CONTRIBUTING FACTORS FOR SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIPS, CULTURAL DISCUSSIONS, AND ACCULTURATION PROCESS IN SUPERVISION WITH ASIAN INTERNATIONAL COUNSELING TRAINEES: COGNITIVE STYLE, THEORETICAL ORIENTATION, AND SUPERVISORY STYLE

by

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(Under the Direction of Edward Delgado-Romero)

ABSTRACT

Due to different cultural background, international counseling trainees present unique supervision experiences and express needs that are different from the needs of U.S. trainees. Especially Asian international counseling trainees, they have values, beliefs, and languages that are considered to be very different from the ones found in Western culture. While these trainees bring many benefits to their programs in the United States, not enough empirical research has been conducted to develop culturally appropriate supervision approaches to meet their training needs.

The present study focused on supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees in positive supervisory relationships and explored the effects of the individual characteristics (cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style) on the supervision relationship, cultural discussions in supervision, and the trainee's acculturation process. Using quantitative methodology, data collected from 19 pairs of supervisors and Asian international trainees in counseling related programs was analyzed to examine group differences in individual

characteristics, the relationship between individual characteristics from both parties, and the predictions of cultural discussions and trainees' acculturation levels by the individual characteristics.

The results found that there were differences, which might affect by cultural factors, in cognitive style and supervisory style preference between supervisors and trainees. Although the similarities of these individual characteristics between supervisors and trainees could not predict cultural discussions in supervision, supervisors with stronger Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation seemed to encourage more cultural discussions in supervision. A stronger Asian identity was reported by trainees in supervisory pairs with more similar theoretical orientations. Trainees' preference for Affiliative supervisory style and Multicultural theoretical orientation and supervisors' preference for Family Systems theoretical orientation were predictive of trainees' Asian identity. Furthermore, several correlations were found among the individual characteristics between supervisors and trainees, including supervisors' Multicultural preferences and trainees' Self-disclosing preferences.

Implication of this study suggested that supervisors should be aware of the cultural differences and the strengths and the weaknesses of one's individual characteristics. Taking these individual characteristics into consideration may help supervisors of Asian international counseling trainees to enhance their supervisory relationship, promote cultural discussions, and facilitate trainee's acculturation process. Limitations and recommendations were addressed for future research.

INDEX WORDS: Asian, international students, counseling, multicultural, supervision,
training, cognitive style, theoretical orientation, supervisory style, cultural
discussion

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DEDICATION

Receiving my doctoral degree is an honor that I share with my family and all the people who have believed in me. This dissertation is especially dedicated to my loving, caring, selfless parents, Ming-Fu Wu and Su-Ling Kao, and the most supportive, devoted, resourceful advisor, Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero. The accomplishment is also shared with my dearest friend, Chih-Hao Chuang, who provided me with endless encouragement and strength, and my beloved pet bunnies, Caramel and Boo Wu, who brought joy and laughter in my life as I struggled through my years in the doctoral program. I would not have come so far and reached my dream without having you in my life.

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return the favor by providing useful recommendations to counseling-related programs regarding appropriate training and supervision for Asian international counseling students.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|---------------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | v |
| LIST OF TABLES | xii |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xiii |
| CHAPTER | |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Statement of the Problem | 11 |
| Purpose of the Present Study | 14 |
| Definition of Terms | 17 |
| Research Questions and Hypotheses | 19 |
| 2 LITERATURE REVIEW | 22 |
| Supervision | 22 |
| Relationship in Supervision | 25 |
| Cognitive Style in Supervision Relationship | 27 |
| Theoretical Orientation in Supervision Relationship | 30 |
| Supervisory Style | 33 |
| Asian international Students and Cognitive Style, Theoretical Orio | entation, and |
| Supervisory Style | 35 |
| International Students in the United States | 38 |

| | International Counseling Trainees in Supervision | 41 |
|---------|---|-----|
| | Issues Faced by International Counseling Trainees | 43 |
| | Acculturation | 47 |
| | Cultural Discussions | 52 |
| 3 | METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES | 56 |
| | Research Design | 56 |
| | Description of Sample | 57 |
| | Data Collection Procedures | 62 |
| | Instrumentation | 64 |
| | Methods of Data Analysis | 68 |
| 4 | RESULTS | 74 |
| | Hypothesis Testing | 74 |
| | Result Summary | 85 |
| 5 | DISCUSSION | 88 |
| | Conclusion | 88 |
| | Implications | 95 |
| | Limitations and Future Directions | 99 |
| | Summary | 103 |
| REFERE | NCES | 106 |
| APPEND: | ICES | |
| A | Recruitment Letter to Trainee | 124 |
| В | Recruitment Letter to Supervisor | 125 |
| C | IRB Consent Form for Trainee | 126 |

| D | IRB Consent Form for Supervisor | 127 |
|---|--|-----|
| Е | Demographic Questionnaires | 128 |
| F | International Student Supervision Scale-Multicultural Discussion | 129 |
| G | Supervisory Styles Index | 130 |
| Н | Cognitive and Theoretical Orientation Questionnaires | 131 |
| I | Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale | 132 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Pag | zе |
|--|----|
| Γable 1: Age Range of Participants5 | 8 |
| Γable 2: Participants by Race/Ethnicity5 | 59 |
| Γable 3: Demographic Characteristics of Trainee Participants | 50 |
| Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of Supervisor Participants | 52 |
| Table 5: Cognitive Style, Theoretical Orientation, and Supervisory Style Differences Between | |
| Supervisors and Trainees | 6 |
| Table 6: Correlation Coefficients for MBTI and TOPS-R | 18 |
| Table 7: Correlation Coefficients for TOPS-R and SSI | 19 |
| Γable 8: Correlation Coefficients for SSI and MBTI | 30 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | Page |
|---|------|
| Figure 1: Gender Matches in Paired Supervisors and Trainees | 58 |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The number of U.S. international students at colleges and universities continues to rise as international student enrollment increased 5% during the 2010/11 academic year (Open Doors, 2011). Same phenomenon can also be found in the field of psychology in the United States. The most recent census report showed that approximately 8.2% of the student population in APA-accredited counseling psychology programs was identified as international students (Forrest, 2010). With the increased number of U.S. international counseling students, internationalization of counseling psychology has begun to receive more attention in Division 17 of the American Psychological Association in the past decade (Gerstein, Heppner, Ægisdottir, Leung, & Norsworthy, 2008). Along with the focus on international issues in the counseling psychology curriculum (Marsella & Peterson, 2004), growing concerns have been addressed in the literature to expand the knowledge and understanding of training issues and experiences faced by U.S. international counseling students (Ng, 2012).

The nationality distribution of U.S. international students in counseling related programs was not revealed in the publication. However, Asian international student population accounted for slightly over 50% of the U.S. international student population according to the Open Doors report in 2011. The same report showed that the top 6 sending countries are China, India, South Korea, Taiwan, Japan, and Vietnam respectively. Although these countries may be geographically assigned to the region of Asia, "Asian" is a relatively broad term to describe a group of people accounting for over 60% of the world's population (Heilig, 2012). For example,

East Asians, including Chinese, Japanese, South Korean, and Taiwanese, may be categorized as a group due to their historical relations with each other and cultural influence under Confucianism (Johnson & Sandhu, 2007). On the other hand, people from Indian subcontinent may be called South Asians (Ibrahim & Ingram, 2007). Most of them shared values and beliefs originated from Hinduism or Buddhism and have experienced British colonialism. The complexity and diversity of the cultures, languages, religions, economic structures, and belief systems still exist within each subcategory. Thus, any research studying Asians should be aware of the heterogeneity that exists in this population, especially when interpreting and generalizing results of research (Kim, Yang, Atkinson, Wolfe, & Hong, 2001).

The increasing number of international students is a positive sign for the U.S., especially for its economy and education. While the U.S. continues to face financial crisis for the past few years, U.S. international students contributed more than \$21 billion to the U.S. economy (Open Doors, 2011). Most of the time, foreign countries provided funding to send their most talented students to the U.S. Although these international students are sent here to learn advanced technology from the U.S., they take important roles in advancing the fields, such as math and science, and are highly-skilled workers for the U.S. high-tech industries (Business Insider, 2011). Besides helping out the local businesses through their daily expenses, international students also bring in variety of cultures that enhance the education and diversity on campus and/or in local community and challenge the monolingual, ethnocentric education system (Peterson et al., 1999; Killian, 2001). Without leaving the country, U.S. students and/or U.S. citizens have the opportunity to broaden their worldviews, expanding their life experiences, and obtain skills and knowledge that would better prepare them for the global workforce through their interaction with international students (see example at http://www.mlive.com/business/west-

michigan/index.ssf/2010/10/opinion_west_michigan_benefits.html).

With the increased international student enrollment in the United States, the responsibility of the U.S. education system is to provide culturally sensitive services and appropriate learning environment for the U.S. international students in order to help them perform to their fullest potential. Since 1980's, extensive research studies have addressed the issues and challenges faced by U.S. international students during their stay in the United States (Yuen & Tinsley, 1981; Williamson, 1982; Leong & Chou, 1996; Mori, 2000; Singaravelu & Pope, 2007). Literature regarding mental health services for the U.S. international students focused on issues and unique experiences such as cultural shock, language barrier, acculturation process, legal issues, homesickness, anxiety, stress, depression, career decision, support system, resistance to counseling services, and therapist's competence in providing services to the U.S. international students (Berry & Kim, 1988; Lazarus, 1997; Mori, 2000; Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994; Arthur, 1997; Yang, Wong, Hwang, & Heppner, 2002; Coppi, 2007).

International students not only need to adjust to the new culture, language, life style, and academic system, but also face general challenges of a graduate student and their stages in life development (Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Chen, 1999; Wedding, McCartney, & Currey, 2009; Leung et al., 2009). Besides adjusting to the host country, their stress may also come from the high expectations from the receiving and sending countries and the uncertainties of staying or returning to their home country after graduation (Kracen et al., 2008; Lau & Ng, 2012). These stressors can potentially lead international students to experience acculturation stress and become overwhelmed, burnout, depressed, anxious, and physically ill, which could impede their academic performance (Thomas & Althen, 1989; Mori, 2000).

Similar to the trend of U.S. international student population, the number of international students is also rising in the psychology field. They accounted for approximately 8% of the counseling student population in APA accredited programs (Norcross et al., 2010; Forrest, 2010). Data collected from Institute of International Education (2009) indicated a 16.1% increase in the number of international students in psychology from 2008 to 2009 when compared to the numbers of international students from 2007 to 2008. These students create a diverse learning environment in the program, provide excellent resources during culture-related conversations in the classroom, and give chance for the U.S. students to interact with people from another country (Killian, 2001; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Smith & Ng, 2009).

The culture diversity and knowledge brought by the international counseling students also challenged the monolingual culture and the western-centered worldview that was embedded in the psychology since the beginning of counseling profession (Ng, 2006a). International students may bring different perspectives on counseling skills, which could prompt the field to examine and become aware of what might have been overlooked in counseling. For example, the members in the international counseling student discussion group acknowledged the different presentations and interpretations of non-verbal behaviors between them and their clients due to different cultural backgrounds (Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010).

Their insights and their own unique experiences are also contributive in advancing the multicultural movement and play an indispensable role in the internationalization of counseling psychology in the United States (Casas, Park, & Cho, 2010; Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009). As the psychology field moves toward internationalization (Stevens & Wedding, 2004; Leung et al., 2009; Ægisdottir & Gerstein, 2010), international counseling students often build the bridge to connect the gap between research and clinical practice in the United States and around the world.

They not only bring counseling skills acquired in the United States to other countries, but those who decide to go back to their home country after graduation often hold leadership positions in academic fields or mental health professions in their country (Lau & Ng, 2012). Their connections with researchers and scholars from their home countries also increase the possible cooperation of international research projects with the U.S. researchers and scholars (Hasan, Fouad, & Williams-Nickelson, 2008). Additionally, with more recognition of local psychology outside of the United States, it helped increasing studies and applications of indigenous psychology in the United States, which has been receiving more attention in the recent years (Allwood & Berry, 2006; Hill, Lau, & Sue D.W., 2010; Leong & Pearce, 2011).

Despite the increased number of international counseling students and the benefits that international counseling students brought to the field, not enough effort has shown in advocating for this population regarding their training and supervision needs in psychology programs (Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010). Since Giorgis and Helms pointed out the training barriers for U.S. international counseling students in 1978, this issue did not receive further attention in empirical research until in the early 2000's. Thus far, 18 published articles, 1 book, and 3 dissertations were found relevant to recruiting or training and supervising international counseling trainees during the literature search through PsychINFO database in October of 2012 (Park-Saltzman, Wada, & Mogami, 2012; Ng & Smith, 2012; Lau & Ng, 2012; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010; Koyama, 2010; Smith & Ng, 2009; Ng & Smith, 2009; Mori, Inman, & Caskie, 2009; Wedding, McCartney, & Currey, 2009; Nilsson & Wang; 2008; Hasan, Fouad, & Williams-Nickelson, 2008; Nilsson, 2007; Fuller, 2006; Ng, 2006a; Ng, 2006b; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Chen, 2004; Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2000; Giorgis & Helms, 1978). All these articles unanimously called for more attention

and further investigation in developing effective training and supervision for the U.S. international counseling trainees.

According to the literature review, when understanding training issues in multicultural supervision, international student group in psychology should be set apart from the traditional racial/ethnic minority groups in the United States due to their cultural backgrounds (Giorgis & Helms, 1978; Ng, 2006a; Wedding et al., 2009). In general, they can be expected to experience adjustments to understand and accept counseling theories that are rooted in Western culture. Besides common issues experienced by U.S. international students, international counseling trainees encounter unique issues due to the criteria and requirements pertain only to counseling psychology program in the United States (Wedding, McCartney, & Currey, 2009). Especially international students from Asia or Africa, they might feel uneasy or resistant to the practice of self-disclosure and self-awareness, which are fundamental in counseling psychology training model but rarely taught or promoted in their non-Western culture (Rhinesmith, 1985; Story, 1982).

While counseling psychology program is one of few professions that "require more sensitivity to the nuances and subtleties of language" (p. 191 in Wedding et al., 2009), international counseling trainees whose primary language is not English may encounter challenges in many circumstances during their academic and clinical training (Ng, 2006a; Wedding et al, 2009). For example, language barriers might limit their participation in class discussions, which is a teaching approach highly relied on in counseling program. In supervision and in therapy sessions with clients, they might experience communication challenges for failing to pick up subtle meanings that require either proficiency in a language or cultural knowledge of the context (Mittal & Wieling, 2006). These language challenges could lead to

misunderstanding, mistrust in relationship, and further lower their self-efficacy as a psychologist, which could affect the effectiveness of their counseling skills.

Besides the issue with English language usage, mismatch of cognitive style and teaching style and different styles of communication and interpersonal relationship might also create challenges in their learning experiences (Killian, 2001; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007; Johnson & Sandbu, 2007; Koyama, 2010; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010). For example, instead of initiating self-exploration process or voicing their needs in supervision, Asian international counseling trainees might bring up important issues at the end of supervision session due to their circular form or indirect style of communication (Koyama, 2010; Scollon & Wong-Scollon, 1991; Fox, 1997; Johnson, 1997). For another example, Asian international counseling trainees who were less acculturated to Western values and ways of thinking might feel more comfortable with teacher-centered, structured style of supervision than with equality in supervisory relationship and independent style of learning practiced in the Western education system (Killian, 2001).

Furthermore, the communication and interpersonal relationship style learned from a hierarchical, authoritarian education system may also hinder the supervisory or peer relationship and make Asian international counseling trainees less likely to express their opinions, ask help from faculty, or advocate for their needs in the U.S. program (Koyama, 2010; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010). Without culture background knowledge, supervisors might misinterpret these kind of behaviors as avoidance behaviors, inappropriately evaluate international counseling trainees as lack of self-confidence or self-efficacy, and fail to provide supervision that meet the trainee's learning needs. Most importantly, this kind of misunderstandings could result in poor supervisory relationship and training outcomes. Therefore, culture knowledge regarding ones'

cognitive style, communication style, and interpersonal style is especially important for supervisors who provide multicultural supervision to U.S. international counseling students.

Reentry issue is another area of focus that explored the transition experiences and adjustment issues when international counseling students are considering or deciding to go back to their home countries (Killian, 2001; Chen, 2004; Smith & Ng, 2009; Lau & Ng, 2012).

Research found that female returnees might face greater reentry shock and adjustment problems (e.g. interpersonal relationship issues and stereotypes on gender roles) than male returnees because gender expectations from home country might be more conservative than those from the host country (Thompson & Christofi, 2006). International counseling trainees who received the U.S.-based training may also feel disconnect with the professional field in another country and have doubts about the relevance and applicability of the counseling knowledge and skills that were developed in the U.S. context (Ng, 2006a). Thus, previous research recommended that counseling programs and supervisors should tailor their training and supervision and encourage international counseling trainees to learn methods and knowledge that are culturally appropriate and relevant to the local context of their country.

According to general supervision research, interpersonal relationship is critical to successful supervision (Larson, 1998; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). This is more so for international students as they tend to rely on faculty members or supervisors for their main support during their stay in the United States (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Ng, 2006a; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010). However, supervisors in counseling psychology program are also in the position of evaluating and assessing trainees' personal and professional development (Goodyear & Bernard, 2009). Without trust and safe environment, international counseling students might experience hesitance to seek out support or self-disclose cultural issues to their

supervisors in fear of being evaluated as multiculturally incapable or emotionally dependent (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004). The result of lacking support may lead international counseling students to experience mental and/or physical distress and hinder their academic performance. Therefore, supervisors were advised to pay attention to building positive relationship with international counseling students so that effective training and needed validation can be delivered to this student population.

Aside from providing necessary support, positive supervisory relationship is also related to cultural discussions and acculturation process or cultural identity development, which are two main focuses in supervision with international counseling trainees (Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002; Nilsson, 2007; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Inman, 2006; Ng, 2006a; Mori et al., 2009; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Ng & Smith, 2012). The research showed that when an international counseling trainee is more familiar with U.S. culture, the supervisory relationship, trainee's satisfaction with supervision, and trainee's counseling and course self-efficacy are predicted to be more positive (Ng & Smith, 2012; Mori et.al, 2009; Chen, 2004; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2007). Based on the suggestions of previous research, facilitating cultural discussions is considered as an important way to help international counseling trainees to advance in their acculturation level, improve supervisory relationship, and develop their multicultural competence and racial identity (Constantine, 1997; Gopaul-McNicol & Brice-Baker, 1998; Harber, 1996; Kaiser, 1997; D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997; Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Nilsson & Anderson 2004; Ancis & Marshall, 2010; Ng & Smith, 2012).

While supervisors of international counseling trainees are recommended to help trainees become familiarized with U.S. culture and advanced in their acculturation process, the goal of the acculturation process is not to help them adopt Western identity in the expense of their Asian

values and beliefs (Nilsson, 2007). The supervisory relationship is better enhanced when supervisors express acceptance of cultural differences (Ancis & Marshall, 2010). Particularly with international counseling trainees, maintaining their cultural identity of origins might be necessary if they are planning to go back to their home countries (Brabant et al., 1990). Therefore, supervisor's work of helping with trainee's acculturation process should involve with cultural conversations to gain knowledge of trainee's acculturation level and assist trainee to adjust to Western culture while developing his/her cultural identity according to his/her needs.

Although researchers unanimously confirmed and recommended supervisors to place emphasis on supervisory relationship, cultural discussions, and trainee's acculturation level when providing supervision to the U.S. international counseling trainees (Ng, 2006a; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Mori et al., 2009; Ng & Smith, 2012), some controversy results were indicated regarding the relationships among cultural discussions, working alliances, acculturation level, and trainee's self-efficacy (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Ng & Smith, 2012). Therefore, future research is called for to investigate other factors (e.g. personality variables and supervision interventions) that might contribute to the success for international counseling trainees.

In summary, a literature review in the area of providing multicultural supervision for U.S. international counseling students called for urgent attention to examine the appropriateness of using current training and supervision model for this population due to their cultural backgrounds being different from the U.S. counseling trainees. Current research has suggested that culturally competent supervisors need to have the knowledge and skills to help international counseling trainees advance in their acculturation process in order to build positive supervisory relationship and prepare trainees to become self-efficient as psychologist. Supervisors are more

likely to achieve this goal when they know how to initiate and facilitate cultural discussions in supervision. More empirical study is needed to find contributing factors to positive supervisory relationship, effective cultural discussions, and trainee's acculturation process.

