

The supervision guide: Informed by theory, ready for practice

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Abstract:

Scholars have emphasized the educational nature of clinical supervision. However, the supervision field is lacking protocols to guide novice supervisors in their early sessions with supervisees. Informed by six overarching learning theories (behaviorist, cognitive, constructivism, critical pedagogy, person-centered, and experiential), we propose a supervision guide that can be used to guide novice supervisors' early supervision sessions. Implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research are included.

Keywords: supervision | learning theories | supervision guide

Article:

Introduction

Scholars (e.g., Borders 2001, 2010; Borders and Brown 2005; Carroll 2010; Clancy 1985; Olds and Hawkins 2014; Watkins 2013; Watkins and Scaturro 2013, 2014) have emphasized the educational nature of clinical supervision. Additionally, learning processes are included in best practices of supervision (Borders 2014; Borders et al. 2014). There are a number of ways that researchers have begun to apply pedagogical approaches to supervision. For instance, on a broad level, researchers have attempted to apply some educational theories to supervision, including constructivism (Guiffrida 2015; Nelson and Neufeldt 1998), experiential learning (Abbey et al. 1985), andragogy (Clancy 1985; Watkins 2013), and information processing theory (Tangen and Borders 2017). They also have applied specific components of educational theories to supervision, such as utilizing Vygotsky's scaffolding and working within the zone of proximal development (Johnston and Milne 2012); considering declarative and procedural knowledge (Bennett-Levy 2006); and modeling and providing feedback (Watkins and Scaturro 2013, 2014). These approaches highlight a shift in understanding supervision as a whole – from a psychotherapy-based enterprise to one of a more educational nature.

Despite these efforts, it is rare for supervision authors to clearly and intentionally ground their work in chosen learning theories and work based on educational principles from those theories. In fact, even under the guise of educational theories, some scholars have referenced theories of

psychotherapy instead. As examples, Watkins and Scaturro's (2013) model was extrapolated from Scaturro's (2010) integrative conceptualization of psychotherapy, and Guiffrida (2015) primarily referenced Mahoney's (2006) therapy work as the basis for his constructivist approach to clinical supervision. Commenting on these approaches, Falender and Shafranske (2010) noted, "Learning paradigms anchored in clinical theory, although offering a consistent heuristic with the form of treatment being offered, may not be the most effective in clinical supervision" (p. 49).

A similar conundrum is found in clinical supervision guidelines. In psychology, frameworks of supervision competencies consistently include references to learning principles and related terms, but Olds and Hawkins (2014) found these to be among the least developed competencies in regard to their specific components. Similarly, supervision best practices in counseling reflect components of learning theories and further state that supervisor training should include "instruction in relevant learning theories, principles, and research" (Borders et al. 2014, p. 44). The best practices, however, lack explication of how these theories should guide supervision practice.

Furthermore, in recent supervision books published in the United States (Bernard and Goodyear 2014; Borders and Brown 2005; Guiffrida 2015; Ladany et al. 2005; Watkins and Milne 2014), we found no listings in the indexes for multiple learning theories. Even the most cited definition of supervision lacks specific attention to learning theories:

Supervision is an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior colleague or colleagues who typically (but not always) are members of that same profession. This relationship is evaluative and hierarchical, extends over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional functioning of the more junior person(s); monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the clients that she, he, or they see; and serving as a gatekeeper for the particular profession the supervisee seeks to enter. (Bernard and Goodyear 2014, p. 9)

This learning theory void is curious, as clinical supervision has been hailed as "the signature pedagogy of the mental health professions" (Bernard and Goodyear 2014, p. 2).

Certainly, models to guide supervision practice do exist, but few explain *how learning occurs* from a learning theoretical framework. Without using a broad educational theory, it is challenging (and perhaps unwise) to implement structured and pedagogically-sound supervision sessions. More focused attention, then, to the application of learning theories could support a more intentional, even proactive, approach in supervision, and seems a necessary step in elaborating supervision pedagogy.

Not surprisingly, in addition to the lack of educational theory, there exists a dearth of supervision literature dedicated to pedagogical *practice* in supervision. Some structured supervision processes (e.g., supervision notes [Bernard 2014], interpersonal process recall [Kagan and Kagan 1990]) and models [e.g., Discrimination Model; Bernard 1997]) exist to guide supervisors using specific interventions. However, to our knowledge, no guide exists to help supervisors intentionally structure and plan sessions based on overarching educational theories. Such a guide could help supervisors organize and utilize supervision plans in a thoughtful, intentional manner.

