .000 |
| reflective | .087 | -.053 | .054 | .184 | .363 | .129 | .453 | .139 | -.107 |
| responsive | .330 | .112 | .099 | .193 | .309 | .370 | .098 | .027 | -.019 |
| structured | .054 | .377 | .279 | .645 | -.070 | .230 | -.077 | -.182 | -.312 |
| evaluative | .092 | .222 | .165 | .680 | -.077 | .150 | .013 | .011 | .153 |
| friendly | .825 | -.000 | .129 | -.069 | .090 | .106 | -.131 | -.031 | .109 |
| flexible | .347 | .059 | .157 | -.078 | .320 | .027 | .195 | .128 | .232 |
| prescriptive | -.134 | .059 | .134 | .765 | .016 | -.031 | .082 | .178 | .249 |
| didactic | .002 | .085 | -.021 | .328 | -.016 | .097 | -.004 | .056 | .662 |
| thorough | .021 | .679 | .287 | .283 | -.131 | .167 | .073 | -.120 | .006 |
| focused | .052 | .771 | .214 | .051 | -.097 | .166 | .076 | -.013 | .091 |
| creative | .266 | .126 | -.228 | -.040 | .056 | .153 | .548 | .136 | .198 |

Factor Analysis of Supervisor SSI Responses: Rotated Factor Pattern, continued

| SSI Item | Factor | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| supportive | .859 | .008 | -.007 | .127 | .075 | .170 | .248 | .159 | .028 |
| open | .647 | .112 | .050 | .045 | -.082 | .090 | .348 | -.063 | -.082 |
| realistic | .057 | .052 | .822 | .127 | -.004 | .055 | .040 | -.080 | .055 |
| resourceful | .065 | .371 | .389 | -.001 | .011 | .330 | .248 | .042 | -.047 |
| invested | .238 | .204 | .126 | .080 | .120 | .713 | .101 | .022 | .177 |
| facilitative | .191 | .380 | -.083 | -.037 | .390 | .508 | .039 | .151 | .262 |
| therapeutic | .102 | -.016 | .007 | .050 | .211 | .060 | .045 | .549 | .159 |
| positive | .536 | .191 | .293 | .091 | .175 | .227 | -.111 | .202 | .218 |
| trusting | .584 | .162 | .009 | -.147 | .124 | -.018 | .127 | -.021 | -.135 |
| informative | .300 | .446 | .399 | .234 | .012 | .155 | .201 | -.124 | .062 |
| humorous | .416 | .192 | .038 | -.067 | -.063 | .068 | .322 | -.232 | -.068 |
| warm | .820 | -.068 | .036 | .120 | .029 | .097 | .037 | .067 | .093 |

Eigenvalues for Each Factor

4.773 2.871 2.477 2.442 1.888 1.672 1.307 1.296 1.129

Bold print indicates highest factor loading for the item.