Statement of the Problem

An extensive review of the literature on supervision with U.S. international counseling trainees revealed four concerns that need to be addressed in this research area.

First of all, although supervisory relationship, acculturation process, and cultural discussions (e.g. addressing cultural differences between the supervisor and the trainee or trainee's acculturation difficulties) were generally recommended as an emphasis in multicultural supervision with the U.S. international counseling trainees, further investigation is needed to find culturally appropriate supervision interventions for achieving these goals in supervision (Ng & Smith, 2012; Nilsson, 2007; Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Gatmon et al., 2001; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002). More recently, a few empirical studies have looked into culture discussions through the examination of critical incidences in supervision, use of case scenarios, or individual experience sharing (Colistra & Brown-Rice, 2011; Thomas et al., 2011; Ancis & Marshall, 2010; Brinson, Brew, & Denby, 2008; Hess et al., 2008), but such contents and approaches have not been studied on U.S. international counseling trainees whose values and beliefs, communication style, and training needs are very different from U.S. counseling trainees or other international counseling trainees. Therefore, an elaborative research is called for examining supervisory approaches which supervisors could effectively enhance supervisory relationship, assist acculturation process and facilitate cultural discussions in supervision with U.S. international counseling trainees.

Secondly, previous studies on U.S. international counseling trainees tended to focus on cultural related factors when exploring cross-cultural supervisory relationship dyad and examining supervision outcome. In general supervision research, individual characteristics, which include cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style, were found associate with supervisory relationship and supervision outcome (Handley, 1982; Longanbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; Putney, Worthington, & McCullough, 1992; Lochner & Merchert, 1997; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Miler & Ivey, 2006; Hess et al., 2008; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Chen& Bernstein, 2000; Falender et al., 2004; Spelliscy, 2007). For example, the differences of supervisory style and theoretical orientation between supervisors and trainees can resulted in poor supervisory relationship and contribute to trainees' nondisclosure in supervision (Hess et al., 2008). In a study regarding discussions on spirituality, trainees' perceived supervisory style of their supervisors was also found related to the frequency of cultural-related issues addressed in supervision (Miller & Ivey, 2006).

Although some distinguish traits (e.g. cognitive or communication style, learning style, and interpersonal relationship style) apart from U.S. students were detected among U.S. international students (Chung, 1993; Yeh & Wang, 2000; Killians, 2001; Zane & Yeh, 2002; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Kuo, Roysircar, & Newby-Clark, 2006; Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007; Mori et al., 2009; Mark et al., 2009; Park-Saltzman, Wada, & Mogami, 2012), no further investigation has been done on the effects of these individual characteristics on the supervision process and outcome with this target trainee group. Therefore, when exploring factors that may contribute to supervisory relationship, cultural discussions in supervision and trainees' acculturation level, research should examine individual characteristics of supervisors and U.S. international counseling trainees in order to broaden the understanding of U.S.

international counseling trainees' experiences in a multicultural supervision and understand their unique learning needs resulted from their cultural backgrounds.

Thirdly, although previous studies found several unique variables that contributed to effective supervision with U.S. international counseling trainees, data from previous studies were mainly collected from the trainees' perspectives. Across the literature, it was commonly recommended that future study should collect data from both supervisors and trainees so that relationship dynamic can be fully examined through both parties' individual characteristics and perspectives (Helms & Cooks, 1999; Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Mori et al., 2009; Rice et al., 2009). As an example, the need can be demonstrated through the model of interpersonal interaction dynamic proposed by Ancis and Ladany (2001). Based on the match of supervisor's and trainee's interpersonal functioning (individual characteristics), each of the 4 interpersonal interaction dynamics could predict different working alliance in supervision, supervision outcome, and client outcome. Therefore, it was suggested that future research should recruit both supervisors and trainees to obtain their individual characteristics and perspectives in order to illustrate a full picture of supervision process.

At last, in previous research studies, the U.S. international counseling students tend to be categorized together as a group despite their culture, countries of origins, and type of training program. This limitation has been addressed in the studies as researchers recognized that international students from different regions of the world might have different experiences with their training program, racist incidents, acculturation process, and use of English (Singaravelu & Pope, 2007; Inman et al., 2008; Ng, 2006a; Sodowsky & Plake, 1992; Nilsson, 2007; Mori et al., 2009). Furthermore, according to Mori et al. (2009), these within group differences may have skewed the data or limited the variability of the data, which could affect the interpretation of the

results in those studies. Thus, it was recommended that future research should evaluate the within group differences when conducting multicultural supervision research on the U.S. international counseling trainees.

In summary, previous studies showed four limitations in current research on supervision and training issues for the U.S. international counseling trainees. First, cultural-sensitive approaches for building positive supervisory relationship, conducting cultural discussions in supervision, and facilitating trainee's acculturation process have not been examined elaborately with the U.S. international counseling trainees. Secondly, individual characteristics, such as cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style, have not been tested to see cultural differences and their effects on supervision process and outcome with the U.S. international counseling trainee population. Thirdly, it has been suggested that future research study should gather data and perspectives from both supervisors and trainees to understand the supervision process and outcome in a holistic manner. Lastly, heterogeneous issue should be addressed when conducting research targeting U.S. international counseling trainee group.

Purpose of the Present Study

The present study attempted to address the four limitations in the current literature mentioned in the above section. By emphasizing on the positive supervisory relationship, this study was designed to explore factors that might strengthen supervisory relationship, promote cultural discussions in supervision, and assist trainee's acculturation process. The present study aimed to provide a full picture of multicultural supervision process and an empirical foundation to help clinical supervisors to provide an effective, cultural-sensitive supervision that will meet the needs of Asian international counseling trainees.

The present study targeted at the Asian international counseling trainees in the United States to address the heterogeneous issues within U.S. international counseling trainee population. They were separated from the general population because of their non-English-speaking, non-Western culture backgrounds, which might lead them having more challenges in learning and acculturating to the U.S. culture than other international students from English-speaking, Western countries (Yeh & Inose, 2003; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Ng, 2006a; Wedding et al., 2009; Smith & Ng, 2009; Ng & Smith, 2012). Asian international students are also considered as the leading population among the U.S. international student group (Open Doors, 2011). Therefore, the present study intended to target at the Asian international counseling trainees to exclude possible contributing factors such as language and value differences between Western and non-Western world.

Since cultural differences in cognitive style, communication style, and interpersonal relationship style were noted among international counseling trainees, the present study intended to explore cultural differences in cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees. Based on the suggestions from the general supervision research, this researcher also explored the effects of these three individual characteristics on supervision process and outcome, such as the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision or trainee's acculturation level. The present study hypothesized that there would be cultural differences in individual characteristics between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees. Additionally, it was hypothesized that either the matching of individual characteristics between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees or individual characteristics of the supervisors and the trainees would increase the cultural discussions in supervision and predict the acculturation level of the trainees.

Proposed by previous research, the operation of one's theoretical orientation is similar to one's cognitive style (Lochner & Merchert, 1997; Andrew, 1989). Both were found as a prediction for one's preferred supervisory style. However, according to the literature review, no study has attempted to examine these individual characteristics with Asian international counseling trainees or their effects in supervision process and outcome. Thus, the present study planned to explore the correlations among cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees. The goal was to learn the correlations among individual characteristics between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees who were in positive supervisory relationship so that other supervisors would be able to utilize the knowledge to modify their supervision interventions to develop their supervisory relationships and meet the training needs of Asian international counseling trainees.

In summary, the present study focused on the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees in positive supervisory relationship and explore factors that might improve supervision satisfaction, promote cultural discussions in supervision, and help trainee's acculturation process. These factors were the supervisors' and trainees' cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style. First of all, to see if cultural differences exist, group differences of these factors were calculated between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees. Secondly, each factor and the matches of these factors between supervisor and trainee were used to predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision and trainees' acculturation level. Thirdly, the correlations among these factors between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees were tested to find matches that might contribute to the positive supervisory relationship. The purpose of the study aimed to

broaden the understanding of Asian international counseling trainees' supervision experiences and provide clinical supervisors with recommendations that would meet the needs of Asian international counseling trainees in supervision.

Definition of Terms

Acculturation: It is a process where one gradually receives, obtains, and integrates another culture into his/her original cultural values and beliefs, which changes one's attitude and behaviors. Authoritarian: It's a type of a relationship where submissive to authority figure is valued. Circular form: A form of communication where dialogue begins with a substantial period of small talk and the main point may be introduced later in the conversation. Cognitive Style: It's a preference which one perceives, understands, and integrates information from the outer world and forms certain attitude to interact with the outer world. Hierarchical Relationship: It's a relationship where one has certain power and control over the other. A form of communication which is subtle and Indirect style implicit.

Individual Characteristics: Refer to those unique personal qualities that make up one's personality. For example, cognitive style, experience level, and cultural identities **Multicultural Supervision** Generally refers to supervisory situations in which supervisors, trainees, and/or clients differ from each other culturally, such as in race, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, and gender. Supervisory Style: Refers to the approach that supervisor takes to interact with trainees in supervision. Theoretical Orientation A model based on a theory or theories to help clinician assess and conceptualize client behaviors or personality, provide interventions, and interact with clients. U.S. International Student: A Non-U.S. citizenship student who came to the U.S. on a F-1 visa for the purpose of studying and pursuing an academic degree. U.S. International Counseling Student: An U.S. international student who studied in the counseling related field. U.S. International Counseling Trainee: An U.S. international counseling student who was receiving clinical training and supervision while

providing counseling services to the client.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study aimed to address the following questions and hypotheses:

Question 1: In a positive supervisory relationship, are there differences between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, or preferred supervisory styles?

Null Hypothesis I(A). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles.

Null Hypothesis I(B). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' and trainees' theoretical orientations.

Null Hypothesis I(C). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' and trainees' supervisory styles.

Question 2: In a positive relationship, is there a relation between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and supervisory styles between supervisors and trainees?

Null Hypothesis 2.1. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles and theoretical orientations.

Null Hypothesis 2.2. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisors' and trainees' theoretical orientations and supervisory styles.

Null Hypothesis 2.3. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles and supervisory styles.

Question 3: In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and preferred supervisory styles predict the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision?

Null Hypothesis 3.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 3.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' theoretical orientations and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 3.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' supervisory styles and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Question 4: In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and supervisory styles predict trainees' acculturation levels?

Null Hypothesis 4.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' cognitive styles and trainees' acculturation levels.

Null Hypothesis 4.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' theoretical orientations and trainees' acculturation levels.

Null Hypothesis 4.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisors' and trainees' supervisory styles and trainees' acculturation levels.

Question 5: In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisors' or trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and preferred supervisory styles predict the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision?

Null Hypothesis 5.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' or trainees' cognitive styles and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 5.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' or trainees' theoretical orientations and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 5.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' and trainees' supervisory styles and the frequencies of cultural discussions in supervision.

Question 6: In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisors' or trainees' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and supervisory styles predict trainees' acculturation levels?

Null Hypothesis 6.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' or trainees' cognitive styles and trainees' acculturation levels.

Null Hypothesis 6.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' or trainees' theoretical orientations and trainees' acculturation levels.

Null Hypothesis 6.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisors' or trainees' supervisory styles and trainees' acculturation levels.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Supervision

Clinical supervision is considered as a fundamental component of training and accreditation in counseling psychology since the beginning of psychoanalysis (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987; Holloway & Neufeldt, 1995; Lochner & Melchert, 1997; Barnett, Cornish, Goodyear, & Lichtenberg, 2007; APA, 2003). Supervision is defined as "a process in which an experienced person (supervisor) with appropriate training and experience mentors and teaches a subordinate (supervisee)" (Bradley & Kottler, 2001). The supervisor's responsibilities include enhancing trainees' growth and competence as a professional and evaluating their clinical work, as well as monitoring clients' welfare and trainees' services to the public (Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Supervision is critical for novice counseling trainees as they continue to refine their counseling skills during their clinical training in becoming self-efficacious, competent, expert practitioners.

Since 1970's, theoretical literature and empirical studies have been dedicated to developing supervision models and finding common factors that promote effective supervision (Holloway, 1995). During 1980's ad 1990's, psychotherapy-theory-based supervision, social-role supervision models, and developmental approaches to supervision were the most widely-known supervision models (Lochner & Melchert, 1997; Bradley, 1989; Bernard, 1997; Stoltenberg, 1981). The most traditional model, psychotherapy-theory-based supervision, is based on the principles used in

particular schools of psychotherapy to promote behavior change in supervision, i.e. cognitive-behavioral supervision. However, social-role supervision and developmental approaches have been identified as the two major supervision approaches in the more recently proposed cross-theoretical approaches to conduct an effective supervision (Russell, Crimmings, & Lent, 1984; Holloway, 1992).

According to developmental models, trainees' needs from the supervision change as trainees go through developmental process in the course of supervised clinical experience. Social role models suggested that supervisors should delineate their role boundaries and expectations within supervision in order to promote trainees' professional socialization, functioning, and understanding of their responsibilities. However, despite their popularity, both supervision models disregard other individual differences of trainees and supervisors (besides developmental level) that might have an effect on the supervision process and outcome. In regard to this, some attention from the supervision literature is also placed on studying individual characteristics, such as cognitive-learning style and theoretical orientation (Handley, 1982; Nelson & Stake, 1994; Rigazio-Digilio, 1998; Lochner & Melchert, 1997; Minton & Myers, 2008; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Boswell, Castonguay, & Pincus, 2009) as well as finding common factors, like supervisory relationship, which could contribute to successful supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009).

However, as the demographics of clientele becomes more culturally diverse and the possibility of supervisor and trainee are from different cultural backgrounds continues to grow (Sue & Sue, 1999; Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1998; Locke & Kiselica, 1999; Dittmann, 2003; Ortman & Guarneri, 2009), these traditional supervision models have been criticized for failing to address multicultural variables of supervisor and trainee in supervision dynamic and lack of

attention on supervisor's and trainee's multicultural counseling competence (Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992; Yutrzenka, 1995; Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1998; Locke & Kiselica, 1999; Ancis & Ladany, 2001).

Following the assertion made by Pederson (1991) that multiculturalism is the fourth force in psychology, multicultural or cross-cultural supervision has become a new focus in supervision literature and received increasing attention from researchers and clinicians (Leong & Wagner, 1994; Bernard & Goodyear, 1992). Both multicultural supervision and cross-cultural supervision are terms that have been used interchangeably. It is defined as any supervisory counseling relationship in which the clinical supervisor, the supervisee, and/or the client are from dissimilar cultural groups in terms of race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality orientation, social class, disability, and spirituality (Leong & Wagner, 1994; Fong, 1994; Estrada, Frame, & Williams, 2004; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). As the cultural demographics of supervisors, trainees, and clients are becoming more diverse (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1998), the past few decades have been an increase in the importance of cross-cultural supervision literature.

An overview of the cross-cultural supervision literature led to a conclusion that the role of culture in building a relationship cannot be ignored as it may lead to miscommunication and conflict due to unspoken expectation and assumptions (Draguns, 1989) and further hinder supervisory relationship development (Guiterrez, 1982; Cook & Helms, 1988; Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999; Gardner, 2002; Benard & Goodyear, 2009). Besides addressing the uniqueness of cross-cultural supervisory relationship (Brown & Landrum-Brown, 1995; D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997; Fong & Lease, 1997; Kaiser, 1997), literature attempted to specify particular problems and form theoretical models in cross-cultural supervision (Vasquez & McKinley, 1982; Carney & Kahn, 1984; Remington & DaCosta, 1989; Peterson, 1991; Bernard

& Goodyear, 1992). Proposed solutions for conducting successful cross-cultural supervision include raising self-awareness by exploring culture of self and others, increasing cultural sensitivity, and discussing cultural issues in cross-cultural supervision (Tyler et al., 1991; Fong, 1994; D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997; Nilsson, 2000; Bernard & Goodyear 2009). Although it has been documented that cultural discussion in cross-cultural supervision can increases trainee's multicultural competence and promotes effective intervention for culturally diverse clients (Leong & Wagner, 1994; Harber, 1996; Kaiser, 1997; Sue & Sue, 1999; Nilsson, 2000; Killian, 2001; Gardner, 2002; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009), previous literature indicated a need for more empirical study in this area (Leong & Wagner, 1994).

Relationship in Supervision

The purpose of clinical supervision in counseling is to help novice trainees increase sense of self-efficacy and develop competence skills as a counseling professional. Although research showed that trainees' counseling self-efficacy increases with amount of training, clinical experience, and supervision (Johnson et al., 1989; Larson et al., 1992; Melchert et al., 1996; Sipps et al., 1988), it is imperative for the researchers and supervisors to find out what components made training and supervision successful.

Based on the research relating process and outcome variables in counseling, several researchers identified the therapist-client relationship as a common factor that associates with positive changes in treatment (Grenvacage & Norcross, 1990; Orlinsky & Howard, 1987). Positive treatment outcomes are more likely to happen when therapists can form trusting rapport and establish credibility with their culturally different clients (Sue & Zane, 1987; Zane & Sue, 1991). Since supervision process is paralleled to the processes of counseling, interpersonal relationship was also found as a fundamental factor that has influence on the outcome of

supervision. Such outcomes include professional development and/or counseling competencies of the supervisees, trainee's adherence to a treatment manual, trainee's willingness to disclose, therapeutic alliances of trainees with their clients, role conflict and ambiguity, and satisfaction for supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Olk & Friedlander, 1992; Worthen & McNeill, 1996; Ladany et al., 1996; Patton & Kivlighan, 1997; Ladany et al, 1999; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002; Pearson, 2000; Falender et al., 2004).

Some studies confirmed the effect of supervisory relationship on trainee's self-efficacy. For example, in the study conducted by Ladany et al. (1999), Bandura's (1997) four sources of self-efficacy, which promote trainee's self-efficacy as a counselor, were found in supervision when the supervisory working alliance was strong. Another example is Efstation, Patton, and Kardash's (1990) study which found that trainees' rating of the supervisor working alliance can predict their counseling self-efficacy; although supervisors' ratings of the supervisory working alliance was not related to trainees' counseling self-efficacy. It is also documented in the research that supervisory relationship was the most frequently named incidents that is critical to supervision by the supervision participants (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001).

Borders and colleagues (1991) emphasized the importance of supervisor's ability to develop, maintain, and terminate the supervisory relationship. They included supervisory relationship as one of the seven core areas in their supervision training curriculum. However, merely knowing the importance of establishing positive supervisory relationship is not enough to provide a successful supervision. Therefore, in order to help supervisors strengthen supervisory relationship, researchers also attempted to understand and identify numerous variables that have effect on supervisory relationship (Falender et al., 2004).

Summarized by Bernard and Goodyear (2009), these variables can be studied through two aspects: individual characteristics and interpersonal processes. Interpersonal processes focus on supervisory relationship as a three-person system and attend to the parallel processes, isomorphism, triangulations, and so on to address the complexity of supervisory relationship (Pearson, 2000). Individual characteristics often address both supervisor's and trainee's individual factors that might have impact on the supervisory relationship. These individual characteristics may include cognitive-learning style, theoretical orientation, developmental level, experience level, supervisory style, and cultural identities (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). In summary, both supervisor's and trainee's individual characteristics can affect supervisory relationship, which further predicts the effectiveness of supervision.

Cognitive Style in Supervision Relationship

Cognitive style is considered to be a relatively stable personality attribute that refers to a person's particular way of receiving information, interpreting data, making decisions, and performing actions (Gardner, 1983; Myers & Briggs, 1976; Rigazio-Digilio, 1998; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Unlike the developmental model, each cognitive style is not superior to another but relates to students' and professionals' preferred learning style (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Among individual characteristics that impact the supervisory relationship, research has suggested the utility of cognitive style in counseling treatment, career counseling, consultation, and clinical supervision (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2004; Williams & Tappan, 1995; McCaulley, 2000; Moore et al., 2004). Although incorporating cognitive style into supervision approaches can be beneficial (Rigazio-DiGilio, 1998), the attention has decreased in recent counselor education and supervision research studies (Heher, 2009). Thus, there is a need for research

studies to test its function in supervision models and its effect on supervision process and outcome.

Cognitive style has most often been measured in the psychotherapy literature through use of the Jungian-based Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Nelson & Stake, 1994). This inventory provides four index scores that indicate: 1. where one place focus of interest or receive source of energy (Extroversion/Introversion), 2. how one gather information (Sensing/Intuiting), 3. how information was used in decision making (Feeling/Thinking), and 4. how one manages their environment (Judging/Perceiving). Within the studies of counseling process and outcome, the similarity on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator between therapist and client was proposed to be relevant to the therapy relationship (Newman, 1979) and was found to be positively and linearly related to the duration of counseling (Mendelsohn & Geller, 1963). It was assumed that cognitive style similarity can create better communication and relationship between therapist and client, thus may result in a stronger commitment to counseling and better treatment outcome.