Although such a tool may be beneficial for all supervisors, we have created a supervision guide specifically for *novice* supervisors. According to Gazzola et al. (2013), beginning-level supervisors typically struggle with self-doubt and uncertainty. Furthermore, novice supervisors undergo a number of changes, including but not limited to, dealing with the complexity of supervision, becoming better able to think like a supervisor, developing confidence, and learning to become more authentic as a supervisor (Goodyear et al. 2014). Just as structured interventions appeal to anxious beginning-level counselors (Borders and Brown 2005), we believe that this structured guide will appeal to novice supervisors. Once they gain more experience, self-confidence, and self-authority as supervisors, any rigid use of the guide should be relinquished. With more experience, supervisors will move away from rigid models and prescription and toward greater authenticity (Goodyear et al. 2014). We would consider it a success when supervisors have intuited these types of considerations and can formulate their own supervision plans without using this guide.

Taken together, the field lacks (a) guidance from overarching learning theories and (b) a structured guide to help novice supervisors intentionally use educational interventions in supervision sessions. Thus, the purpose of this article is to provide novice supervisors with a theoretically-informed guide to help structure each supervision session. More practically, we (a) review learning theories, (b) propose a supervision guide based on the learning theories reviewed, (c) discuss supervision implications and limitations of the learning theories and guide, and (d) provide recommendations for future research.

Learning Theories

Learning theories can be described as established sets of principles that guide a supervisor's goal of enacting change and/or development in supervisees. According to Ertmer and Newby (1993), learning theories provide (a) a foundation of various instructional interventions; (b) guidance on which interventions to choose depending on the issue in question; (c) guidance on how the information to be learned, the context, and the learner together interact; and (d) possible predictive power of how a specific strategy might work. To provide an analogy that illustrates the importance of supervision learning theories, we use an example within the context of counseling theories. A supervisor who uses a learning-oriented intervention (e.g., shaping) without the guidance of a learning theory (i.e., behaviorism) can be likened to a counselor who chooses an intervention (e.g., empty chair work) without the guiding framework of the counseling theory (Gestalt). Doing so may result in a piecemeal-approach to practice – whether used in counseling or supervision. Similar to the way that counseling theories guide counselors' overarching endeavors with clients, learning theories provide guidance for the entirety of the supervision enterprise and guide interventions across sessions.

Depending on how *learning theory* is defined, there are multiple examples of specific theories. Some are considered models, some theories, and some paradigms or epistemologies. We chose the six major learning theories of behaviorism, cognitivism, person-centered, constructivism, critical pedagogy, and experientialism due to their wide representation in textbooks, articles, and online compendia, and due to their apparent relevance to our proposed supervision guide.

Before describing the theories, it is important to note four caveats. First, there are some overlapping concepts amongst the theories (e.g., the concept of *transfer* is described across behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism, but it looks different in each [see Ertmer and Newby 1993]) and, at times, example theorists (e.g., Vygotsky, Piaget) are described under different theoretical frameworks. Second, as we will describe in detail later, there is no one “best” theory (Ertmer and Newby 1993); rather, a supervisor needs to intentionally match the supervisee’s needs at any given point with the appropriate theory (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Hung 2001). Third, due to space limitations, we are unable to fully elaborate on concepts associated with each learning theory; readers are encouraged to examine reference citations to increase their knowledge of these concepts. And finally, although we focus on the *learning* aspect of supervision below, the dynamic relationship between the supervisor and supervisee is a critical factor of effective supervision (Borders and Brown 2005; Goodyear 2014; Ladany and Muse-Burke 2001). We consider it of the highest importance in any supervision enterprise.