Craig and Sleight (1990) also addressed similar implication from their study of different cognitive style profiles of supervisors and trainees. They suggested that dissimilarity of cognitive style between supervisor and trainee might result in frustration and communication difficulties. More specifically, Lochner and Melchert (1997) found that when supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style profiles are more similar on the Sensing/Intuiting index, supervisor ratings of regard felt toward trainees increase while trainee ratings of regard from their supervisor also increased. Although the cognitive style of the supervisor alone did not affect supervisees' ratings of their relationship with their supervisors or their satisfaction with supervision (Handley, 1982), the similarity between supervisor's and trainee's Sensing/Intuiting index was related to trainees'

ratings of overall satisfaction with supervision (Handley, 1982; Lochner & Melchert, 1997).

Overall, as a result from their meta-analytic data collection, Carpraro and Capraro (2002) reassured that stronger working alliance in supervision could be established more effectively if supervisor would appreciate the strengths and deficits of their own profiles and those of their trainees.

On the other hand, studies have shown controversial results on the relation between cognitive styles of supervisor and trainee and performance ratings of trainee (Goodyear & Guzzardo, 2000). In Carey and Williams' study (1986), trainees' cognitive styles were not related to supervisors' evaluation of them in supervision. Lochner and Melchert (1997) also found no significant relationship between cognitive style similarity and supervisors' evaluations of trainees. But in other studies (Praul, 1969; Handley, 1982) as well as Lochner and Melchert's study (1997), trainees who scored high on Intuitive were evaluated as significantly more competent than Sensing trainees.

Nonetheless, implication from Loganbill, Hardy, and Delworth's (1982) study showed that knowing trainee's cognitive style can help the supervisor tailor his/her teaching and supervisory style to meet trainee's learning needs. Thus, it has been noted that trainee's cognitive style can reflect trainee's preference of supervisory style (Ladany, Marotta, & Muse-Burke, 2001). In the study administered by Lochner and Melchert (1997), trainees with high scores on the Intuiting, Feeling, and Perceiving scales seemed to prefer relationship-oriented supervision, whereas those scoring high on Sensing, Thinking, and Judging would prefer task oriented supervision. Moore and colleagues (2004) also concluded that the cognitive style differences of the supervisee should be considered when supervisors decide their styles in delivering supervision and providing feedback.

In conclusion, cognitive style seems to play a role in clinical supervision, especially in establishing positive supervisory relationship. Researchers does note several cautions when using cognitive style in supervision. First, supervisors should be aware that cognitive style is only one of many factors that can affect the supervisory relationship (Rigazio-DiGilio, 1998; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Gender and culture factors are among those many factors that should be considered when building supervisory relationship and providing effective supervision. Second, instead of using categorical indices of MBTI type (e.g. INFP and ESTJ), continuous MBTI scores are more reliable and provide better discrimination of individual differences in MBTI preference (Nelson and Stake, 1994). With these cautions in mind, supervisors could use cognitive style as a mean to effectively strengthen their working alliance with trainees. Similarly, researchers could use appropriate measures of cognitive style in finding its effect in supervision.

Theoretical Orientation in Supervision Relationship

Goodyear and colleagues (1984) suggested that, "theoretical orientation is related to a supervisor's manifest behaviors, roles, and attitudes" (p. 234). It is not feasible to separate counseling theories from clinical supervision (Pearson, 2006). Similar to cognitive style, one's theoretical orientation not only reflects one's personal visions of the world and one's understanding of human behaviors, but also predicts one's action and interaction with others (Andrews, 1989; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). The majority of research on theoretical orientation has been focused on the effect of therapist's theoretical orientation in treatment and therapeutic relationship with clients (Nathan, 2007).

Research in the psychotherapy area has been studied extensively and states that therapist's theoretical orientation can provide information on how the therapist is likely to conceptualize psychopathology, explain human behavior, approach treatment, and promote positive change

(Beutler, 1983; Day, 2004; Pearson, 2006). There is also some empirical evidence to support a relationship between therapist personality and preferred theoretical orientation (Patterson, Levene, & Breger, 1971). However, only few studies have paid attention to theoretical orientation factors when conducting supervision studies (Putney, Worthington, & McCullough, 1992). Drawing conclusions from the psychotherapy studies, it is worthwhile to investigate how theoretical orientation of supervisor and supervisee affect supervision.

Putney and colleagues (1992) reviewed the supervision literature and summarized that supervisor theory, supervisee theory, theoretical similarity, supervisor experience, and supervisor and supervisee gender are the possible determinants of effectiveness of supervision and supervisee autonomy. Most of the previous studies dealt exclusively with supervisors' theoretical orientation in supervision (Goodyear, Abadie, & Efros, 1984; Goodyear & Robyak, 1982; Pearson, 2006) and concluded that supervisors' theoretical orientation is related to perceived supervisors' supervisory style (Putney et al., 1992). In Friedlander and Ward's (1984) study, they found that supervisors who are humanistic and psychodynamic were rated by trainees as more interpersonally sensitive and less task oriented than supervisors who were cognitive-behavioral. Putney and colleagues (1992) proposed that cognitive behavioral supervisor is often perceived by trainees as taking on a consultant role and focusing on skill development while humanistic, existential, and psychodynamic supervisor is often perceived as playing the role of therapist and focusing on conceptualization of client psychodynamics.

Perhaps, the relationship between supervisor's theoretical orientation and supervisory style can be best illustrated by Pearson's (2006, pp. 242-243) attempt to describe the strengths of each psychotherapy-based models of supervision:

"...the facilitative conditions of empathy, genuineness, and warmth combined with the belief in supervisees' natural tendencies to learn and grow are enduring contributions of the person-center approach (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004)...Major strengths mentioned for the psychodynamic approach included the recognition of interpersonal dynamics in the supervisory and counseling relationships and the emphasis on the supervisory working alliance, described as the relational bond based on a sense of shared goals and tasks (Bordin, 1979, 1983). For the behavioral approach, primary strengths included the adaptability of such techniques as modeling, role-playing, feedback, reinforcement, individualized goal-setting, and evaluation for the purpose of teaching counseling skills. Strengths of the cognitive approach included its emphasis on collaborative goal setting, monitoring, and evaluation as well as the use of cognitive strategies for increasing counselors' awareness of their own thought processes that they bring to their therapeutic work with clients."

Previous research that focused on supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation showed that theoretical orientation could be used to predict trainee's preference for a particular supervisory style (Lochner & Melchert, 1997). When considering theoretical orientation of both supervisor and trainee together, research studies found that theoretical similarity can have a positive effect on supervisory relationship and the trainee's impressions of supervision (Schacht et al., 1989; Putney et al., 1992; Ramos-Sanchez et al., 2002; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). In Kennard and colleagues' (1987) study, theoretical similarity of supervisor and supervisee was identified as a positive influence on supervisees' satisfaction with supervision. Putney, Worthington, and McCullough (1992) also investigated the theoretical orientation of supervisor and supervisee and found that theoretical similarity between supervisors and trainees was strongly related to both perceived effectiveness of supervision and perceptions of supervisee autonomy. Also interesting to note is that perceived similarity between supervisor's and supervisee's theoretical orientation was found to be more important than actual similarity of theoretical orientation (Holloway et al., 1989; Putney et al., 1992).

Supervisory Style

Supervisory style is defined as the preferred manner in which supervisors approach the supervision relationship, create a learning environment, and respond to the needs of trainees to help them learn requisite skills and knowledge (Bernard, 1997; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Heher, 2009). Research found a significant relationship between supervisory style and working alliance (Efstation et al., 1990). It was also noted that trainees rated positively on satisfaction scale for supervision when supervisors were able to create supportive supervisory environment and establishing rapport with trainees (Hilton, Russell, & Salmi, 1995). While preferred supervisory style was found related to cognitive style and theoretical orientation (Lochner & Melchert, 1997), it can be viewed as one of supervisor's individual characteristics that was also found influential in the process and outcome of clinical supervision (Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009).

Differentiated by Friedlander and Ward (1984), three types of supervision style approaches include attractive type, interpersonally sensitive type, and task-oriented type. Supervisory style has been equaled with Bernard's supervisory roles (1997). Supervisors with task-oriented style tend to take a teacher's role, which is focused, goal oriented, and structured in supervision. Supervisors with an attractive style coincide with consultant's role, which tends to create a warm, open, friendly, supportive environment for trainees. Supervisors with interpersonally sensitive style is equal to Bernard's counselor's role, who tends to be invested, therapeutic, and perceptive with their trainees. Overall, it has been found that attractive and interpersonally sensitive styles can predict a strong working alliance reported by trainees (Chen& Bernstein, 2000; Ladany et al., 2001; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Spelliscy, 2007). Supervisors with task-oriented style were found predictive of trainee's perceived self-efficacy and task agreement component of

alliance (Ladany et al., 2001; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005).

In multicultural supervision, supervisor's willingness to self-disclose has received increased attention (Ladnay et al., 1996). Correlations have been found between self-disclosure behavior and traditional supervisory style. For example, supervisors who were perceived as attractive style tend to be perceived as more self-disclosing than supervisors who were perceived as task-oriented style (Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999). However, self-disclosing may be considered as a supervisory style itself. For example, one of the measurements that may be used in assessing supervisor's self-disclosing preference is the Supervisory Styles Index (SSI; Long et al., 1996). It was designed from a feminist approach to training and therapy and has three sets of complementary supervisory styles: Affiliative/Authoritative, Directive/Non-directive, and Self-disclosing/Non-self-disclosing.

Supervisor's use of self-disclosure with trainees may serve as a role model, contribute to supervisory relationship, and predict the strength of the supervisory alliance (Ladany et al., 1996; Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Using the SSI, Miller and Ivey (2006) found that supervisors whose supervisory styles were perceived by trainees as affirmative and self-disclose tend to address spirituality issues more frequently and help trainees feel at ease in supervision. Especially with racial/ethnic mixed pairs of supervisors and trainees, study has shown that discussions of differences and similarities in ethnicity could predict supervisory working alliance (Gatmon et al., 2001).

Although supervisors may have their preferred style of supervision, it is suggested that supervision would be more effective when supervisors adopted varied styles depending on trainee's learning needs and the context of the supervision experience (Bernard, 1997; Holloway, 1995; Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Bernard &

Goodyear, 2009). For example, previous researchers suggested that trainee's developmental level and experience level indicate different emphasis needed in supervision and changes in supervisory style preferences (Hamilton & Borders, 1993; Usher & Borders, 1993; Bernard, 1997; Holloway, 1995; Stoltenberg et al., 1998; Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). They recommended that supervisors might want to adopt primarily teacher's role with beginning trainees and consultant's role with advanced trainees. Besides counselor trainee's experience level, other research also suggested that trainee's interpersonal style variables, such as cognitive style or theoretical orientation, might account for the trainee's preferred supervisory styles (Ladany, Marotta, & Muse-Burke, 2001; Pitts & Miller, 1990; Putney et al., 1992; Lochner & Melchert, 1997).

Asian International Students and Cognitive Style, Theoretical Orientation, and Supervisory Style

One's personality characteristics, values and beliefs, experiences, and principles of the supervisor may emerge as one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and style in approaching supervision (Goodyear et al., 1984; Patterson et al., 1971; Long et al., 1996; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005). In previous studies, cultural differences have been suggested its influence in one's learning style, communication style, and interpersonal relationships (Killian, 2001; House et al., 2004; Koyama; 2010). However, supervision literature seldom includes cultural components when conducting studies regarding the effects of one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style preference on supervision process and outcome (Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005). Therefore, there is an urgent need for more studies in this area in order to expend the knowledge and keep up with the multiculturalism trend in psychology field.

Cognitive scientists might wildly share universalistic view of human cognition; nevertheless, more and more research has shown results that confirm otherwise (Yamazaki's, 2005; Joy & Kolb, 2009). People's way of thinking, feeling, and behaving can transmit to each other within a culture and become automatic reactions when facing specific situations (Triandis, 1994; Nisbett, 2003). For example, coming from a one-way lecturing classroom setting, Asian students maybe incline to depend on the teacher to pass down knowledge to students, instead of relying on independence learning that is valued in the U.S. classroom (Chung, 1993; Crittenden, 1994). With a collectivistic sense of self, Asian students may place priority in others and the communal goals when making decisions and show different problem-solving skills (Kuo, Roysircar, & Newby-Clark, 2006; Yeh & Wang, 2000).

In supervision, it has been suggested that under the influence of saving face, Asian international students may be less willing to self-disclose, overly receptive to supervisor's opinions and feedback, hypercritical of self, and reluctant to participate in group supervision (Mark et al., 2009; Zane & Yeh, 2002; Park-Saltzman, Wada, & Mogami, 2012). They might feel uncomfortable with role ambiguity in supervision due to familiarity with role expectations and social responsibilities that are prescribed by Asian society (Choi & Kim, 2004). Growing up in an authoritarian society, Asian international students can be expected to be submissive to the authority figure in a classroom or in supervision and present with advice-seeking behaviors (Kim et al., 2001). Without the knowledge of Asian culture, such behaviors may be falsely interpreted from a U.S. culture viewpoint and lead to a misevaluation of the student as dependent and incapable in learning on his/her own.

Miscommunication in supervision may also happen due to cultural differences. Whereas the low-context communication style is more common in the U.S. culture, Asians tend to communicate in a high-context communication style, which is an indirect form and leaves room for interpretations according to the setting and the circumstance where the communication takes place (Leong & Lee, 2006). Although This indirect communication style maybe intended as paying respect for the authority figures (e.g. supervisors) in the relationship (Brew & Cairns, 2004), the responsibility of the communication relies on the listeners to understand the meaning of what has been communicated by the speaker. Thus, this could lead to frustrations in supervision when supervisors who are from low-context communication style may expect the speaker (e.g. trainee) to speak directly or his/her mind and be clear about the content of the communication.

Another cultural difference that may create conflict in supervision is the differences between hierarchical and equalitarian relationship styles. In the hierarchical society, each person has different roles and obligations for each role (Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007). Each role and obligations are well defined in each specific relationship, such as parent-child, husband-wife, and teacher-student. In supervision, Asian students might exhibit behaviors, such as avoiding eye contact and addressing supervisor with title, to show respect for their supervisors. Such behaviors may intensify the power difference between a supervisor and a trainee (Chung, 1993; Crittenden, 1994). Despite Asian student's comfort with the power distance, supervisors who are accustomed to equalitarian relationship might feel frustrated with the distance and misinterpreted these behaviors as an indicator of avoidance or incapability to build interpersonal relationship.

Besides the tendency of behaving passively toward their superiors and their elders, Asian international students may also hold different obligations to their family than students from the

United States (Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007). They tend to hold a family identity that counts on the interdependence of family members. They not only might be viewed as dependent, but also be pathologized when they are willing to fulfill their family duties that surpass individual desires (Sodowsky et al., 1995). In addition to the hierarchical relationship, harmony is also highly valued in Asian society (Chung, 1992). In supervisory relationship, Asian international students may try to minimize role conflicts by staying quiet even when they disagree with their supervisors. Rather than respecting their attempt to maintain harmony in the relationship, non-Asian supervisors might translate quietness as lack of assertiveness skills.

In summary, culture, like socialization agent, plays an indispensable role in one's information processing, cognition, and behaviors. During the literature review, little research was found on studying the cultural differences in cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style in counseling supervision. However, through introducing some of the core values in Asian culture, the differences found in communication styles, relationship style, and learning style strongly suggested that cultural differences might exist in cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style between Asian international counseling trainees and non-Asian supervisors. Therefore, an empirical study is needed to further confirm and illustrate how culture may have influence on one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style in supervision.

International Students in the United States

Extensive research studies on issues faced by U.S. international students can be traced back to 1980's through the published journal articles in counseling related field (Yuen & Tinsley, 1981; Williamson, 1982; Leong & Chou, 1996; Mori, 2000; Singaravelu & Pope, 2007). The number of U.S. international students has been increasing for the past 50 years, except for the decline

after the 9/1 terrorist attacks in 2001. According to the latest census collection (Open Doors 2010 data www.opendoors.iienetwork.org), there are record total of 690,923 of international students attending colleges and universities in the United States. The top six countries of origin for international students were from China, India, South Korea, Canada, Taiwan, and Japan respectively. Four of these six countries are categorized as the East Asian countries and account for approximately 36.4% of the international undergraduate and graduate students in the United States. The enrollment of the international students in the United States has reached its all-time high in the year from 2009 to 2010, and the number is expected to continually increase in the future.

Several common issues and challenges have been documented in the literature, addressing the unique experiences of international students in the United States Coming from another country of different cultural background, international students typically experience cultural shock initially and then later going through a series of cross-cultural adjustments in a number of domains (Berry & Kim, 1988). These adjustment changes can develop into acculturation stress depending on how the individual respond to these stressors (Lazarus, 1997). Some of these unique stressors for international students can be language barriers (Mori, 2000), value and worldview conflicts (Mori, 2000), isolation from the family support system (Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994), difficulties in establishing meaningful friendships and interpersonal relationships with host nationals (Mori, 2000; Arthur, 1997), changes in cultural identity (Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994, 1998), different academic system and teaching/learning styles (Thomas & Althen, 1989), financial concerns (Cadieux & Wehrly, 1986), uncertainty in future career plan (Khoo et.al., 1994; Yang, Wong, Hwang, & Heppner, 2002), ethnic prejudice and discrimination (Constantine, Okazaki, & Utsey, 2004; Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994, 1998), and legal restriction and limited

employment (Thomas & Althen, 1989; Coppi, 2007).

When the stress to accommodate to the new culture became greater than one can handle, international students may experience depression, anxiety, irritability, anger, homesickness, withdrawn, hopelessness, inferior feelings, insomnia, and somatic symptoms (Thomas & Althen, 1989; Lewthwaite, 1996) Dealing with those stressors can take enormous energy and time from international students as they experience this so-called "information overload" (Winkelman, 1994). This state of mental exhaustion and burnout may cause international students not fully attend to their academia work and utilize their strengths as they try to achieve their career goals (Mori, 2000).

Adding to the stressors that international students collectively face due to their international status, Furnham and Bochner (1982) also recognized other stressors that are commonly shared by students in general when discussing the difficulties which international students endeavor. For example, all students shared common stressors as one goes through the phases of life as a young adult or deals with conflict roles in the society and at home (e.g. being a student and a mother at the same time). Thus, not only do international students experience transition in their life style as a college/graduate student, but also they experience the transition of cultural identities, values, and beliefs. Although international students may share some issues (e.g. prejudice and discrimination) which the U.S. minority students also face, several articles (Yang et.al., 2006; Leong, 1984) addressed how those issues are experienced differently among those two groups. For example, international students experienced social status change (from being a majority to being a minority) in a later stage of their life; whereas the U.S. minority students grew up with the social status as the minority. Consequently, unlike the U.S. minority students who had already developed effective coping mechanism, international students who usually grew up in a

homogenous society were forced to cope immediately with their new gained racial identity and their new status as a member of minority group when they entered this new country.

Individual differences are also found among international students as a group. In the acculturation research conducted by Sowdowsky and Plake (1992), they found that Africans, Asians, and South Americans perceived prejudice significantly more than did Europeans. European international students' attitude toward acculturation was found to be more bicultural, whereas Africans, Asians, and South Americans tend to prefer holding on to their values and traditions of their own nationality groups. According to Yeh and Inose (2003), Asian international students experience higher acculturative stress than international students from Europe, Central/Latin America, and Africa due to the language barriers and the larger cultural gap exist between Asian culture and Western culture. Other funding also pointed out the differences among countries of the same continent. For example, each country in East Asia "has its unique culture, history, language, customs, and subsequently, differing worldviews", as stated in the article by Sheu and Fukuyama (2007). Thus, the within group differences should be carefully examined as one conduct research on international students in the United States

International Counseling Trainees in Supervision

Like international students in the United States, international counseling students contributed to the program not only by bringing in economic benefits but also by brining diverse cultural backgrounds to the field that is predominately based on White, Western culture (Chellaraj, Maskus, & Mattoo, 2008; Peterson et al., 1999). The knowledge, skills, and different perspectives that contributed to the academic field and work force by U.S. international students is stated in general U.S. college recruitment and admission literatures. With counseling being known for its multiculturalism and its recent trend in internationalism (Stevens & Wedding,

2004), it cannot be emphasized more on the importance of the diverse worldviews that the international counseling students can contribute to the field in research and clinical practice.

In 1990's, the increasing diverse cultural background of the U.S. population prompted researchers to take a close look at issues concerning the training and supervision of minority counseling students (Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992; Yutrzenka, 1995; Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1998; Locke & Kiselica, 1999; U.S. Census, 2000). Although Guidelines on Multicultural Education, Training, Research, Practice, and Organizational Change for Psychologist (American Psychological Association, 2002) indicated that "multicultural" refers not only to the race and ethnic minorities in the U.S, but also to the international students, Ponterotto & Alexander (1995) concluded that by ethnic minorities, majority of the literatures refers only to the major American ethnic minority groups, excluding the international students as part of the group.

Rarely has the research studies on multicultural supervision or cross-cultural supervision differentiated international students as a separate group from the U.S. minority ethnic groups.

After Giorgis and Helms' (1978) article pointing out training barriers for international counseling students, U.S. international students in psychology did not begin to receive individual attention in empirical studies until early 2000's. As the result of the literature search in PsychINFO database in October of 2012, there were only 18 published articles, 1 book, and 3 dissertations were found relevant to recruiting or training and supervising international counseling trainees during the literature search through PsychINFO database in October of 2012 (Park-Saltzman, Wada, & Mogami, 2012; Ng & Smith, 2012; Lau & Ng, 2012; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010; Koyama, 2010; Smith & Ng, 2009; Ng & Smith, 2009; Mori, Inman, & Caskie, 2009; Nilsson & Wang; 2008; Hasan, Fouad, & Williams-Nickelson, 2008; Nilsson, 2007; Fuller, 2006; Ng,

2006a; Ng, 2006b; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Chen, 2004; Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2000; Giorgis & Helms, 1978).

The exact number of international counseling trainees in the United States hasn't been counted through any census data collection (U.S. Census Bureau, Institute of International Education, and American Psychological Association). Based on 1995 data from the National Center for Education Statistics, Nilsson's (2000) estimated that about 4.9% (n=1,004) of the 20,500 students in APA accredited programs were international students. Through their latest survey of students in APA accredited counseling psychology program, Norcross et al (2010) estimated that international students accounted for 8% of the counseling student population. Paralleling the prediction made on the international students in the United States, the number of international counseling students is also expected to increase in the future.

Issues Faced by International Counseling Trainees

International counseling students may encounter similar difficulties, such as language barrier, learning style differences, lack of local social connection, and culture adjustment, which were mentioned above for the U.S. international students in general. Besides challenges with acculturation and language capacity, international counseling students also face life transition as some of them reenter to the education system and adding on the student role to other roles they might already pose (e.g. parent, partner, spouse, worker, etc.; Chen, 2004). However, international students in counseling might experience a greater acculturation stress level as these issues might be amplified due to the nature of psychology field. For example, differences in cultural values and beliefs may cause more acculturation stress and negative impact on academic performance for international students in counseling than those in other fields because it can create conflict in therapy and hinder therapeutic rapport between international counseling

students and their clients whose cultural backgrounds are usually extremely different from theirs (Wedding et al., 2009).

Cultural differences might also create barriers for the international counseling students to gain sense of relation with colleagues and support and respect from supervisors and faculty, which could have negative influence on their academic experiences (Killian, 2001; Mittal & Wieling; 2006). Lack of cultural sensitivity and interest from instructors and peers could negatively affect international counseling students' learning experiences and psychological wellness (Chen, 2004; Lau & Ng, 2012). In Killian's (2001) study, international counseling students reported feeling that they don't "fit in" with peers and struggling to finding ways to gain approvals in the field that has its foundation in the United States culture (Killian, 2001). In the context of cross-cultural supervision where supervisors often hold the power in the relationship, international counseling trainees might feel powerless in defending their worldviews or inclined to accept their supervisors' worldviews (Killian, 2001). Due to cultural differences, they were also found to experience confusion regarding their roles as supervisees and decline from supervisory relationship (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004).

Furthermore, because most of the psychotherapy theories were developed based on White, Western culture, researchers have questioned the appropriateness of using western approach when training international counseling students and addressed the uncomfortable feelings experienced by international counseling students when using western-based counseling theories in therapy (Wedding, McCartney, & Currey, 2009; Smith & Ng, 2009). While most of the programs in counseling emphasized on cultural discussion during their multicultural training, international counseling students also experienced the pressure to be the expert about their culture of origins and being asked to speak for their people like a representative of their country

(Killian, 2001). During the interview, they also shared their frustration about the irrelevant or lack of skills training they received in the program to help them deal with cultural issues pertained to the international student population (Smith & Ng, 2009; Lau & Ng, 2012).

More often, international counseling students had the pressure of solving their own issues by tailoring their training in order to meet their needs (Lau & Ng, 2012). Although international counseling trainees may be expected to serve as leaders and experts in mental health professions when returning to their countries, they are often encountered with some resistance or challenges when trying to implement mental health concepts and counseling skills learned from the United States in their home countries (Lau & Ng, 2012). Thus, the lack of applicability and relevance of the U.S. based trainings and the unexpected challenges of re-translating such knowledge from English and Western culture into their native language and cultures of origins can create much stress and anxiety when they consider their graduation plans (Killian, 2001; Smith & Ng, 2009; Lau & Ng, 2012). Such unique experience added the complexity of career development and professional identity development of the U.S. international counseling trainees and yet is seldom noticed by the U.S. counseling training program (Chen, 2004).

The interactive teaching and learning style in the United States counseling programs seems to be another challenge for international counseling students, especially those coming from a non-western culture (Killian, 2001; Chen, 2004). In these 2 research studies, international counseling students reported that they came from education system where students are expected to only listen while professor giving lectures in class. Coming from a top-down, hierarchical relationship education system, these students usually feel uncomfortable initiating their needs to their supervisors in supervision. Illustrated in Killian's (2001) interview, the participant described that being short and sharp to get attention and services is considered very rude in some

cultures but necessary to survive in the United States education system (Killian, 2001), they also often reported feeling uncomfortable and bewildered when they were asked to speak up and participate in discussion in the counseling class in the United States However, individual differences were noted that one's comfort level could change based on one's acculturation process and that acculturation process may vary depending on one's previous professional experiences, age maturity, and more flexible personal style (Chen, 2004). For example, international counseling students with longer career experiences before entering the program may encounter greater challenges than those with shorter career experiences.

Language barrier is commonly mentioned in literatures concerning U.S. international student's adjustment issues and academic performance, such as understanding lectures, expressing opinions in class discussions, and answering essay questions. (Greenfield, 1988; International Student Committee, 1982; Meyer, 1995). This issue might be even more prominent for international students in psychology and was reported by international counseling students as their primary problem during their counseling training in the United States (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Chen, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Mori, et al., 2009). The reason could be contributed to the fact that psychology field requires one to be sensitive to nuances and subtleties of language, thus international counseling students might be under greater pressure to be proficient in English than international students in general (Wedding, McCartney, and Currey, 2009). Lack of familiarity with English usage could lead to misunderstanding in therapy or in supervision and resulted in feelings of frustration and inferiority for international counseling students (Gutierrez, 1982). However, it is worth mentioning that international counseling students' perceptions of language competence had a greater impact on how they reacted to language barriers than their actual deficiency in English (Chen, 2004).

Other variables, such as geographical location, stereotyping from others, presence of other international students in the program, and personal experiences, could also influence the academic experiences among the international graduate students (Mittal & Wieling, 2006).

Personal experiences, such as experiences with discrimination and stereotype, can bring negative impact on one's acculturation process and increase one's level of acculturation stress (Surdam & Collins, 1984). It is claimed by researchers that international students tend to experience more prejudice than minority American students (Sodowsky& Plake, 1992). Although the statement pertains to international students in general, international counseling students might be more prone to suffer in this area and become emotionally distressed because they were trained to be multicultural competent and sensitive to these discrimination issues throughout their counseling training. Nonetheless, experience of racial discrimination can have negative impact on the training experiences of international counseling students (Killian, 2001; Chen, 2004; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004), with international individuals from Asia and South America being found to perceive more prejudice than international individuals from Europe (Sodowsky & Plake, 1992).

Acculturation

Due to international counseling trainees' unique experiences with both U.S. culture and their culture of origin, acculturation level is a variable that cannot be ignore when studying their supervision and training experiences. According to Johnson and Sandbu (2007, pp.13-14), acculturation refers to "changes in values, beliefs, and behaviors that result from sustained contact with a second culture". It is a complex process where one balances between integrating the mainstream culture while preserving one's culture of origin (Sodowsky, Lai, & Plake, 1991). One of the theories proposed to describe international students' adjustment process to the U.S. culture is the W-curve theory (Gallahorn & Gallahorn, 1963), which was an expansion of the U-

curve theory (Oberg, 1960). The initial adjustment was called the "honeymoon" phase where one feels excited, hopeful, and positive about the experience with the new culture.

The next stage followed is the "crisis" or the "culture shock" where students feel unhappy, homesick, and frustrated with the need of adjusting to the new culture. Gradually, students are expected to recover from crisis and find their balance between both cultures (completing the U shape acculturation process) until they return to their home country where they are most likely to experience the adjustment process again, which is called the "reentry shock" (the starting of another U shape acculturation process). From system point of view, it was suggested that the adjustment process might be more complicated than that described by the W-curve theory and that one usually falls back a step after taking two steps forward (Kim, 2002). Nonetheless, it can be agreed upon that international students face unique stressors than immigrants or other ethnic minority groups in the United States because they must quickly learn and adjust to the U.S. culture while succeed in the United States academic system (Mori, 2000).

During the acculturation process, international students may experience changes in many domains, such as language, cognitive style, communication patterns, expression of feelings, attitude, behaviors, style of relating to others, values, knowledge of social rules and identity (Berry & Kim, 1988; Betancourt & Lopex, 1993; Sodowsky, Lai, & Plake, 1991). Acculturation stress can occur when international student hasn't made the change and adapted to the new coping skills when the old coping skills are inadequate in the new environment (Berry, 1998; Popadiuk & Arthur, 2004). For example, study done by Lee and Lodewijks (1995) demonstrated that less acculturated international students engaged less in self-regulation (a learning style highly promoted in the United States education system) and, thus, tended to experience lower levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy.

Acculturation process varies individually for international students because they are different in many domains such as country of origin, length of residency in the United States, reasoning for the stay, gender, religion, education level, experiences with prejudice, and visa status (Sodowsky & Plake, 1991; Sodowsky et al, 1991; Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994; Surdam & Collins, 1984). In Chen's (2004) study with international counseling students, previous professional experiences, age maturity, and more flexible personal style were reported as factors that might contribute to a smooth transition into the new culture for those trainees. Other factors, such as performance expectations and discrimination experiences, could also have impact on the international students' willingness to adapt to and integrate the U.S. culture into their own (Aubrey, 1991; Chen, 2004).

A few researchers have specifically examined the effect of international counseling trainees' acculturation level in cross-cultural supervision (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Mori, et al., 2009; Ng & Smith, 2012). According to these studies, acculturation level was found related to supervisory relationship, trainee's counseling and course self-efficacy, satisfaction with supervision, and need for culture discussion. However, some of the results in these studies were controversial. In cross-cultural supervision, a stronger supervisory relationship was reported when international counseling trainees were more advanced in their acculturation process (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004). These trainees also reported higher self-efficacy in their counseling skills than those who were less acculturated and with weaker supervisory relationship. But study conducted by Mori et al. (2009) showed that international counseling trainees who were less acculturated to the U.S. culture but had more cultural discussions in supervision reported more satisfied with their supervision.

Ng and Smith (2012) conducted a study that duplicated Nilsson and Anderson's study in 2004. They supported Nilsson and Anderson's study that higher levels of supervisory working alliance are related to higher levels of acculturation and less role ambiguity in supervision. However, contradictory to Nilsson and Anderson's study, they found that instead of overall acculturation level, only language aspect of the acculturation predicted trainee's counseling self-efficacy level. These inconsistent results suggested that more research is warranted. Although international counseling trainee's acculturation level plays a part in cross-cultural supervision, there might be other factors that mediate the relations among acculturation level, satisfaction with supervision, and self-efficacy.

Cohesively, researchers found that the less acculturated international counseling trainees have greater need to discuss cultural issues in supervision than those who are more acculturated (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006). Mori et al. (2009) also found that international counseling trainees are more satisfied with supervision when they perceived supervisor as culturally responsive, meaning being sensitive to culture differences and brining cultural discussion in supervision. These findings could suggest that trainee's perceived cultural competency of supervisor and how the cultural discussion is conducted in supervision could possibly explain for the controversial results of the relation between acculturation level and satisfaction with supervision.

Additionally, some limitation of these studies might also lead to the controversial results. For incidence, the studies only collected data from the international counseling trainees' perspectives. It has been found that supervisors conduct supervision differently as they put more focus on cultural discussion in supervision when they perceived international students being more advanced in their developmental and acculturation level (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004).

Killian's (2001) research, which included interviews with supervisor, supported the notion that assessing degree of acculturation of trainee are essential to a successful cross-cultural supervision. Therefore, collecting data from supervisors in terms of how they assess trainees' acculturation and developmental level and how they meet the needs of cultural discussion for the trainees could be valuable for examining factors that could predict positive supervision relationship.

Another limitation exists in all of the previous researches is the insufficient number of participants to examine the within group differences. It has been suggested that country of origins can affect the acculturation process of international students (Singaravelu & Pope, 2007; Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994; Inman et al., 2008; Ng. 2006; Sodowsky & Plake, 1992). Thus, it would be interesting to conduct a study that target individual group from different regions in the world to see if any within group difference exists and how it might impact the research result.

In summary, international students in applied psychology and counseling programs are a unique group in the sense that not only they have to adapt to the U.S. culture in a limited time, but acculturating to the U.S. culture is critical to their academic success because they need to understand the U.S. culture in order to provide effective counseling services to the U.S. clients (Nilsson, 2000). In his interview with non-western trainees in counseling programs, Chen (2004) stated that the level of adaptation to the host culture is one of the two factors that are important and helpful to international counseling trainees besides social connectedness. It is generally agreed upon that the more acculturated the international counseling trainees are, the more positive they feel about their counseling abilities (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004). Conclusively, culturally competent supervisor must expand their knowledge on acculturation level and develop

skills in assessing international counseling trainees' needs according to trainees' level of acculturation (Mori et al., 2009).

Cultural Discussions

Cultural factors also play an important role in supervisory interactions and contribute to supervisory relationship (Killian, 2001; Rigazio-DiGilio, 1998). As proposed by Bernard and Goodyear (2009), culture not only influences and shapes one's personality but also one's cognitive style and developmental trajectories. However, literature focused on multicultural competence training has questioned the supervisors' ability to address culture with trainees as many supervisors choose to be color-blind or not self-disclose about their own culture identity and biases due to the risks of brining up the topic concerning race, culture, and etc (Killian, 2001).

In cross-cultural supervision dynamic, supervisory relationships tend to be more conflict than homogenous supervisory relationships (Helms, 1982). Because one's worldview may be extremely different from the other's, misunderstanding could easily happen and leads to emotional distress when one's worldview constantly being challenged by the other (Killian, 2001). In the context of supervision, this kind of relationship dynamic might be experienced even more for the ethnic minority trainees because supervisors tend to hold power over trainees; thus resulting in trainees feeling discouraged and powerless in defending their worldviews (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009; Killian, 2001).

As a solution to prevent from invalidating trainees, strengthening supervisory relationship, and providing effective training in cross-cultural supervision, several researches have advocated the concept of having supervisors/mentors address cultural differences with ethnic minority trainees and allow trainees to share their values and beliefs with them (Delgado-Romero & Wu,

2010; Nilsson, 2007; Mori et al., 2009; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Cook, 1983; Guiterrez, 1982; Smith & Ng, 2012). While disregarding the influence of cultural factors in cross-cultural supervision could decrease trainee's sense of self-efficacy and weaken supervisory relationship (Gopaul-McNicol & Brice-Baker, 1998), discussing cultural values and beliefs differences with their supervisees could have a positive impact on the supervisory relationship as well as on trainees' multicultural competence and racial identity development (Gopaul-McNicol & Brice-Baker, 1998; Harber, 1996; Kaiser, 1997; D'Andrea & Daniels, 1997).

In the area of supervising international counseling trainees, no prediction of self-efficacy level was found by the cultural discussions conducted in supervision (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Smith & Ng, 2012). However, discussing cultural related issues with international counseling trainees is strongly suggested. Nilsson and Anderson (2004) found that international counseling trainees who are less acculturated have greater need to discuss cultural issues. International counseling trainees with less course self-efficacy compared to more course self-efficacy also reported more discussion of cultural issues and valued such discussion more (Nilsson, 2007). Therefore, while supervisors tend to initiate cultural discussion with more advanced trainees, it is suggested that supervisors should help international counseling trainees compare their native culture and the U.S. culture regardless of training level and that supervisor initiate such discussion with international counseling trainees (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2007; Smith & Ng, 2012).

Similarly, Nilsson and Dodds (2006) found a positive relationship between international trainees' satisfaction with supervision and the level of cultural discussions they had with their supervisor. International counseling trainees' perception of their supervisors is associated with

cultural discussion (Nilsson, 2007). Although its causal relation is unknown, conversation about cultural issues increases as international counseling trainees view their supervisor as trustworthy, attractive, and expert. On the other hand, Mori et al.'s (2009) found that cultural discussion only partially explain for the relationship between supervisor's multicultural competence and supervision satisfaction while a match between supervisor's and trainee's cultural competence and cultural identity in the supervisory dyad was found important in explaining the relationship as well (Ancis & Ladany, 2001; Mori et al., 2009; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006).

Despite the importance of cultural discussion, how supervisors carry the conversation and create safe environment for international counseling trainees is even more critical (Killian, 2001). For instance, besides one's multicultural competence, individual differences and cultural variance in communication style could affect the effectiveness of communicating cultural differences in cross-cultural supervision (Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2007). Culturally oriented perceptions and experiences could also explained the increased anxiety level for international counseling trainees to self-disclose and explore personal experiences with cultural differences (Chen, 2004).

In Summary, literature review on cross-cultural supervision showed that cultural discussion is even more critical for international counseling trainees than U.S. students due to their culture background and the unique issues they face in counseling training (Killian, 2001; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Mori, 2000; Ng, 2006a; Sodowsky & Plake, 1992; Mori et al., 2009). By inviting international counseling trainees to talk about and explore their cultural differences, supervisors can provide more successful learning experiences and help trainees become more aware of how the cultural differences might play out in supervision or clinical work, develop their cultural identity, and use their cultural differences as positive assets, which could serve as an

empowerment for this population (Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2009; Mittal & Wieling, 2006). Although previous research has confirmed the importance of cultural discussion in cross-cultural supervision, much more study is needed to examine what other factors contribute to a productive conversation on race and culture issues and how supervisors could develop greater competence in being able to articulate cultural issues with international counseling trainees (Killian, 2001; Nilsson, 2007; Mori et al., 2009).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Research Design

The present study utilized correlation and regression analysis research designs. Targeting at the supervisor-trainee pairs that had positive supervisory relationship, this study aimed to explore the variances between Asian international counseling trainees and their supervisors to examine factors that might contribute to positive supervisory relationship, increased cultural discussions in supervision, and affect trainee's acculturation process. As suggested by Rice and his colleagues (2009), Both supervisors and trainees were recruited for this study so that perspectives from both sides of the supervisory relationship can be obtained and a clear picture of the supervision dynamics can be presented.

First of all, the present study explored between group differences on self-reported measures of cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style in order to understand whether in a positive supervisory relationship there are individual characteristic differences between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees. Then the study looked for relationships among supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style to see if there are certain matches among these individual characteristics in a positive supervisory relationship. Thirdly, the study identified predictors of cultural discussions in supervision or trainee's acculturation level using the matches between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style. Finally, each supervisor's and trainee's individual

characteristics were used as independent variables to see whether their cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style can predict the frequency of cultural discussions occurred in supervision and trainee's acculturation level. Experimental methods such as manipulation of variables, administration of an intervention, or random assignment were not utilized.