Behaviorism

Grounded in the early work of Pavlov, Skinner, Thorndike, and Watson (see Pavlov 1927; Skinner 1938; Thorndike 1932; and Watson 1913), “Behaviorism equates learning with changes in either the form or frequency of observable performance” (Ertmer and Newby 1993, p. 48). Basically, behavioral theorists assume that students are passive learners (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Méndez Hinojosa 2015), and a teacher’s role (as expert, Kantar 2013) is to structure (Ertmer and Newby 1993) and reinforce desired responses (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Méndez Hinojosa 2015). Key components of behaviorism include stimulus, response, association, cueing, practice, reinforcement (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Kantar 2013; Yilmaz 2011), memorization, and feedback (Hung 2001). In a nutshell, a behaviorist seeks to link specific stimuli with students’ responses and various reinforcers. Although there are many concepts (and variations therein) associated with behaviorism, we include concepts such as prompting, creating the environment, and setting goals, etc.

Cognitivism

Associated with educational theorists such as Piaget and Vygotsky (see Piaget 1952; Vygotsky 1986), cognitivism is used to explain how students take in and remember information (Méndez Hinojosa 2015). As such, cognitive theorists are concerned with “promoting mental processes” (Ertmer and Newby 1993, p. 51; Kantar 2013; Yilmaz 2011), which diverts from behavioral theorists’ focus on basic behavioral sequences. More explicitly, “Cognitive theories focus on the conceptualization of students’ learning processes and address the issues of how information is received, organized, stored, and retrieved by the mind” (Ertmer and Newby 1993, p. 51). Within this theoretical framework, students are more active (Yilmaz 2011) in their attempts to acquire knowledge, interpret it, and store it (Kantar 2013). The teacher’s role is to gain students’ attention and make information meaningful so that it can be stored in long-term memory (Kantar 2013; Méndez Hinojosa 2015).

Key concepts of cognitivism include gaining attention, rehearsing, chunking, encoding, storing, and retrieving information from long-term memory, meaning-making, relating to prior

knowledge, (Ertmer and Newby 1993), using analogies, using mnemonics (cited in Ertmer and Newby 1993), memorizing, applying rules (Hung 2001), linking concepts, processing information (Kantar 2013; Yilmaz 2011), and organizing schema (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Kantar 2013; Yilmaz 2011).

Person-Centered

Primarily credited with the work of Rogers (see Rogers 1961), the person-centered approach is characterized by consideration of the learner as a whole person, including her or his values, interests, thoughts, emotions, etc. The teacher in this approach acts more as a facilitator and helps the learner become self-directed (Nelson et al. 2014). Thus, central components of person-centered theory include a teacher's authenticity, unconditional acceptance, belief in students' growth potential, empathy, ability to arouse students' dissonance, and willingness to offer oneself as a resource (Kunze 2013). Our supervision guide draws heavily on person-centered theory as a backdrop of the supervisory relationship and learning enterprise.

Constructivism

Constructivism is sometimes associated with cognitivism (see Yilmaz 2011) and, thus, individuals such as Piaget and Vygotsky (Hung 2001) are again noted as foundational theorists. However, the epistemological position of constructivism is different from cognitivism. Both cognitivist and behaviorist theorists posit an objectivist outcome of learning (Ertmer and Newby 1993), whereas constructivist theorists believe there is no absolute, objective "truth" (Schunk 2016), but rather, learning occurs when students actively construct knowledge (Kantar 2013) based on their idiosyncratic interactions between themselves and the context around them (e.g., people, environment) (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Hung 2001). In this manner, a teacher's role is to facilitate students' active creation of their own knowledge (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Hung 2001; Kantar 2013; Méndez Hinojosa 2015).

Concepts associated with constructivism include activating prior knowledge, coaching /apprenticeship, reflecting/metacognition (Ertmer and Newby 1993), discovering, experimenting, (Hung 2001); collaborating (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Hung 2001; Kantar 2013); using authentic contexts, making meaning (Ertmer and Newby 1993; Kantar 2013), problem-solving, self-regulating learning, and engaging students (Kantar 2013). Thus, learning is not simply provided to students by an "expert" teacher; rather, it is actively constructed.

Critical Pedagogy

Like constructivists, authors in critical pedagogy affirm the active co-construction of knowledge and meaning that happens among students and teachers (Darder et al. 2003; Freire 1970; hooks 1994). However, practitioners of critical pedagogies take an explicitly relational approach to the learning environment and attend to the ways power structures are often maintained in educational and, by extension, social spaces. A prominent theorist in this approach to education, bell hooks (hooks 1994), described learning as a process by which both student and teacher grow and become empowered.