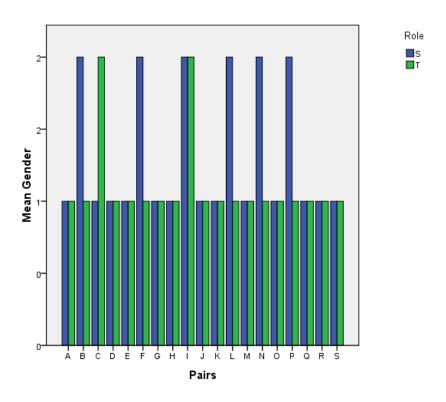
A power analysis using the GPOWER software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was conducted to determine the sample size for the present study. The power analysis based on ttests for means of matched pairs indicated that a total of 19 participants would be needed assuming a large effect size of .8, an alpha of .05, and a power of .95. The power analysis indicated that if these variables were to hold at these levels, the power of the study would be .9560 and that a critical t value of 1.7341 would be needed to reach significance. Participants for the present study were Asian international trainees in counseling related program during the Summer 2012 semester and their clinical supervisors.

Description of the Sample

Nineteen pairs of supervisors and trainees, a total of 38 participants, were recruited for this study. Approximately 68% of the supervisors and 90% of the trainees were female. Gender matches for the paired supervisors and trainees are shown in Figure 1. Majority of the trainees reported their age ranged from 25 to 34 years old, whereas majority of the supervisors ranged in age from 35 to 54. Summary of the participants' age range was presented in Table 1. Table 2 illustrated the sample's racial or ethnic distribution. All 19 trainees were self-identified as Asian. The collected supervisor's racial/ethnic self-description included African American, Asian, Caucasian, and Biracial/Multiracial.

Figure 1

Gender matches in paired supervisors and trainees



S= supervisor; T= trainee; 1= Female; 2= Male

Table 1
Age Range of Participants

| Age Range | N | | Percentile | le | | | | |
|----------------|------------|---------|------------|---------|--|--|--|--|
| 25-34 35-54 | Supervisor | Trainee | Supervisor | Trainee | | | | |
| 25-34 | 1 | 17 | 5% | 90% | | | | |
| 35-54 | 15 | 2 | 79% | 10% | | | | |
| Over 55 | 3 | 0 | 16% | 0% | | | | |

(N=38)

Table 2
Participants by race/ethnicity

| Race/Ethnicity | N | | Percentile | Percentile | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|------------|------------|--|--|--|--|
| | Superviso | Trainee | Supervisor | Trainee | | | | |
| | r | | _ | | | | | |
| Asian and Pacific Islander | 1 | 19 | 5% | 100% | | | | |
| African American | 2 | | 11% | | | | | |
| Caucasian | 15 | 0 | 79% | 0% | | | | |
| Latino/a | 0 | | 0% | | | | | |
| American Indian/Alaska | 0 | 0 | 0% | 0% | | | | |
| Native | | | | | | | | |
| Biracial/ Multiracial | 1 | 0 | 5% | 0% | | | | |
| | | 0 | | 0% | | | | |
| | | 0 | | | | | | |
| | | O | | 0% | | | | |

(N=38)

Some of the demographic questions were designed specifically for the trainee participants. These questions included their primary language used at home, their program of study, degree that they are currently pursuing, accreditation for their program of study, their clinical experiences, and their plan after graduation. Last question on the survey requested the trainee participants to rate their satisfaction of the supervisor whom they nominated for the paired study. The rating was based on a scale ranging from 1 to 9, where 9 being most satisfied with their supervisor. The result showed that the trainees had positive supervisory relationship with their supervisors as they rated high satisfaction for their experience with the supervisor (M= 8.26; SD= 0.562). The trainee's responses were concluded in Table 3.

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of Trainee Participants (N=19)

| 16 3 15 1 | 84% 16% 79% 5% 5% |
|--------------------|---|
| 3 15 1 | 16% 79% 5% |
| 15 1 1 | 79% 5% |
| 1 1 | 5% |
| 1 1 | 5% |
| 1 | |
| | 5% |
| 2 | 5 /0 |
| 2 | 11% |
| | |
| 5 | 27% |
| 13 | 68% |
| 1 | 5% |
| | |
| 8 | 42% |
| 2 | 11% |
| 7 | 36% |
| 2 | 11% |
| | |
| 6 | 32% |
| 13 | 68% |
| | |
| 8 | 42% |
| 3 | 16% |
| 6 | 31% |
| 2 | 11% |
| | |
| 1 | 5% |
| 12 | 63% |
| 6 | 32% |
| _ | 2 5 13 1 8 2 7 2 6 13 8 3 6 2 1 12 |

^{*}CACREP= Council for Accreditation of Counseling & Related Educational Programs

On the supervisor's survey form, specific information addressing the supervisor's background was gathered. Supervisors were asked questions such as "Were you at anytime an international student in the United States?", "Have you had multicultural theory class during your program of study?", "Have you attended sessions related to multicultural issues in conferences?", "Have you taken a supervision class in your program where you obtained your

highest degree?", and "How many years have you been supervising a trainee?". The supervisors' responses can be found in Table 4.

In addition, five questions on a rating scale were presented regarding supervisor's confidence level toward Asian culture (scale range from 1 to 9; M= 6.21; SD= 1.357), clinical experiences with international students (scale range from 1 to 10; scale range from 1 to 9; M= 3.47; SD= 2.010), supervision experiences with Asian international trainees (scale range from 1 to 10; M= 3.95; SD= 2.223), and the effects of the supervision experiences with international trainees on their cultural knowledge (scale range from 1 to 5; M= 3.84; SD= 0.501) and supervision skills (scale range from 1 to 5; M= 4.00; SD= 0.745). The results suggested that the supervisors had moderate confidence about their Asian cultural knowledge with a few experiences with international students as client or trainee. Majority of the supervisors thought that their supervision experiences with Asian international trainees contribute greatly to their cultural knowledge and supervision skills. Another question asking the supervisors whether they modified their supervisory style when providing supervision to their Asian international counseling trainees was presented at the end of the Supervisory Style Index questionnaire.

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics of Supervisor Participants (N=19)

| Characteristics | | N | Percentage |
|--------------------------|------------------------|----|------------|
| International student | | | |
| | Yes, before college | 0 | 0% |
| | Yes, after high school | 4 | 21% |
| | No | 15 | 79% |
| Multicultural class | | | |
| | 1-2 | 13 | 68% |
| | More than 2 | 4 | 21% |
| | None | 2 | 11% |
| Multicultural conference | ; | | |
| | 1-5 | 8 | 42% |
| | More than 5 | 8 | 42% |
| | None | 3 | 16% |
| Supervision class | | | |
| - | Yes | 12 | 63% |
| | No | 7 | 37% |
| Supervision experiences | | | |
| | 1-3 years | 4 | 21% |
| | 4-6 years | 2 | 11% |
| | 7-9 years | 3 | 16% |
| | More than 10 years | 10 | 52% |
| Supervisory style | • | | |
| 1 , , | Modified for Asian | 10 | 52% |
| | international trainees | | |
| | Keep the same | 9 | 48% |
| | supervisory style | | |

Data Collection Procedures

Electronic data collection method was used in the present study. After obtaining approval from the University of Georgia Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, the researcher began the recruitment process through purposive sampling methods. Targeting at the Asian international student population in counseling related programs in the United States, the researcher contacted four professional organizations, Asian American Psychological Association (AAPA), Asian American Psychological Association Division of Student (AAPA-DoS), American Psychological Association Division 45 Student (APA-D45 student), and Taiwan

Psychology Network (TPN). Upon receiving approval for soliciting participants, the researcher posted the research invitation on their listserv during May, June, July, and August in 2012. The invitation briefly described the research topic, the selection criteria for participation, the time commitment required for the study participants, the requirement of nominating a clinical supervisor with supervisor's email address, and the instruction for participation.

Qualified trainees who were interested in participating were instructed to click on the provided hyperlink. Trainee participants were electronically connected to the secure internet survey website (Survey Gizmo) and the informed consent page. After consent was obtained, trainee participants were asked to complete a demographical questionnaire and the instrumentations of the present study. Completion time was estimated to be between 25-50 minutes. After completing the instruments, trainee participants were asked to come up with a 5-digit code combined with numbers and letters for matching purpose. They were asked to provide the email address of his/her supervisor who have or had provided supervision to him/her for at least 3 months. Following was a rating scale from 1 to 9 which trainee participants rated his/her satisfaction of the supervisory relationship. At the end, trainee participants were presented with a debriefing statement. Since the participation was entirely voluntary, trainee participants were allowed to drop out of the study during or after the survey was filled.

The second part of the recruitment started after obtaining the supervisor's information on the trainee's survey forms. Research participation invitations were sent electronically to the supervisors nominated by the trainee participants. The email contained information about the research goal and instructions for participation. Supervisor participants who were interested in participating were instructed to click on the provided hyperlink, which led them to the secured internet survey website and the informed consent page. When consent was completed, supervisor

participants were asked to type in the 5-digit code created by their trainees before completing a demographical questionnaire and the instrumentations of the present study. Completion time was estimated to be between 15-25 minutes. At the end of the survey, a debriefing statement was presented to the supervisor participants. Participation was entirely voluntary as supervisor participants were provided with opportunity to leave the survey website at anytime.

The present study used incentives to encourage online participation from trainees and supervisors (Cobanoglu et al., 2003). All participants who were qualified to participate in the study had the opportunity to enter in a drawing for a \$10.00 or \$25.00 gift cards. Participants were asked to provide their email address in order to receive their gift card incentive. Ten gift cards were sent electronically to randomly selected participants. Among the 56 trainee surveys started online, thirty-one trainee surveys were completed with 24 trainee participants nominated their supervisors. The second part of the recruitment resulted in 21 nominated supervisors responding to the study. Two supervisor surveys were incomplete. Therefore, only 19 pairs of completed trainee and supervisor data were used in this study.

Instrumentation

Demographic Questionnaire. A demographic form included on the trainee survey form contained questions that gather information on participants' gender, age, race, country of origin, native language, length of stay in the United States, type of academic program (e.g., clinical/counseling psychology and APA/CACREP accredited), degree sought (e.g., master, Ph.D., Ed.D, and PsyD), type of training site (e.g. APA or APPIC accredited), year in the program, internship status, month of supervision they have/had with their nominated supervisor, satisfaction with their nominated supervisor, and their plan after graduation (e.g. staying in the United States or going home after graduation). Supervisor survey form contained a demographic

questionnaire that gather information such as supervisor's gender, age, race, multicultural training, supervision training, years of practice in supervision, counseling experiences with international students, supervision experiences with international students, and confidence with Asian culture. Supervisor participants were also asked to rate how much their supervision experiences with Asian international counseling trainees affect their cultural knowledge and supervision skills.

International Student Supervision Scale-Multicultural Discussion (ISSS-MD; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006). The ISSS-MD is a 14-item 5-point Likert-type scale, which assesses the magnitude of discussion of cultural issues pertaining to international students in a supervision setting. The ISSS-MD was developed as part of the International Student Supervision Scale (ISSS; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006), a 17-item scale (ISSS-MD and ISSS-SCK) that assesses the supervisory issues unique to international counseling trainees. ISSS-MD assesses the frequency with which cultural issues unique to international supervisees are discussed in supervision, and the ISSS-SCK measures supervisees' perceptions of their multicultural knowledge in comparison to their supervisors. A low internal reliability for the second factor was reported by Nilsson and Dodds (2006); thus, only the ISSS-MD was used for this study. The internal consistency of the ISSS-MD has been noted to range from .90-.94 (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Mori et al., 2009) and was .94 in the current study.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): As a modification of the Jungian theory of type, MBTI was designed to indicate one's psychological preference in how he/she views the world and make decisions. It consists four scales or dimensions, which are Extraversion-Introversion, Sensation-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling, and Judgment-Perceiving. The MBTI is a self-report inventory made up of 90 forced-choice questions. Reliability coefficients of the MBTI were

found between .80 and .90 (Saunders, 1958). According to the MBTI Form M manual supplement, the correlations with MBTI dichotomies range from .85 to .90 for Asian and from .82 to .89 for people in Asia (Schanbhut, Herk, & Thompson, 2009). In this study, the participants were asked to identify their Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) profile on a contiguous scale from 1 to 9 for each of the 4 dimensions on the MBTI. For example, on the Extraversion-Introversion dimension, scale 1 means one's strong identification for Extraversion profile while scale 9 indicates one's strong identification for Introversion profile.

Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA). SL-ASIA is a 26-item questionnaire that measures different levels of acculturation in Asian populations in the United States (Suinn et al., 1987). Levels of acculturation include language, identity, friendships, behaviors, generation/geographic background, and attitudes. The original scale, which consists of 21 questions, can be scored ranging from 1.00 to 5.00, with low scores reflective of Asian-identification (low acculturation) and high scores reflective of Western identification (high acculturation). Scores falling in near the midpoint suggest biculturalism. A Cronbach alpha coefficient ranged from .88 to .91 for the original scale (Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) and was .89 for the current study. Construct validity of the SL-ASIA was concluded as efficient in assessing acculturation (Ponterotto, Baluch, & Carielli, 1998).

Supervisory Styles Index (SSI). Long et al. (1996) developed this 18-items on 4 Likert-type scales to examine supervisory style from a feminist approach to training and therapy. Through personality characteristics, beliefs, and principles of the supervisor, three sets of supervisory style were recognized: (1) Affiliative/Authoritative; (2) Directive/Non-directive; (3) Self-disclosing/Non-selfdisclosing. The internal reliability coefficients attained were .79 for the Affiliative/Authoritative scale, .78 for the Directive/Non-directive scale, and .80 for the

Selfdisclosing/Non-self-disclosing scale (Long et al., 1996). The internal reliability coefficients attained were .79 for the Affiliative/Autoritative scale, .78 for the Directive/Non-directive scale, and .80 for the Self-disclosing/Non-self-disclosing scale (Long et al., 1996). With the current sample, the alphas were .66 for the Affiliative/Authoritative scale, .59 for the Directive/Non-directive scale, and .80 for the Self-disclosing/Non-self-disclosing scale. At the end of the SSI, a question asking whether supervisors changed their supervisory style when providing supervision to Asian international counseling trainees was presented.

Theoretical Orientation Profile Scale-Revised (TOPS-R). Designed by Worthington and Dillon (2003), TOPS-R is a self-report, 18-items 10-point Likert-type scales that assess the degree to which an individual self-identifies with a theoretical school with higher scores reflect greater endorsement of the theoretical orientation. These theoretical approaches include psychoanalytic/psychodynamic, humanistic/existential, cognitive-behavioral, family systems, feminist, and multicultural. Each theoretical approach contains 3 questions in regards to how much one identify with the theory, use the theory in conceptualize cases, and implement the theory when providing intervention. Worthington and Dillon (2003) reported that the six factors accounted fro 87.5% of the variance in their data, and factor loadings for all items ranged from .86 to .96. They also reported strong evidence of connections between theoretical self-ascription and theoretical orientation, as predicted by the TOPS-R. For this study, the TOPS-R was condensed to 6 items. Instead of using 3 separate questions for each theoretical approach, one combined question was used. The combined question was phrased as "Please rate the following school of theoretical orientation by how much you identify with the theory to conceptualize cases and provide intervention."

Methods of Data Analysis

The IBM SPSS Statistics 17 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; SPSS) was utilized to analyze the data for this present study. Descriptive statistics (e.g., means and standard deviations) was conducted to present demographic information of the participants. The present study explored the following independent variables: (a) supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style (MBTI) supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation (TOPS-R), (c) supervisor's and trainee's supervisory style (SSI), (d) similarities of supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, (e) similarities of supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation, and (f) similarities of supervisor's and trainee's supervisory style. The frequency of cultural discussions (ISSS-MD) and trainee's acculturation level (SL-ASIA) were the dependent variable.

Research Question 1:

In a positive supervisory relationship, are there differences between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style?

- *Null Hypothesis 1(A)*. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's I/E, N/S, F/T, and P/J subscale scores on their MBTI.
- Null Hypothesis 1(B). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's psychodynamic, cognitive, humanistic, family, feminist, and multicultural theoretical orientation subscale scores on their TOPS-R.
- Null Hypothesis 1(C). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's Affiliative/Authoritative, Non-directive/Directive, and Self-disclosing/Non-self-disclosing subscale scores on their SSI.
 - Statistical Analysis: Independent-samples t-tests were used to determine if cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style differences exist between

supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees. The independent variables were participant supervisory roles (supervisor or trainee). The dependent variables were the mean scores on the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI subscales. Alpha level was set at .05.

Research Question 2:

In a positive relationship, is there a relation among cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style between supervisors and trainees?

Null Hypothesis 2(A). No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's MBTI subscale scores and TOPS-R subscale scores.

Null Hypothesis 2(B). No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and SSI subscale scores.

Null Hypothesis 2(C). No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's MBTI subscale scores and SSI subscale scores.

Statistical Analysis: Correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relationship among supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated to assess if linear relationships exist among the subscales of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between supervisors and trainees. Alpha levels was set at .05.

Research Question 3:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision?

- *Null Hypothesis 3(A)*. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's MBTI scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- *Null Hypothesis 3(B)*. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- Null Hypothesis 3(C). There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's SSI scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- Statistical Analysis: As recommended by Cronbach & Gleser (1953), D² similarity score was calculated to form the similarity scores of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between supervisors and trainees. The absolute value of the differences between supervisor's and trainee's continuous subscale scores of the instrument were squared and summed. Then taking the square root of that sum to yield a D² similarity score. At last, a multivariate linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision from the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style. The independent variables were the D² similarity scores of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between supervisors and trainees. The dependent variable was the ISSS-MD scores reported by the trainees. Alpha levels was set at .05.

Research Question 4:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict trainee's acculturation level?

- Null Hypothesis 4(A). There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's MBTI scores and the trainee's acculturation level.
- Null Hypothesis 4(B). There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R scores and the trainee's acculturation level.
- *Null Hypothesis 4(C)*. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's SSI scores and the trainee's acculturation level.
- Statistical Analysis: A multivariate linear multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of trainee's acculturation level from the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict trainee's acculturation level. The D² similarity scores of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between supervisors and trainees were used as the predictor variables. The criterion variable was the trainees' SL-ASIA scores. Alpha levels was set at .05.

Research Question 5:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision?

- *Null Hypothesis 5(A)*. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's MBTI subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- *Null Hypothesis* 5(*B*). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- *Null Hypothesis* 5(*C*). There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's SSI subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.
- Statistical Analysis: A multivariate linear multiple regression analysis was performed to evaluate the prediction of the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision from supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style.

 The predictor variables were the supervisor's or trainee's MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI subscale scores, and the trainee's ISSS-MD scores were the criterion variables. Alpha levels was set at .05.

Research Question 6:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict trainee's acculturation level?

- *Null Hypothesis 6.1.* There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's MBTI subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.
- *Null Hypothesis* 6.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.
- *Null Hypothesis* 6.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's SSI subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.
- Statistical Analysis: Multivariate linear multiple regression analyses were executed to examine the prediction of the trainee's acculturation level from supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style. The predictor variables were the supervisor's or trainee's MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI subscale scores, and the trainee's SL-ASIA scores were the criterion variables. Alpha levels was set at .05.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses that were conducted. The six research questions, corresponding null hypotheses, and related results are presented. Tables and figures are provided throughout the chapter.

Hypothesis Testing

A series of data analyses were conducted to examine each of the hypotheses stated in Chapter 3. All data were analyzed using SPSS (version 17) at the .05 level of significance cut off. Several of the hypotheses were upheld through the data analyses. Each of the hypotheses is presented, in turn, as follows:

Research Question 1:

In a positive supervisory relationship, are there differences between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style?

Null Hypothesis 1.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's I/E, N/S, F/T, or P/J subscale scores on their MBTI.

Null Hypothesis 1.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's psychoanalysis/psychodynamic, cognitive/behavioral, humanistic, family system, feminist, or multicultural theoretical orientation subscale scores on their TOPS-R.

Null Hypothesis 1.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's and trainee's Affiliative/Authoritative, Non-directive/Directive, or Self-disclosing/Non-self-disclosing subscale scores on their SSI.

Three independent-samples t-test were conducted to compare the mean scores on the subscales of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between the supervisors and the trainees. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 5. As can be seen, a statistically significant difference was identified on the Perceiving-Judging subscale of the MBTI between the supervisors (M = 6.11, SD = 1.792) and the trainees (M = 3.74, SD = 2.182), t(38) = -3.657, p = .001. The result suggests that supervisors indicate a preference for information gathering and assimilation of new ideas and information (Perceiving), whereas trainees tend to have a preference for order, closure, and decision-making (Judging). Statistically significant difference was also identified on the Affiliative/Authoritative subscale of the SSI between the supervisors (M = 21.32, SD = 1.945) and the trainees (M = 19.11, SD = 2.258), $t(38) = -10^{-2}$ 3.233, p = .003. No significant differences were detected on the TOPS-R. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 1.2 cannot be rejected as no differences were detected on the subscales of TOPS-R between the supervisors and the trainees. Null Hypothesis 1.1 and 1.3 can be rejected as differences were identified on the P/J subscale of the MBTI and Affiliative/Authoritative subscale of the SSI between the supervisors and the trainees.

Table 5
Cognitive Style, Theoretical Orientation, and Supervisory Style Differences Between Supervisors and Trainees

| | Superviso | ors (N = 19) | Trainees | s(N = 19) | | |
|---|-----------|--------------|----------|-----------|--------|-------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | _ t | p |
| MBTI | | | | | | |
| I/E | 5.05 | (2.013) | 5.84 | (2.089) | 1.186 | .243 |
| N/S | 6.79 | (.976) | 5.58 | (2.411) | -2.029 | .054 |
| F/T | 5.68 | (2.237) | 4.89 | (1.941) | -1.162 | .253 |
| P/J | 6.11 | (1.792) | 3.74 | (2.182) | -3.657 | .001* |
| TOPS-R | | | | | | |
| Psych | 3.68 | (1.250) | 3.79 | (1.316) | .253 | .802 |
| Cognitive or Behavioral | 4.26 | (.806) | 4.21 | (.787) | 204 | .840 |
| Humanistic or | 4.32 | (.671) | 4.47 | (.697) | .712 | .481 |
| Existential | | | | | | |
| Family System | 3.79 | (.855) | 4.00 | (.816) | .776 | .443 |
| Feminist | 3.84 | (.898) | 3.32 | (1.003) | -1.704 | .097 |
| Multicultural | 4.32 | (.885) | 4.58 | (.692) | 1.021 | .314 |
| SSI | | | | | | |
| Affiliative/Authoritative | 21.32 | (1.945) | 19.11 | (2.258) | -3.233 | .003* |
| Non-Direct/Direct | 19.47 | (2.144) | 20.26 | (2.400) | 1.069 | .292 |
| Self-Disclosing/Non- Self-Disclosing | 22.58 | (2.912) | 22.00 | (3.496) | 555 | .583 |

I/E = Introversion/Extraversion subscale; N/S = Intuitive/Sensing subscale; F/T = Feeling/Thinking subscale; P/J = Perceiving/Judging subscale; Psych = Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic subscale; * Significant at p < .05

Research Question 2:

In a positive supervisory relationship, is there a relation among cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style between supervisors and trainees?

Null Hypothesis 2.1. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's MBTI subscale scores and TOPS-R subscale scores.

Null Hypothesis 2.2. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and SSI subscale scores. Null Hypothesis 2.3. No statistically significant difference will exist in the correlation between supervisor's and trainee's MBTI subscale scores and SSI subscale scores.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated to explore if relationships exist between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style. Table 6, 7, and 8 presents the findings of the analyses for the 3 null hypotheses. Table 6 demonstrates the correlation coefficients of the supervisor's and the trainee's MBTI subscale scores and TOPS-R subscale scores. Some statistically significant positive relationships were identified in the correlation of trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Intuitive-Sensing scores (r(38)=0.495, p=0.031), trainee's Intuitive-Sensing scores and supervisor's Feminist scores (r(38)=0.481, p=0.037), trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Multicultural scores (r(38)=0.482, p=0.037), trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Cognitive scores (r(38)=0.521, p=0.022), trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Multicultural scores (r(38)=0.457, p=0.049), trainee's Family scores and Supervisor's Humanistic scores (r(38)=0.507, p=0.027), and trainee's Humanistic scores and supervisor's Family scores (r(38)=0.457, p=0.049).

Table 7 presented the correlation coefficients of the supervisor's and the trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and SSI subscale scores. According to Table 7, the trainee's Self-Disclosing/Non-self-disclosing scores were positively correlated with the supervisor's Multicultural scores (r(38)=0.467, p=0.044). Table 8 illustrated the correlation coefficients of the supervisor's and the trainee's SSI subscale scores and MBTI subscale scores. As shown in Table 8, higher Introversion/Extraversion scores reported by the supervisors were significantly correlated with higher Non-Directive/Directive scores reported by the trainees (r(38)=0.537, p=0.018). The trainee's Intuitive/Sensing scores were also positively correlated with the supervisor's Affiliative/Authoritative scores (r(38)=0.456, p=0.050). Based on the statistically significant relationships identified in this analysis, Null Hypothesis 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 are rejected.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients for MBTI and TOPS-R

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|-----------|-----|-----|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|------|-----|------|------|-----|-----|------|-----|----|----|
| 1. ie-T | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. ie-S | 25 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. ns-T | .14 | .41 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. ns-S | 10 | 02 | 21 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. ft-T | 05 | .04 | .24 | 10 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. ft-S | .43 | 01 | .07 | - | .17 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | .57* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. pj-T | .26 | .12 | .55* | 24 | .40 | .28 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. pj-S | .26 | .18 | .40 | .01 | .28 | .26 | .38 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Psy-T | 28 | .13 | .11 | 25 | 34 | 06 | .06 | 34 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Psy-S | .21 | 09 | .06 | 10 | 11 | .30 | 05 | 08 | .09 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11.Cog-T | .02 | 08 | 10 | .50* | 09 | 37 | .03 | 02 | 17 | .07 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 12.Cog-S | 17 | 11 | 17 | .22 | .02 | 44 | .11 | 14 | 26 | - | .52* | - | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | .52* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Hum-T | .02 | .22 | .13 | 01 | 08 | 18 | 02 | .18 | .18 | .05 | 29 | 33 | - | | | | | | | |
| 14. Hum-S | .36 | .15 | 12 | .45 | .03 | 04 | .10 | .20 | 17 | .19 | .29 | .04 | .38 | - | | | | | | |
| 15. Fam-T | .42 | 17 | 03 | .14 | 21 | .00 | .22 | .08 | .10 | 05 | .43 | .17 | .20 | .51* | - | | | | | |
| 16. Fam-S | .14 | 03 | 07 | .14 | 22 | 24 | 33 | .12 | 09 | .09 | 01 | 08 | .46* | .41 | .32 | - | | | | |
| 17. Fem-T | .34 | .10 | .01 | .30 | - | 08 | 21 | .20 | 03 | 09 | .12 | .03 | .17 | .09 | .27 | .28 | - | | | |
| | | | | | .52* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Fem-S | .31 | 03 | .48* | .02 | .34 | 08 | .15 | .15 | 08 | .30 | .05 | 40 | .30 | .18 | .08 | .31 | 19 | - | | |
| 19. Mul-T | 24 | .46 | .05 | .36 | 20 | 20 | 19 | .04 | .14 | 16 | 03 | 09 | .32 | .06 | .10 | 16 | .52* | 29 | - | |
| 20. Mul-S | | .24 | .48* | | .21 | | .39 | | | .35 | | | 26 | | .31 | 05 | .07 | .42 | 04 | - |

T= Trainee; S= Supervisor; ie= Introversion/Extraversion; ns= Intuitive/Sensing; ft= Feeling/Thinking; pj= Perceiving/Judging; Psy= Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic; Cog= Cognitive or Behavioral; Hum= Humanistic or Existential; Fam= Family System; Fem= Feminist; Mul= Multicultural

^{*} Significant at p < .05

Table 7
Correlation Coefficients for TOPS-R and SSI

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
|-------------|-----|-----|------|-----|------|------|-----|-----|------|------|-----|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| 1. Psy-T | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Psy-S | .09 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Cog-T | 17 | .07 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Cog-S | 26 | 52* | .52* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Hum-T | .18 | .05 | 29 | 33 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Hum-S | 17 | .19 | .29 | .04 | .38 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Fam-T | .10 | 05 | .43 | .17 | .20 | .51* | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Fam-S | 09 | .09 | 01 | 08 | .46* | .41 | .32 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Fem-T | 03 | 09 | .12 | .03 | .17 | .09 | .27 | .28 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Fem-S | 08 | .30 | .05 | 40 | .30 | .18 | .08 | .32 | 19 | - | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Mul-T | .14 | 16 | 03 | 09 | .32 | .06 | .10 | 16 | .52* | 29 | - | | | | | | | |
| 12. Mult-S | 08 | .35 | .46* | 12 | 26 | .38 | .31 | 05 | .07 | .42 | 04 | - | | | | | | |
| 13. A/A-T | 10 | 15 | 01 | .26 | 21 | 06 | .24 | 19 | .38 | 40 | .35 | 07 | - | | | | | |
| 14. A/A-S | 28 | 00 | 01 | 34 | .05 | .22 | 07 | .04 | .00 | .54* | .02 | .49* | 32 | - | | | | |
| 15. ND/D-T | .05 | .10 | 03 | 12 | .02 | .08 | 03 | 24 | 36 | .23 | 06 | .40 | .10 | .15 | - | | | |
| 16. ND/D-S | .14 | .39 | 10 | 49* | .29 | .05 | .10 | .09 | .06 | .13 | .10 | .06 | 06 | .30 | .09 | - | | |
| 17. SD/NSD- | 27 | 04 | .22 | .04 | 43 | .10 | .29 | 02 | .02 | .21 | 14 | .47* | .54* | .21 | .43 | .04 | - | |
| T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. SD/NSD- | 36 | .16 | .16 | .10 | 20 | 07 | 09 | 26 | 05 | 15 | 12 | .05 | .39 | .09 | .41 | .26 | .33 | - |
| S | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

T= Trainee; S= Supervisor; Psy= Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic; Cog= Cognitive or Behavioral; Hum= Humanistic or Existential; Fam= Family System; Fem= Feminist; Mul= Multicultural; A/A= Affiliative/Authoritative; ND/D= Non-Directive/Directive; SD/NSD= Self-Disclosing/Non-Self-Disclosing

^{*} Significant at p < .05

Table 8
Correlation Coefficients for SSI and MBTI

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|-------------|-------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| 1. A/A-T | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. A/A-S | 32 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. ND/D-T | .10 | .15 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. ND/D-S | 06 | .30 | .09 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. SD/NSD- | .54* | .21 | .43 | .04 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. SD/NSD-S | S .39 | .09 | .41 | .26 | .33 | - | | | | | | | | |
| 7. ie-T | .29 | .22 | .03 | .09 | .45 | .14 | - | | | | | | | |
| 8. ie-S | .13 | .17 | .54* | .25 | .17 | .15 | 25 | - | | | | | | |
| 9. ns-T | 11 | .46* | .56* | .25 | .16 | .03 | .14 | .41 | - | | | | | |
| 10. ns-S | 27 | .33 | 43 | 30 | 20 | 31 | 10 | 02 | 21 | - | | | | |
| 11. ft-T | 25 | .19 | .39 | 20 | .16 | 23 | 05 | .04 | .24 | 10 | - | | | |
| 12. ft-S | .25 | .02 | .43 | .24 | .36 | .39 | .43 | 01 | .07 | 57* | .17 | - | | |
| 13. pj-T | 13 | .18 | .33 | .21 | .03 | .00 | .26 | .12 | .55* | 24 | .40 | .28 | - | |
| 14. pj-S | 21 | .47* | .21 | .48* | .12 | .05 | .26 | .18 | .40 | .01 | .28 | .26 | .38 | - |

T= Trainee; S= Supervisor; A/A= Affiliative/Authoritative; ND/D= Non-Directive/Directive; SD/NSD= Self-Disclosing/Non-Self-Disclosing; ie= Introversion/Extraversion; ns= Intuitive/Sensing; ft= Feeling/Thinking;

pj= Perceiving/Judging

Research Question 3:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision?

^{*}Significant at p < .05

Null Hypothesis 3.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's MBTI scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 3.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 3.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's SSI scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

First, D² similarity score was conducted to form similarity scores for the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between supervisors and trainees. Then, a multivariate linear regression analysis was conducted to determine if the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI were significant predictors of the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision. The predictor variables for this analysis were the D² similarity scores of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between the supervisors and the trainees. The ISSS-MD scores on the trainee's survey served as the criterion variable. The alpha level for the regression analysis was set at .05. The final regression model accounted for approximately 12% of the variance and was not statistically significant (F= .664, p = .587). The regression analysis revealed that the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style (β = .088, p = .740), theoretical orientation (β = -.199, p = .425), and supervisory style (β = -.224, p = .402) were not significant predictors of the frequency of cultural discussion in supervision as measured by the ISSS-MD full scale. Based on these results, Null Hypothesis 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 cannot be rejected.

Research Question 4:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict trainee's acculturation level?

Null Hypothesis 4.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's MBTI scores and the trainee's acculturation level.

Null Hypothesis 4.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's TOPS-R scores and the trainee's acculturation level.

Null Hypothesis 4.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's SSI scores and the trainee's acculturation level.

Using D² similarity scores for the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI subscale scores between the supervisors and the trainees, a multivariate linear regression analysis with Stepwise method was conducted to determine if the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style were significant predictors of trainee's acculturation level. The predictor variables for this analysis were the D² similarity scores of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI between the supervisors and the trainees. The SL-ASIA scores reported by the trainees served as the criterion variable. The alpha level for the regression analysis was set at .05.

According to the data analysis, the first regression model accounted for approximately 21% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 4.478, p = .049). The result indicated that the similarities of supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation (β = .457, p = .049) was statistically significant in predicting the trainee's acculturation level. Although the similarity of

supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style alone was not a significant predictor of the trainee's acculturation level, the similarity of supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style (β = -.430, p = .042) was found statistically significant in predicting trainee's acculturation level when adding to the first regression model.

The second regression model, which includes the D² similarity scores of supervisor's and trainee's scores on the MBTI subscales and the TOPS-R subscales, accounted for approximately 39% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 5.182, p = .018). The similarity of supervisor's and trainee's supervisory style ($\beta = .075$, p = .731) was not statistically significant in predicting the trainee's acculturation level. Based on these results, Null Hypothesis 4.1 and 4.3 cannot be rejected individually, but Null Hypothesis 4.2 is rejected.

Research Question 5:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision?

Null Hypothesis 5.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's MBTI subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 5.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

Null Hypothesis 5.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's SSI subscale scores and the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

A multivariate linear regression analysis with Stepwise method was conducted to determine if supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style were significant predictors of the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision. The predictor variables for the analyses were the supervisor's and trainee's scores on the subscales of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI. The ISSS-MD scores reported by the trainees served as the criterion variable. The alpha level for the regression analysis was set at .05. The first regression model accounted for approximately 23% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 5.180, p = .036). The regression analysis revealed that supervisor's Humanistic (β = .483, p = .036) scores alone were significantly in predicting the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision.

Furthermore, when adding other factors to the first regression model, the results showed that the supervisor's Self-Disclosing (β = .558, p = .002), the trainee's Psychoanalysis/Psychodynamic (β = .581, p = .002), and the trainee's Humanistic (β = -.411, p = .018) scores were also significantly in predicting the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision. The final regression model with 4 predictors accounted for approximately 74% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 9.985, p = .000). Based on the results, Null Hypothesis 5.1 and 5.3 cannot be rejected individually, but Null Hypothesis 5.2 is rejected. *Research Question* 6:

In a positive supervisory relationship, can supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style predict trainee's acculturation level?

Null Hypothesis 6.1. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's MBTI subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.

Null Hypothesis 6.2. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's TOPS-R subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.

Null Hypothesis 6.3. There will be no statistically significant difference between supervisor's or trainee's SSI subscale scores and trainee's acculturation level.

Three multivariate linear regression analyses with Stepwise method were conducted to determine if supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style were significant predictors of trainee's acculturation level. The predictor variables for the analyses were the supervisor's and trainee's scores on the subscales of the MBTI, TOPS-R, and SSI. The ISSS-MD scores reported by the trainees served as the criterion variable. The alpha level for the regression analyses was set at .05. The multivariate linear regression, which used the SSI subscales scores as the predictor variables, showed that the trainee's Affiliative/Authoritative scores ($\beta = -.473$, p = .041) were statistically significant in predicting trainee's acculturation level. This regression model accounted for approximately 22% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 4.893, p = .041).

The multivariate linear regression, which used the TOPS-R subscale scores as predictor variables, indicated that both trainee's Multicultural scores (β = -.763, p = .000) and supervisor's Family System scores (β = -.384, p = .023) served as negative predictors for the trainee's acculturation level. This regression model accounted for approximately 64% of the variance and was statistically significant (F= 14.054, p = .000). No significant results were obtained when using supervisor's or trainee's MBTI subscale scores as predictor variables. Based on the results, Null Hypothesis 6.1 cannot be rejected, whereas Null Hypothesis 6.2 and 6.3 are rejected.

Result Summary

Null Hypotheses 1.1 and 1.3 were rejected following the data analyses. The statistical analyses revealed that in a positive supervisory relationship, the supervisors' cognitive style and supervisory style showed significant differences compared to the cognitive style and supervisory

style of Asian international counseling trainees. According to the independent-samples T-test on MBTI scores, the result revealed that supervisors tend to report a preference for the Perceiving style, whereas trainees reported a preference for the Judging style when interacting with the external world or approaching their life. Although both the supervisors and the trainees preferred the Affiliative type of supervisory style, the finding showed that supervisors tend to rate higher on the continuous scale for the Affiliative type of supervisory style than the Asian international counseling trainees. No significant differences were found to reject Null Hypothesis 1.2, which means that there were no significant differences found between supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation.

The results of the statistical analyses identified that in a positive supervisory relationship, some significant relationships exist between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style. The data analyses revealed that positive relationships were identified in the correlation of trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Intuitive-Sensing scores, trainee's Intuitive-Sensing scores and supervisor's Feminist scores, trainee's Intuitive-Sensing scores and supervisor's Multicultural scores, trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Cognitive scores, trainee's Cognitive scores and supervisor's Multicultural scores, trainee's Family scores and Supervisor's Humanistic scores, trainee's Humanistic scores and supervisor's Family scores, trainee's Self-Disclosing/Non-self-disclosing scores and supervisor's Multicultural scores, trainee's Non-Directive/Directive scores and supervisor's Introversion/Extraversion scores, and trainee's Intuitive/Sensing scores and supervisor's Affiliative/Authoritative scores. Therefore, based on the statistically significant relationships identified in the analyses, Null Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 are rejected.

An analysis of Hypotheses 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 did not yield significant results. The findings indicated that the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style cannot predict the frequency of cultural discussions occurred in supervision. Hypotheses 4.1 and 4.3 were not rejected by the data analyses as well. The regression outcomes suggested that the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style and supervisory style do not function as predictors of trainee's acculturation level. However, some significant results were found to reject Null Hypothesis 4.2. The finding demonstrated that the similarities between supervisor's and trainee's theoretical orientation emerged as a positive predictor of trainee's acculturation level.

Finally, when considering individually supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style in predicting the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision or the trainee's acculturation level, the data analyses yielded some significant results to reject Null Hypotheses 5.2, 6.2, and 6.3. According to the findings, supervisor's identification with Humanistic theory emerged as a positive predictor of the frequency of cultural discussions conducted in supervision. The statistical analyses for predicting trainee's acculturation level revealed that a trainee's preference for the Affiliative supervisory style and Multicultural theoretical orientation as well as supervisor's identification with Family System theory are significantly related to a trainee's identification with Asian values and beliefs. No significant differences were found to reject Null Hypotheses 5.1, 5.3, and 6.1. Thus, supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style and supervisory style cannot predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision. Additionally, supervisor's or trainee's cognitive style does not serve as a predictor of a trainee's acculturation level either.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Conclusion

Asian international counseling trainees bring many benefits to the field of counseling psychology. Not only does this population present different worldviews that may enhance discussions related to culture issues in counseling but members may potentially aide in the advancement of multicultural competencies for the faculty and students involved in such discussions (Smith & Ng, 2009). Asian international counseling trainees may also build bridges to connect the gap between research and clinical practice in the United States and around the world (Hasan, Fouad, & Williams-Nickelson, 2008), and are noted for their counseling skills in picking up non-verbal communications in therapy, prompting the field to emphasize what might have been overlooked in the session (Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010). While the benefits they bring to the field have began to be valued by the profession, concerns have been raised regarding the appropriateness of the training and supervision provided by counseling related programs in the United States (Chen, 2004; Delgado-Romero & Wu, 2010; Fuller, 2006; Giorgis & Helms, 1978; Killian, 2001; Koyama, 2010; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Nilsson & Wang; 2008; Smith & Ng, 2009).