Paulo Freire (1970) is often cited as one of the leading thinkers in critical pedagogy. He powerfully illuminated the problems with what he called the banking model of education in which students are seen as passive receivers of the teacher’s knowledge. Freire (1970) argued that the role of education is to encourage conscientização – also referred to as conscientization or critical consciousness – of both students and teachers, and particularly oppressed people, in the pursuit of freedom and social change. He advocated for a problem-posing model of education in which, through dialogue, “people develop their power to perceive critically *the way they exist* in the world *with which* and *in which* they find themselves” (p. 83). Dialogue is “one of the most significant aspects of critical pedagogy” (Darder et al. 2003, p. 15) in that it is a core element of praxis, along with reflection and action (Freire 1970). Darder et al. (2003) explained, “no formula or homogeneous representation exists for the universal implementation of any form of critical pedagogy” but pointed out that critical pedagogies share an “underlying and explicit intent and commitment to the unwavering liberation of oppressed populations” (p. 10).

Experiential Learning

According to Kolb (1984), the theory of experiential learning posits that “ideas are not fixed and immutable elements of thought but are formed and reformed through experience” (p. 26). Furthermore, experiential learning is based on six principles: (a) learning is process-oriented; (b) relearning occurs when students work with old and new ideas; (c) learning is challenging as it promotes dissonance; (d) the process of learning is holistic; (e) students engage with the surrounding environment; and (f) learning is constructive (Kolb and Kolb 2005). More specifically, experiential learning is often characterized by a learning cycle comprised of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb and Kolb 2005; Kolb and Kolb 2009; Kolb et al. 2014). Optimal learning includes each of these four areas.

Table 1. Supervision guide

Steps	Name	Guiding Questions
Step 0	Prepare for Supervision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In what ways can you connect with your supervisee and learn with her or him? • What knowledge might your supervisee be bringing into the relationship?
Step 1	Create Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are 1–3 major goals that you want your supervisee to learn? • What are your supervisee’s overarching goals?
Step 2	Consider Relevant Supervision Models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How does the discrimination model inform your supervision plan? • How do developmental models inform your supervision plan?
Step 3	Consider the Learning and Counseling Context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What multicultural variables might be salient? • How effective is your supervisory relationship and the supervisee’s counseling relationship with her/his client?
Step 4	Begin with an Anticipatory Set	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How will you pique your supervisee’s interest? • How can you orient your supervisee to today’s session?
Step 5	Scaffold and Monitor Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can you break the learning down to a step-by-step process? • How can you adjust if the supervisee does not appear to be learning?
Step 6	Apply Knowledge and Provide Feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What type of activity could you institute to ensure your supervisee’s learning? • What type of feedback would reinforce your supervisee’s progress?
Step 7	Close the Session	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can you help your supervisee distill her or his knowledge into a meaningful take-away? • Has your supervisee learned what you both had intended?

Taken together, behaviorism guides the direct and observable behaviors of students; cognitivism takes thinking processes into account; person-centered focuses more on the learner as a whole person; constructivism addresses the ways learners create their own knowledge; critical pedagogy examines the social context and power structures of education, and experiential learning offers perspective on the ways experiences affect learning. To cover each essential area, all of these theories are infused in our supervision guide, creating an integrated approach for working with a supervisee in individual supervision. Thus, the considerations of the guide include (a) preparing for supervision, (b) creating objectives, (c) considering relevant supervision models, (d) considering the learning and counseling contexts, (e) beginning with an anticipatory set, (f) scaffolding and monitoring learning, (g) applying knowledge and providing feedback, and (h) closing the session – see Table 1 for a condensed version.

Supervision Guide

The supervision guide below is based on broad learning theories as well as supervision models. We encourage novice supervisors to use the guide to help plan and structure sessions, alleviating their anxiety and ensuring that their bases are covered. However, as all supervision sessions are fluid and dynamic, the actual implementation may be mutable. After each step, we use a simple supervision case of Dante, the novice supervisor, and Marian, the supervisee. Demographically, Dante identifies as a 30-year-old African American male, and Marian identifies as a 25-year-old European American female. Dante is a first-year supervisor in his doctoral program and has been quite anxious about the multiple components of supervision. Marian is a master's student in her first semester of practicum, working in the local university counseling clinic. She has been struggling to identify her client's emotions.