The existing qualitative research emphasized on the importance of cultural discussions in supervision, trainee's acculturation level, and supervisory relationship as well as explored their correlation with other factors such as self-efficacy, academic stress, role ambiguity, and

perceived multicultural competency of supervisors (Nilsson & Dodds, 2006; Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Mori et al., 2009; Nilsson, 2007). In the general supervision literature, individual characteristics have been assessed in great length in relation to their effects on the supervision process and outcome (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). However, differences in and mismatch of cognitive styles, learning needs, and communication styles between teachers/supervisors and the Asian international students have been mentioned without further investigation of their effects on the students' learning outcome (Killian, 2001; Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007; Johnson & Sandbu, 2007). Inevitably, limited resources were available to help programs use cultural-sensitive methods in providing training and supervision for the U.S. international students in psychology and resulted in dissatisfaction with the training as reported by this group of students (Smith & Ng, 2009). Therefore, the present study proposed using supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style to help clinical supervisors build the supervisory relationship, facilitating cultural discussions, and assist acculturation process when providing training to Asian international counseling trainees in the **United States**

Several significant results were found in the present study. First of all, the study assessed for differences among the cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style of the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees in a positive supervisory relationship. The results report no significant difference in the theoretical orientation identification between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees in a positive supervisory relationship. This suggested that in a positive supervisory relationship, supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees may have similar theoretical orientations. The result is also consistent with previous research by Ramos-Sanchez et al. (2002), which suggested that the

similarity of theoretical orientation between supervisor and trainee might contribute to positive supervisory relationship.

In regards to the supervisory style, there were no significant differences reported between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees, except on the Affiliative/Authoritative subscale of the SSI. While the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees preferred the Affiliative type of supervisory style, the supervisors indicated much stronger preference for the Affiliative type of supervisory style than the Asian international counseling trainees. One possible interpretation of this result may be that supervisors tend to value the opinions and experience of the trainees and encourage collaboration and foster egalitarian relationships, while Asian international counseling trainees may experience more comfort in supervision when some level of hierarchy and boundaries exist between supervisor and trainee and when the supervisor is in charge of what learning will take place (Long et al., 1996).

Despite the difference found between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees on the Affiliative/Authoritative style, this result is supported by previous studies, which also indicated that supervisors with attractive and interpersonally sensitive types of supervisory style can predict trainees' satisfaction with supervision and the positive working alliance (Chen & Bernstein, 2000; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Spelliscy et al., 2007). Moreover, the Asian cultural background of the trainee participants in this study might explain the difference found in this study. In Killian's interview (2001), Asian international counseling students reported feeling more familiar in a top-down hierarchy relationship and more comfortable with the explicit, structured approach than the spontaneous, collaborative approach, which is more of a Western-based teaching method. Based on D.W.Sue & Sue's (2003) article,

the prediction can be made that the difference between supervisors' and Asian international counseling trainees' preference on the Affiliative/Authoritative style might be more obvious when the interaction happens in a teacher-student and supervisor-supervisee relationships.

In a positive supervisory relationship, differences between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees was also detected on their reported cognitive styles. Supported by previous research (Handley, 1982), the difference on the cognitive style between the supervisors and the trainees did not affect the supervisory relationship. In present study, the supervisors indicated stronger preference for flexibility, spontaneity, information gathering, and assimilation of new ideas and information (Perceiving profile on the MBTI), whereas the Asian international counseling trainees reported a stronger preference for order, rule, closure, and decision-making (Judging profile on the MBTI). Although the literature indicated differences in cognitive style between supervisors and trainees on the F-T profile and P-J profile, former studies concluded that supervisors tend to obtain a Judging profile while trainees are more likely to endorse a Perceiving profile (Craig & Sleight, 1990).

The contradictory result may be due to the different professional identities (i.e., academic or clinical settings) between the supervisors in this study and the supervisors who participanted in the previous study (Craig & Sleight, 1990; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). It may also be the trainee participants' cultural differences. While Caucasians tend to endorse the Perceiving type when compared to African Americans and Hispanics in the United States (Hammer & Mitchell, 1996), research conducted in China reported that the Judging type was significantly more prevalent among the Chinese undergraduates than traditional American students (Williams et al., 1992).

In a positive supervisory relationship, several significant correlations were reported among supervisors' and Asian international counseling trainees' cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style. Trainees who endorsed stronger Cognitive/Behavioral theoretical orientation tended to match better with supervisors who also reported a stronger identification with the Intuitive profile on the MBTI. Trainees also seemed to relate better to supervisors who reported a stronger Cognitive/Behavioral or Multicultural theoretical orientation. Trainees who identified stronger with the Intuitive profile may prefer having a supervisor with a Feminist or Multicultural theoretical orientation or a supervisor with an Affiliative supervisory style. Trainees who prefer the Self-disclosing type of supervisory style tended to prefer supervisors with stronger a Multicultural theoretical orientation. Trainees who preferred the Non-directive supervisory style may have a positive supervisory relationship with supervisors with an Introvert profile on the MBTI. Interestingly, trainees who reported a Family theoretical orientation seemed to connect with supervisors whose theoretical orientation identified as Humanistic/Existential. Vice versa, trainees with stronger a Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation seemed to relate better to supervisors with a Family theoretical orientation.

Concluding from the above correlations, a supervisor with a Multicultural theoretical orientation might have better chance to build a positive supervisory relationship with Asian international counseling trainees since this trait of a supervisor had the most matches with different type of cognitive style and supervisory style reported by trainees in the present study. It can be understood that supervisors with a Multicultural theoretical orientation may be more motivated in gaining cultural awareness and knowledge as well as more sensitive in applying culturally appropriate interventions in supervision than supervisors with other theoretical

orientation. Such culturally appropriate supervision is consistent with the principles of multicultural supervision, which was shown as a predictor for a stronger supervisory working alliance and higher supervision satisfaction (Inman, 2006).

The reported similarities among cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style of the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees did not predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision. Except for the theoretical orientation, the similarities among these individual characteristics between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees also did not predict the trainees' acculturation level as well. Due to the design of the present study, the prediction might be unavailable because this study only looked at these variables under supervisory relationships that were already reported as positive. Moreover, the insignificant result could be explained by the conclusion made by previous researchers (Holloway et al., 1989; Putney et al., 1992; Bernard & Goodyear, 2009), which was that instead of the actual similarity, perceived similarity might be more important and predictive of supervision outcome.

On the other hand, the similarity of the theoretical orientation between the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees was statistically significant in the prediction of the trainees' acculturation level. The more similar the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees were in terms of theoretical orientations, the more likely that the trainees endorsed a stronger identity with the Asian culture. This phenomenon may be in response to the hierarchical or teacher-center educational system prevalent in Asian countries (Crittenden, 1994; Xia, 2000; Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007). A student is expected to acquire knowledge from a teacher and is considered rude when proposing his/her own opinion to challenge the authority in a classroom (Scollon & Wong-Scollon, 1991). Therefore, a trainee who holds a stronger

identification with Asian values and beliefs may be more accepting of the theoretical orientation conveyed by his/her supervisor.

When examining each of the individual characteristics of the supervisors and the Asian international counseling trainees, a few variables exhibited the ability to predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision or the trainees' acculturation levels. In the prediction of the frequency of cultural discussions, supervisors with a stronger Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation seemed to lead more frequent discussions of culturally-related issues in supervision. This connection may be explainable by the nature and core values of the Humanistic/Existential theories. According to the principles associated with Person-Centered and the Existential theories (Corey, 2009), trainees might feel more comfortable to self-disclose and talk about cultural-related issues when supervisors demonstrate empathy and positive regards toward individual differences, accept anxiety in supervisory dyad, emphasize self-awareness and self-actualization, and value the potentials and the strengths of trainees to assist their self-growth.

At last, trainees' stronger identification with Asian culture was predictive by trainees' stronger preference for the Affiliative supervisory style, trainees' stronger identification with the Multicultural theoretical orientation, and supervisors' stronger identification with the Family Systems theoretical orientation. Some existing research findings might support these predictions found in the present study. A consensus has been established within supervision research with international counseling students that social support is important for international counseling students and is often reported as lacking, especially when they feel unfamiliar with the U.S. culture and uncomfortable interacting with their U.S. peers (Chen, 2004; Fuller, 2005; Mittal & Wieling, 2006; Koyama, 2010). Conclusively, trainees who report a stronger Asian identity might express more need for support due to social isolation, and consequently prefer a supervisor

who conduct supervision in Affiliative style and focus on developing interpersonal relationship in supervision.

Previous research also indicated that international counseling trainees with a stronger Asian identity are more likely to engage in cultural discussions (Nilsson & Anderson, 2004; Mori et al., 2009). Thus, this might explain why trainees with a stronger Asian identity may prone to adopt a Multicultural theoretical orientation. Coming from a collectivist society that is environmentally-centered and family-oriented (Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007), supervisors might find it more appropriate to conduct supervision using a Family Systems theoretical orientation with trainees who also maintain a strong connection to their Asian identity.

Implications

The results of this study suggested that being aware of and utilizing supervisor's and trainee's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style may be useful to enhance a positive supervisory relationship, facilitate cultural discussions, and assisting Asian international counseling trainees with their acculturation process.

First of all, this research provides a general overview of the individual characteristic differences that might exist between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees in a positive supervisory relationship. Supervisors are recommended to be aware of the Perceiving-Judging cognitive style differences existing on the MBTI between them and their Asian international counseling trainee. One's cognitive style was found to be connected with one's preferred supervisory style (Lochner & Melchert, 1997). According to Moore et al. (2004), Asian international counseling trainees who endorse a Judging profile might prefer structured supervision and consecutive projects with deadlines. On the other hand, supervisors with a Perceiving profile might be more flexible and tend to assign multiple projects at the same time.

Similar to ignoring the differences in cultural values and beliefs, misunderstanding behaviors and mismatching learning needs could lead to frustration when supervisors and trainees fail to recognize their differences in cognitive styles (Craig & Sleight, 1990; Clingerman, 2006). In order to meet the learning needs of Asian international counseling trainees, there may be a need to modify the supervisory style based on cognitive styles. Thus, supervisors are recommended to understand their strengths and weaknesses as well as the strengths and weakness of their trainees' cognitive styles.

The findings of the current research also challenge the previous conceptualization of the appropriate supervisory approach for Asian international counseling trainees. Since the majority of Asian international counseling trainees are brought up in a hierarchy relationship society and a teacher-centered education environment, it was assumed that they might be uncomfortable with cooperative relationships and would prefer a supervisor with an Authoritative style (Killian, 2001). However, this study suggested otherwise. Although Asian international counseling trainees might endorse a weaker preference for the Affiliative style compared to their supervisors' scores, they seem to prefer supervision that focuses on interpersonal relationships and developing positive supervisory relationships with supervisors who encourage collaboration as well as respect their opinions and ideas.

Even though group differences were not reported in the theoretical orientations between the supervisors' and the trainees' groups, caution should be taken when interpreting such findings. Previous research indicated that supervisors' theory tend to have a greater influence in supervision than the trainees' (Putney et al., 1997), and Asian international counseling trainees might be uncomfortable challenging the supervisor's theory due to their cultural value of paying respect for the authority figures (Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007). Thus, the conformability may seem

to contribute to a positive supervisory relationship, but supervisors should be careful of their power in the relationship and make effort to allow Asian international counseling trainees to gain autonomy in developing their own theoretical orientation. Consequently, this may help Asian international counseling trainees in becoming more accepting of Western values and behaviors without given up their Asian identity.

Although differences may exist, supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees do not have to possess the same cognitive style, theoretical orientation, or supervisory style in order to build a positive supervisory relationship or promote cultural discussions in supervision. The strengths and weaknesses of different individual characteristics may be complementary to each other (Andrews, 1989; Putney et al., 1992; Lochner & Melchert, 1997; Kitzrow, 2001; Capraro & Capraro, 2002; Moore et al., 2004). The advantage of having unmatched individual characteristics between supervisors and trainees was for the supervisors to challenge their trainees to learn necessary skills and different perspectives (Rigazio-DiGilio & Anderson, 1994).

Thus, to strive for positive supervision experiences and increase cultural discussions, the present study suggests that supervisors and trainees should focus on understanding their individual characteristics so that they could raise awareness of self, form a better knowledge of the other, and develop effective skills in giving and receiving information and feedbacks in supervision according to the strengths and weakness of their individual characteristics.

Supervisors are recommended to be flexible with their approach in conducting supervision so that not only they can meet the needs of trainees but also challenge trainees to extend their knowledge and skills in counseling.

Even though similarities among the individual characteristics between supervisors and trainees do not predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision, some individual characteristics may increase the likelihood of such conversations. For example, compared to supervisors maintaining other theoretical orientations, supervisors with a Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation may obtain greater satisfaction ratings from Asian international counseling trainees regarding the amount and the depth of cultural discussions conducted in supervision.

Supported by Carew's (2009) qualitative study, the Person-centered group was the only group that discussed cultural issues such as sexual orientation and beliefs, whereas the Psychodynamic, Cognitive Behavioral, and Systemic groups did not report such discussions being carried on during the group sessions. Therefore, supervisors are encouraged to incorporate the principles of the Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation to help Asian international counseling trainees feel comfortable in self-disclosure and talk about culture-related issues in supervision.

Furthermore, some individual characteristics may be used to predict the acculturation level of Asian international counseling trainees and may also be helpful to supervisors who are trying to assist them in the acculturation process. For example, Asian international counseling trainees' enthusiasm for Multicultural theory may imply their pride for their Asian cultural background. Additionally, they may demonstrate greater need for interpersonal support and respect from their supervisors than those who identify strongly with Western values and conform to Western behaviors. Supervisors may consider taking the Family Systems theory's perspectives when providing supervision to trainees with strong Asian identity so that the conceptualizations and interventions would be more appropriately fit to trainees' family-oriented and collectivistic backgrounds. Concluding from these findings, the present study recommends that supervisors gain skills in assessing trainee's acculturation level and may also adopt a framework that

includes elements of the Affiliative supervisory style, Family Systems and Multicultural theoretical orientation in order to meet the needs of trainees with a strong Asian identity.

At last, in a positive supervisory relationship, there were several correlations reported among the individual characteristics between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees. These correlations emphasize the importance of acknowledging one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style as well as the interaction of such in a supervisory dyad. The supervisors' Multicultural theoretical orientation may be a better indicator in matching the needs of Asian international counseling trainees in regards to their cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style preference. For example, the supervisor's Multicultural theoretical orientation is related to the trainee's preference for a Self-disclosing supervisory style, which could promote the working alliance and increase the frequency of culture discussions being carried in supervision (Gatmon et al., 2001; Miller & Ivey, 2006; Nilsson & Dodds, 2006).

Limitations and Future Directions

Although the present study contributes to a better understanding of Asian international trainees' experiences in supervision, several limitations need to be addressed. Additionally, the limitations of the present study also provide directions for future study.

The small sample size and the limited target region for recruiting the participants reduce the generalizability of the data. The study limited its focus exclusively to Asian international counseling trainees in the United States; hence, findings cannot be otherwise generalized. The small sample size also limited the study from exploring the within group differences, such as gender, language proficiency, the type of training program in which the trainees were enrolled, and the degree that they pursued. These demographic variables may have a significant impact on

the results of the present study. The gender in the paired supervisor and trainee may affect the supervisory relationship, supervisory style, and supervision outcome. The supervisors' and trainees' training backgrounds (i.e., academic training programs, clinical training settings, and types of degree obtained) may result in different supervision experiences and outcomes.

Foremost, trainees from different regions of Asia may have different experiences in counseling and supervision. For example, students from South Asia may be more fluent in English and have more of Western influence than students from East Asian countries (Sheu & Fukuyama, 2007; Ibrabim & Ingram, 2007). Their resulting experiences with language and cultural barriers may be very different from one other and could influence their training needs and their interactions in supervision. Therefore, future research is warranted to test the generalizability of the present study and examine the within group differences for this population.

Another related issue is the high attrition rate present within the study. Out of 56 individuals who started the research study, only 25 completed the entire data collection process. Due to the use of an online survey, it is difficult to formulate a rational for the high attrition rate. However, it is plausible that the time required to complete the questionnaires may have been a strain on the graduate students' demanding schedules. Furthermore, 7 out of 31 individuals completed the survey but did not nominate a supervisor for the second portion of the research. Based on the understanding of Asian culture, a possible explanation may be that the students were uncomfortable asking the supervisors for assistance for fear of adding burden to their supervisors on their behalves.

Yet technical difficulties related to the use of an online survey may be another reason for the discontinued participations (e.g. a participant is unable to retrieve his/her previous record once the online survey was disconnected during the participation). Regardless of the reasons for the attrition rate, future research is recommended to select more concise scales, encourage participants to maintain Internet connection and finish the online survey without disruption, and provide an even more secure procedure to ensure the confidentiality of the nominations made by trainee participants.

A second limitation of this study is related to the self-report nature of the questionnaires. Limited in accuracy, self-report studies are inherently biased by the person's feelings. Especially with Likert type scales, there is a tendency for people to respond towards the middle of the scale in order to make them look less extreme. Rather than measuring actual behaviors, the questions in the present study measured self-perception of the participants' cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and supervisory styles. Additionally, as the majority of the supervisors reported modifying their approaches when providing supervision to their Asian international counseling trainees, the use of the SSI raised specific concerns. Although the instruction asked the supervisors to rate their general preference for a supervisory style on the SSI, it is uncertain as to how much the supervisors were influenced by the purpose of the study and in result answered questions according to a modified supervisory style for Asian international counseling trainees. Therefore, future research is recommended in order to address such a limitation. Specifically, reliable information may be obtained through an observer assessment. A semi-qualitative and quantitative research design is also recommended in order to provide opportunities for participants to clarify the meaning of their responses.

An additional limitation of the present study is the use of Euro-American culture based instruments (e.g. the MBTI and SSI). Although it is assumed that Asian international trainees enrolled in graduate programs would have sufficient language ability with English, some of the wordings or constructs that are Euro-American culture based may not be fully valid for Asian international students. This could potentially result in biased interpretations of the findings. The present study encourages the development of culturally specific scales to reduce the impact of such a limitation in future studies.

Because the data collected by the present study are cross-sectional in nature, it is unknown whether results would be similar if the data were collected during the supervision process or upon completion of supervision. In order to participate in the study, trainee participants were required to have at least 3 months of supervisory relationship with their nominated supervisors before they reflected on such supervision experiences. Such data only captured a snap shot view of trainees' supervision experiences. It would be interesting to follow the same participants and collect data at different point in time (e.g. beginning, middle, and end of supervisory relationship) in order to see whether the results would suggest differences that reflect the process of supervision and the developmental level of trainees. Therefore, a longitudinal study may be informative in investigating whether one's preference for cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style would change to accommodate the other's individual characteristics in order to form positive supervisory relationship. Furthermore, a longitudinal study could examine whether such changes or non-changes predict the frequency of cultural discussions occurring in supervision as well as the acculturation level of the Asian international counseling trainee.

Lastly, the present study is also limited in exploring the match in the cultural competency level between supervisors and trainees. Literature has suggested that similarities and differences between supervisors' and international trainees' cultural competence may have an influence on the supervisory working alliance and supervision outcome, especially with the racial/ethnic minority student population (Ancis & Ladany, 2001). Thus, future research is recommended to explore the match between supervisors' and trainees' cultural competency level and its effect on cultural discussions and the acculturation process of Asian international counseling trainees.

Summary

While taking cautious consideration of the limitations, the results of the present study highlights different perspectives in understanding and providing supervision to meet the training needs of Asian international counseling trainees in the United States The findings suggest that there are group differences in cognitive style on the Perceiving-Judging subscale of the MBTI and supervisory style on the Affiliative/Authoritative subscales of the SSI between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees. Supervisors need to be mindful of the possible differences that may exist due to different cognitive styles and preferred supervisory style when conceptualizing trainees' behaviors in supervision. They are also recommended to be flexible in conducting structured supervision with focus on interpersonal relationship to meet the training needs of Asian international counseling trainees.

The present study also recommended supervisors to gain skills in assessing one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style because the correlations of these individual characteristics were found between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees who reported satisfaction of their supervision experiences. Although correlations do not equal to causal relationship, supervisors are encouraged to adopt Multicultural theoretical orientation

because it is positively related to trainees' preference for Self-disclosing supervisory style, which may leads to more frequent cultural discussions in supervision.

The results of present study indicate that similarities of cognitive styles, theoretical orientations, and supervisory styles between supervisors and Asian international counseling trainees are not necessary in building positive supervisory relationships. Supervisors are cautioned about Asian international counseling trainees' tendency to conform to authority figures. They are advised to encourage the autonomy of trainees in regards to forming their own theoretical orientations in counseling. By helping them to gain autonomy, trainees may gradually become comfortable voicing their opinions and their understanding and acceptance of Western values and behaviors.

Although similarities of these individual characteristics may not predict the frequency of cultural discussions in supervision, some individual characteristics can be helpful to facilitate such conversations in supervision with Asian international counseling trainees and assist them in their acculturation process. For example, cultural discussions are more likely to occur in supervision with Asian international counseling trainees when supervisors approach supervision with elements from Humanistic/Existential theoretical orientation. The findings also suggested that supervisors should approach supervision in a supportive, collaborative manner and incorporate the principles of the Multicultural and Family Systems theory in supervision with Asian international counseling trainees who hold strongly to their Asian identity and are less comfortable with Western values and beliefs.

In summary, clinical supervisors who are interested in providing effective, multicultural supervision to Asian international counseling trainees should aim for building positive supervisory relationships, promoting cultural discussions, and helping trainees to advance in the

acculturation process. Supervisors can achieve these goals by obtaining the ability to assess and be aware of one's cognitive style, theoretical orientation, and supervisory style and developing skills to be flexible in providing supervision according to the knowledge of cultural differences and the strengths and weakness of these individual characteristics.

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APPENDICES

A. Recruitment Letter to Trainee

Dear Asian international students,

My name is Yi Chen Wu. You are receiving this email because you are a member of ______ listserv/organization/etc. I would appreciate your help with my doctoral dissertation research titled "Factors contributing to cultural discussions with Asian international counseling trainees: cognitive style, theoretical orientation, supervisory style, multicultural competency, and acculturation" which is being conducted under the direction of Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero, Human Development and Counseling Services, University of Georgia. The purpose of this research is to explore factors that contribute to positive relationships between Asian international trainees and their clinical supervisors.

I would like to invite **Asian international trainees in counseling related programs** to participate in this research project, including **nominating one of your clinical supervisors**. This supervisor has to have provided supervision to him/her for at least three months. The supervisor will be informed that they were nominated by one of their Asian international trainees and invited to participate in the study. After the survey, trainee's information will be matched with supervisor's information. However, both student and supervisor will not have access to the other's result. Any individually identifiable information about participants will be kept confidential.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey via Survey Quizmo which will take approximately 25-50 minutes to complete. By completing this survey and sharing your experiences of clinical training, you will be able to contribute to multicultural supervision literature and help supervisors provide more effective training for Asian international counseling students.

As an appreciation for your participation in the survey, you may choose to enter into a raffle for one of \$10 Starbucks gift cards or \$25 visa gift cards. Your email address will be collected and will not be linked to any survey responses.

Please see below for the links to the trainee survey. When you click on link you will be presented with an introduction to the survey and informed consent. If you understand the procedures and agree to participate, you will be instructed to click the "I agree" button and proceed to the beginning of the survey.

Click here for link to trainee survey. http://edu.surveygizmo.com/s3/879032/Trainee-Form

If you know any Asian international counseling students who would be interested in taking part in this research project, please feel free to forward this email. If you or anyone has any questions or concerns about this project, feel free to contact me at yicwu@uga.edu or (865)824-8951 or Dr. Delgado-Romero at edelgado@uga.edu or (706)542-1812.

Thank you!

Yi-Chen Wu Doctoral Candidate Counseling Psychology University of Georgia

B. Recruitment Letter to Supervisor

Dear supervisor,

My name is Yi Chen Wu. You are receiving this email because you were nominated by one of your Asian international trainees to share your supervision experiences with Asian international students. I would appreciate your help with my doctoral dissertation research titled "Factors contributing to cultural discussions with Asian international counseling trainees: cognitive style, theoretical orientation, supervisory style, multicultural competency, and acculturation" which is being conducted under the direction of Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero, Human Development and Counseling Services, University of Georgia. The purpose of this research is to explore factors that contribute to positive relationships between Asian international trainees and their clinical supervisors.

Your information will be matched with the student's information for study purpose. However, any individually identifiable information about participants will be kept confidential. The student will not be able to see your answers.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey via Survey Quizmo which will take approximately 15-40 minutes to complete. Please remember that your matching code is _____. You will be asked to put the code down on the survey for matching purpose. By completing this survey and sharing your experiences of providing clinical training, you will be able to contribute to multicultural supervision literature and help other supervisors provide more effective training for Asian international counseling students.

As an appreciation for your participation in the survey, you may choose to enter into a raffle for one of \$10 Starbucks gift cards or \$25 visa gift cards. Your email address will be collected and will not be linked to any survey responses.

Please see below for the link to the supervisor survey. When you click on link you will be presented with an introduction to the survey and informed consent. If you understand the procedures and agree to participate, you will be instructed to click the "I agree" button and proceed to the beginning of the survey.

Click here for link to supervisor survey.

http://edu.surveygizmo.com/s3/878351/Supervisor-form

If you have any questions or concerns about this project, feel free to contact me at yicwu@uga.edu or (865) 821-8951 or Dr. Delgado-Romero at edelgado@uga.edu or (706) 542-1812.

Thank you!

Yi-Chen Wu Doctoral Candidate Counseling Psychology University of Georgia

C. IRB Consent Form for Trainee

I agree to take part in a research study titled "Factors contributing to cultural discussions with Asian international counseling trainees: cognitive style, theoretical orientation, supervisory style, multicultural competency, and acculturation", which is being conducted by Yi-Chen Wu, Counseling Psychology at University of Georgia (vicwu@uga.edu), under the direction of Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero, Counseling Psychology at University of Georgia (edelgado@uga.edu).

The purpose of the study is to find effective ways to help Asian international counseling trainees to talk about cultural issues in supervision. By participating in this 25-50 minutes online survey study, I have the opportunity to contribute to the multicultural supervision area in psychology field and help future supervisors provide effective clinical training to Asian international counseling trainees. I understand that I will be required to nominate a supervisor whom I worked with for at least 3 months and have positive relationship with. This supervisor will be contacted through the email address provided by me and asked to participate in the study to give their perspectives about how they provide supervision for Asian international trainees.

I am also aware that the information I provided for the study will be matched with the information provided by my supervisor. Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However once the materials are received by the researcher, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. No individually-identifiable information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others, unless if necessary to protect my rights or welfare (for example, if I am injured and need emergency care); or if required by law. It is understood that no more than minimum risk is involved by participating in the study. All participation is voluntary. I can refuse to participate or skip any questions that I am uncomfortable answering to at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have identifiable information related to me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The researcher, Ms. Wu, will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached at yicwu@uga.edu or 865-824-8951.

By clicking "OK" below indicates that the researchers have answered all of my questions to my satisfaction and that I consent to volunteer for this study.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 629 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

D. IRB Consent Form for Supervisor

I agree to take part in a research study titled "Factors contributing to cultural discussions with Asian international counseling trainees: cognitive style, theoretical orientation, supervisory style, multicultural competency, and acculturation", which is being conducted by Yi-Chen Wu, Counseling Psychology at University of Georgia (vicwu@uga.edu), under the direction of Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero, Counseling Psychology at University of Georgia (edelgado@uga.edu).

The purpose of the study is to find effective ways to help Asian international counseling trainees to talk about cultural issues in supervision. By participating in this 15-40 minutes online survey study, I have the opportunity to contribute to the multicultural supervision area in psychology field and help future supervisors provide effective clinical training to Asian international counseling trainees.

I understand the information provided by me will be matched with the information provided by the trainee. Internet communications are insecure and there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself. However once the materials are received by the researcher, standard confidentiality procedures will be employed. No individually-identifiable information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others, unless if necessary to protect my rights or welfare (for example, if I am injured and need emergency care); or if required by law. It is understood that no more than minimum risk is involved by participating in the study. All participation is voluntary. I can refuse to participate or skip any questions that I am uncomfortable answering to at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits which I am otherwise entitled. I can ask to have identifiable information related to me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The researcher, Ms. Wu, will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached at yicwu@uga.edu or 865-824-8951.

By clicking "OK" below indicates that the researchers have answered all of my questions to my satisfaction and that I consent to volunteer for this study.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 629 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

E. Demographic Questionnaires

For Trainee:

This survey begins with some questions about demographic information, followed by questionnaires regarding your satisfaction with cultural discussions, cognitive style, theoretical orientation, acculturation, and preferred supervisory style. Please read each questions carefully, then click on the appropriate response. You may skip questions that you feel uncomfortable responding to.

- 1. What is your gender?
- 2. Please select your age range.
- 3. What ethnicity best describes you?
- 4. What is your nationality?
- 5. How long have you been in the U.S.? (Please put down "months" or "years" for your answer)
- 6. What is the primary language used at your home?
- 7. What is your plan after graduation? *Education Background Form:*
- 1. What program of study are you in?
- 2. What degree are you pursuing in this program?
- 3. Is your program accredited by APA?
- 4. Is your program accredited by CACREP?
- 5. In this current program, what year are you in?
- 6. If you are (have been) on internship, what type of accreditation does your internship site have?

For supervisor:

This survey begins with some questions about demographic information, followed by questions regarding your theoretical orientation, cognitive style, and supervisory style. You may skip questions that you feel uncomfortable responding to.

- 1. Please write down the 5-digit code that was provided to you in the invitation email. This is for the purpose of data matching only.
- 2. What is your gender?
- 3. What's your age range?
- 4. What ethnicity best describes you?
- 5. Were you at anytime an international student in the U.S.? *Supervision experiences:*
- 1. Have you had multicultural theory class during your counseling program?
- 2. Have you attended sessions related to multicultural issues in conferences?
- 3. Have you taken a supervision class in your program where you obtained your highest degree?
- 4. How many years have you been supervising a trainee?
- 5. How confident would you say you know about the Asian culture?
- 6. During your clinical practice, approximately how much percentage of your CLIENTS identified self as non-U.S. citizen?
- 7. Approximately how much percentage of your SUPERVISEES identified self as international students?
- 8. How much culture-related knowledge do you gain after having the experience of supervising Asian international trainees?
- 9. Does your experience with Asian international trainees contribute to your supervision skills?

- F. International Student Supervision Scale-Multicultural Discussion (All questions are rated on Likert scale from 1 to 5)
- 1. My supervisor and I have talked about my ethnic, national, and cultural background in supervision.
- 2. My supervisor and I have talked about how people interact in my native country and how this may differ from the style of interaction in the United States.
- 3. My supervisor and I have discussed the possible differences between nonverbal communication in my native country/culture and nonverbal communication in the United States.
- 4. In supervision, we have talked about my fears/discomforts of doing clinical work in a second language and/or country.
- 5. My supervisor and I have examined how emotions are expressed in my native country and how it may differ from how emotions are expressed in the United States.
- 6. My supervisor and I have discussed aspects of the U.S. culture/society that I did not understand.
- 7. My supervisor and I discussed the possible differences between my culture's view of personal space compared to the view of personal space in the U.S.
- 8. My supervisor was open and willing to talk about cultural and ethnic differences.
- 9. My supervisor and I have discussed how my accent and/or lack of verbal fluency were perceived, or could be perceived, by my clients.
- 10. My supervisor and I have discussed the cultural/ethnic/racial differences between myself and my clients.
- 11. I felt my supervisor was aware of the various experiences international students can have while studying in the United States.
- 12. My supervisor and I have talked about the racial/ethnic climate in the U.S. and how clients from a different racial or ethnic group than my own could perceive me.
- 13. My supervisor and I have discussed how therapy is conducted in my native country.
- 14. My supervisor and I have discussed my clients' reactions or possible reactions to me as an international student.

G. Supervisory Styles Index

Please answer the following questions according to your preference of supervisory style. (All questions are rated on Likert scale from 1 to 4)

- 1. The supervisor is respectful of my opinions about the therapy process.
- 2. The supervisor asks for my input about what is going on with the clients(s).
- 3. In team supervision, the supervisor uses ideas from trainees for phone-ins from behind the mirror.
- 4. The supervisor recognizes me as a person with expertise.
- 5. The supervisor expects me to be in charge of my case load.
- 6. In a team meeting, the supervisor dominates the discussion.
- 7. The supervisor expects me to develop the plan for an upcoming therapy session rather than providing one for me.
- 8. The supervisor phones in directives at least three times per hour during live supervision.
- 9. The supervisor develops the final intervention to be used in a session.
- 10. The supervisor develops the homework tasks given to the client(s) at the end of the session.
- 11. The supervisor enters the session when he/she feels that I am not being effective.
- 12. The supervisor insists on strict adherence to her/his directives.
- 13. The supervisor openly shares examples from her/his own experiences as a therapist.
- 14. The supervisor is willing to discuss how his/her family-of-origin issues affected his/her performance in therapy.
- 15. The supervisor acknowledges his/her own limitations.
- 16. The supervisor discloses how current issues in her/his life affects the supervision process.
- 17. The supervisor admits when she/he makes a mistake.
- 18. The supervisor is open about his/her own life.
- 19. The supervisor spends very little time joining with supervisees.

H. Cognitive and Theoretical Orientation Questionnaires

Theoretical Orientation Profile Scale-Revised for this study

Please rate the following school of theoretical orientation by how much you identify with the theory to conceptualize cases and provide intervention.

- 1. Psychoanalytic or psychodynamic
- 2. Humanistic or existential
- 3. Cognitive or behavioral
- 4. Family systems
- 5. Feminist
- 6. Multicultural

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator-Revised for this study

Do you know your Myers-Briggs Type Indicator letters?

How strongly do you identify with each of the profile?

| 1. | Introversion/Extraversion | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
| 2. Intuition(N)/Sensing | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
| 3. Feeling/Thinking | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
| 4. Perceptive/Judging | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

If you don't, please use the link below and take the test to get your profile letters. http://www.humanmetrics.com/cgi-win/jtypes2.asp

I. Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale

The questions which follow are for the purpose of collecting information about your historical background as well as more recent behaviors which may be related to your cultural identity. Choose the one answer which bet describes you.

- 1. What language can you speak?
 - 1. Asian only (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
 - 2. Mostly Asian, some English
 - 3. Asian and English about equally well (bilingual)
 - 4. Mostly English, some Asian
 - 5. Only English
- 2. What language do you prefer?
 - 1. Asian only (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
 - 2. Mostly Asian, some English
 - 3. Asian and English about equally well (bilingual)
 - 4. Mostly English, some Asian
 - 5. Only English
- 3. How do you identify yourself?
 - 1. Oriental
 - 2. Asian
 - 3. Asian-American
 - 4. Chinese-American, Japanese-American, Korean-American, etc.
 - 5. American
- 4. Which identification does (did) your mother use?
 - 1. Oriental
 - 2. Asian
 - 3. Asian-American
 - 4. Chinese-American, Japanese-American, Korean-American, etc.
 - 5. American
- 5. Which identification does (did) your father use?
 - 1. Oriental
 - 2. Asian
 - 3. Asian-American
 - 4. Chinese-American, Japanese-American, Korean-American, etc.
 - 5 American
- 6. What was the ethnic origin of the friends and peers you had, as a child up to age 6?
 - 1. Almost exclusively Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 2. Mostly Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 3. About equally Asian groups and Anglo groups
 - 4. Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
 - 5. Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
- 7. What was the ethnic origin of the friends and peers you had, as a child from 6 to 18?
 - 1. Almost exclusively Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 2. Mostly Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 3. About equally Asian groups and Anglo groups

- 4. Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
- 5. Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
- 8. Whom do you now associate with in the community?
 - 1. Almost exclusively Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 2. Mostly Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 3. About equally Asian groups and Anglo groups
 - 4. Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
 - 5. Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
- 9. If you could pick, whom would you prefer to associate with in the community?
 - 1. Almost exclusively Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 2. Mostly Asians, Asian-Americans, Orientals
 - 3. About equally Asian groups and Anglo groups
 - 4. Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
 - 5. Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups
- 10. What is your music preference?
 - 1. Only Asian music (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
 - 2. Mostly Asian
 - 3. Equally Asian and English
 - 4. Mostly English
 - 5. English only
- 11. What is your movie preference?
 - 1. Asian-language movies only
 - 2. Asian-language movies mostly
 - 3. Equally Asian/English English-language movies
 - 4. Mostly English-language movies only
 - 5. English-language movies only
- 12. What generation are you?
 - 1. 1st Generation= I was born in Asia or country other than U.S.
 - 2.2^{nd} Generation= I was born in U.S., either parent was born in Asia or country other than U.S.
 - 3. 3rd Generation= I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S., and all grandparents born in Asia or country other than U.S.
 - 4. 4th Generation= I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S., and at least one grandparent born in Asia or country other than U.S. and one grandparent born in U.S.
 - 5. 5th Generation= I was born in U.S., both parents were born in U.S., and all grandparents also born in U.S.
 - 6. Don't know what generation best fits since I lack some information.
- 13. Where were you raised?
 - 1. In Asia only
 - 2. Mostly in Asia, some in U.S.
 - 3. Equally in Asia and U.S.
 - 4. Mostly in U.S., some in Asia
 - 5. In U.S. only
- 14. What contact have you had with Asia?
 - 1. Raised one year or more in Asia
 - 2. Lived for less than one year in Asia

- 3. Occasional visits to Asia
- 4. Occasional communications (letters, phone calls, etc.) with people in Asia
- 5. No exposure or communications with people in Asia
- 15. What is your food preference at home?
 - 1. Exclusively Asian food
 - 2. Mostly Asian food, some American
 - 3. About equally Asian and American
 - 4. Mostly American food
 - 5. Exclusively American food
- 16. What is your food preference in restaurants?
 - 1. Exclusively Asian food
 - 2. Mostly Asian food, some American
 - 3. About equally Asian and American
 - 4. Mostly American food
 - 5. Exclusively American food

17. Do you

- 1. Read only an Asian language?
- 2. Read an Asian language better than English?
- 3. Read both Asian and English equally well?
- 4. Read English better than an Asian language?
- 5. Read only English?

18. Do you

- 1. Write only an Asian language?
- 2. Write an Asian language better than English?
- 3. Write both Asian and English equally well?
- 4. Write English better than an Asian language?
- 5. Write only English?
- 19. If you consider yourself a member of the Asian group (Oriental, Asian, Asian-American, Chinese-American, etc., whatever term you prefer), how much pride do you have in this group?
 - 1. Extremely proud
 - 2. Moderately proud
 - 3. Little pride
 - 4. No pride but do not feel negative toward group
 - 5. No pride but do feel negative toward group
- 20. How would you rate yourself?
 - 1. Very Asian
 - 2. Mostly Asian
 - 3. Bicultural
 - 4. Mostly Westernized
 - 5. Very Westernized
- 21. Do you participate in Asian occasions, holidays, traditions, etc.?
 - 1. Nearly all
 - 2. Most of them
 - 3. Some of them
 - 4. A few of them
 - 5. None at all

| • | now much you belie | eve in Asian values (e.g. | about marriage, families, | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| education, work): | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | |
| Do not believe | | | Strongly believe | | | | | | |
| 23. Rate yourself on how much you believe in American (Western) values: | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | |
| Do not believe | | | Strongly believe | | | | | | |
| 24. Rate yourself on how well you fit when with other Asians of the same ethnicity: | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | |
| Do not believe | | | Strongly believe | | | | | | |
| 25. Rate yourself on how well you fit when with other Americans who are non-Asian | | | | | | | | | |
| (Westerners): | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | |
| Do not believe | | | Strongly believe | | | | | | |
| Of Thomasons de | : CC | ومناه ما و حالمناه المواسطة | alwaa Whiah ONE af tha | | | | | | |

- 26. There are many different ways in which people think of themselves. Which ONE of the following most closely describes how you view yourself?
 - 1. I consider myself basically an Asian person (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.). Even though I live and work in America, I still view myself basically as an Asian person.
 - 2. I consider myself basically as an American. Even though I have an Asian background and characteristics, I still view myself basically as an American.
 - 3. I consider myself as an Asian-American, although deep down I always know I am an Asian.
 - 4. I consider myself as an Asian-American, although deep down, I view myself as an American first.
 - 5. I consider myself as an Asian-American. I have both Asian and American characteristics, and I view myself as a blend of both.