Step Zero: Prepare for Supervision

Typically, supervisors will know some basic information about their new supervisee before the first session (e.g., gender expression, race/ethnicity, stage of life, nationality). The supervisory relationship, much like the counseling relationship, begins even before the work of supervision. For example, a supervisor (in an agency context) may have hired the supervisee, participated in the supervisee's admission process, or taught her or him in class. If possible, supervisors should intentionally reflect upon the perceived identities the supervisee may be bringing into the supervisory context and consider how the supervisee may be feeling about entering into such a relationship with the supervisor. The supervisor would benefit from considering her or his own experiences of privilege, oppression, and power prior to (and during) each session, which would align with the tenets of critical pedagogy.

For Dante, this may mean he is cognizant of the gender and racial differences between himself and Marian and the potential experiences of power they both may be bringing into the relationship as a result. At the same time, he will want to recognize the co-creative process that supervision necessarily entails and be open to his own learning from Marian (critical pedagogy). Dante will likely want to be ready to broach cultural dynamics in order to convey his openness to exploring these in regard to clients, supervisee, supervisory, or any interactions across those relationships.

Step One: Create Objectives

Guided by tenets from behaviorism and cognitivism, it is important to consider one to three major focus areas (e.g., goals, objectives) for the supervision session and prioritize them accordingly (with three goals being a suitable maximum a supervisee can attend to at one time [Borders and Brown 2005]). Furthermore, these situational objectives should be nested within the supervisee's overarching, long-range goals.

For example, Dante might watch a recording of Marian's work with a client and realize that she (as a beginning counselor) did not reflect her client's feelings. Based on behavioral theory, Dante's supervision objective for the session: Marian will practice reflecting feelings during the supervision session. This objective also aligns with Marian's overall supervision goal to use a range of counseling skills.

Step Two: Consider Relevant Supervision Models

Before beginning the session, it is important to consider supervision models, such as Bernard's (1997) Discrimination Model and developmental models (e.g., Loganbill et al. 1982; Stoltenberg and McNeill 1997). According to Bernard (1997), supervisors may take one of three roles with supervisees, depending on what is needed at the time. A teaching role may be adopted when teaching skills, whereas a counseling role may be assumed when exploring personal issues affecting the counselor. The consultant role is typically used with more advanced supervisees, when they are capable of brainstorming approaches with their supervisors.

Based on our case, Dante might decide to adopt the teacher role to teach reflections of feeling and perhaps the counselor role to process Marian's comfort level with her and others' emotions. This procedure also coincides with Marian's developmental level as a beginner.

Step Three: Consider the Learning and Counseling Contexts

In addition to creating objectives and considering supervision models, it is important that supervisors consider the unique and idiosyncratic characteristics of their supervisee (including multicultural variables), their supervisee's clients, and the multiple relationships therein. Much of this is based in person-centered and critical pedagogy theories, as the individual needs of the learner are taken into consideration, and the dynamic relationship between the supervisor, supervisee, and client(s) are emphasized.

Using our example, Dante might note that he is a 30-year-old, African-American male, and Marian is a 25-year-old European-American female. He could consider the messages that her culture might possess about emotions before blindly launching into a lesson on reflecting feelings. Furthermore, it would be important for him to consider Marian's clients' diverse backgrounds and the relationships the clients have with Marian. This way, he can anticipate any mis-steps or obstacles and remain flexible in his approach if needed.

Step Four: Begin with an Anticipatory Set

Based on tenets from cognitivism and constructivism, it is important to pique supervisees' interest at the beginning of (and throughout) the session. According to Hunter and Hunter (2004), the *anticipatory set* refers to the method of capturing students' attention and orienting them to learning. Anticipatory sets could include thought-provoking questions, intriguing insights, etc.

In our case, Dante could begin by asking Marian how she feels about emotions or how emotions were perceived in her upbringing. Presumably, an intriguing question such as this would pique Marian's interest (especially if she is uncomfortable with emotions) and prepare her to learn. At the same time, it is important that Dante remain humble and open to learning from Marian as well (critical pedagogy). She may respond by stating that she is not comfortable discussing emotions with clients. This admittance would give Dante an opportunity to adopt a more dynamic counselor role, inquiring into her background and culture, asking her about her feelings in the here-and-now, processing these emotions, questioning his own approach and determining how important it is that Marian work through this (or not), and continually monitoring the effects on their relationship.

Step Five: Scaffold and Monitor Learning

Once a supervisee is ready, the supervisor can begin to scaffold the learning in the session. Associated with Vygotsky and constructivism, scaffolding can be defined as "the process whereby more advanced thinkers or more capable members of a culture provide novice learners with a supportive temporary prop that enables the novice to learn and to reach higher levels of thinking" (Broderick and Blewitt 2015, p. 616). Essentially, it is the process of structuring a session within the supervisee's developmental level. Supervisors could also use organizers, ask questions to help the supervisee construct knowledge, brainstorm various approaches, etc. It is important that the supervisor remains flexible to the changing dynamics of the session and alters her or his approach depending on the needs of the supervisee.

In the case described, Dante might show Marian a clip of her recording with her client, and together list all of the emotions that the client might be feeling. From there, they could discuss which emotions might be most prevalent and which emotions might need further exploration. At this point, Marian has emotion language for the reflection of feeling; however, she still needs to be able to communicate the reflection. To achieve this, Dante might encourage her to brainstorm sentence stems that begin reflections of feeling, such as "It sounds as though you are feeling..." or "I'm hearing some..." This approach requires continual monitoring to ensure the supervisee understands. If, for example, Marian had a hard time thinking of any emotions to describe what her client was feeling, Dante might have to take a step back and teach her about the language of emotions. Of course, all of this would be done within the context of a strong supervisory relationship and continual awareness of cultural variables.

Step Six: Apply Knowledge and Provide Feedback

At this point, the supervisor can encourage the supervisee to apply her or his knowledge more directly through experimentation. Derived from the active experimentation component of Kolb and Kolb's (2009) learning cycle, this application further ensures that the supervisee cements her or his learning in long-term memory (from information processing theory of cognitivism).

Based on our case, Dante might engage Marian in an extended role-play in which he role-plays the client and she attempts to reflect his feelings. As Marian practices these reflections, Dante could work behaviorally and reinforce closer approximations to enhance appropriate and culturally aware reflections of feeling.

Step Seven: Close the Session

It is important to provide an effective closure to ensure that the supervisee's knowledge is cemented in long-term memory (cognitivism – information processing theory). Questions such as “How are you going to apply this in your next session with your client?” or “What is the most meaningful piece of knowledge that you are taking away from our session today?” are designed to distill knowledge, solidify learning, and promote transfer. Dante might, for example, ask Marian, “What three words best describe our session today?”

Discussion

Guided by overarching theories, we have proposed a supervision guide for novice supervisors. As part of the discussion, it is important to consider implications and limitations of utilizing such an approach. First, as previously mentioned, our approach in this article is rather technical, and thus is limited when it comes to the art of supervision. However, because the task of learning to “think like a supervisor” (Borders 1992) is so complex, the supervision guide may help structure novice supervisors' practice. As supervisors gain more experience, they will be able to intuit these types of considerations and create their own supervision sessions organically.

Second, although we mentioned the importance of the supervisory relationship in the caveats and included it in step three, we cannot overstate the importance of this relationship within the learning context (see Goodyear 2014; Watkins and Scaturro 2013, 2014). Along with this, we presume that supervisors who use the supervision guide will do so with an understanding of the centrality of multicultural sensitivity with supervisees. To adhere to a technique without the appropriate and culturally-sensitive relationship established would be shortsighted and likely ineffective.

Third, we encourage supervisors of all levels to attend to what needs attending to. Clients' safety, supervisees' adherence to ethics, relational ruptures, multicultural microaggressions, etc., are just a few of the issues that would certainly take precedent over the guide. Furthermore, our template assumes an educational approach to the supervision enterprise, which is not always appropriate. Instead of focusing on the learning objectives of the supervisee, the supervisor may need to attend to the immediate needs of the client, so that supervision becomes more like case management. Flexibility and sound problem-solving skills are important in such an application.

Applications and Recommendations for Future Research

We encourage utilization of the supervision guide to help structure novice supervisors' initial supervision sessions. Furthermore, we encourage future research using the supervision guide. Explorations of novice supervisors' anxiety before and after utilizing the guide, novice

supervisors' satisfaction level with it, supervisees' resulting performance after being supervised using the guide, and counselor educators' evaluation of the guide would be useful in determining the utility of this tool and its potential for facilitating effective clinical supervision.

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