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Exploring the Supervisory Experiences of Non-Classroom, Jewish Youth Educators

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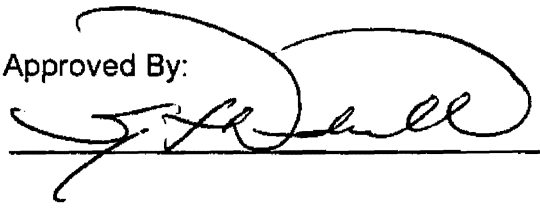

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Exploring the Supervisory Experiences of Non-Classroom, Jewish Youth Educators

By

Michael L. Jeser

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Jewish Communal Service in cooperation with the School of Social Work at the University of Southern California

Hebrew Union College – Jewish Institute of Religion

8/06/04

Referee, Dr. Mona Gil de Gibaja

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on the extensive body of supervision literature in clinical, educational, and management settings, this study examined, from a developmental perspective, what non-classroom, Jewish youth educators expect from, as well as how they describe interactional, contextual and dynamic elements of their current supervisory experiences. Variables explored in this research included, but were not limited to respondent background and experience, frequency and consistency of supervision, overall supervisor contact, support, availability, and the extent to which communication of expectations is clear, realistic, and ongoing.

Data were collected from 71 respondents who completed the Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey. Overall, respondents were a young, highly educated, independent, confident and diverse group of educators with relatively little professional experience. Supervision frequency, consistency, and overall contact were reported to be low among all respondents. Respondents also indicated dissatisfaction with various elements of supervision, although communication between supervisors and respondents was relatively strong. Differences in the findings emerged when comparing answers from those in their first jobs with those who have more experiences in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education. Responses to the survey's open-ended questions were consistent with the literature as respondents reflected upon important elements of supervision, as well as on supervisors' strengths, supportive and helpful behaviors.

Based on the literature, the researcher also advocated for the use of different research methodologies with which to explore the supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators in the future.

INTRODUCTION

Both formal and non-classroom, Jewish educational institutions throughout North America continue to recognize Jewish education as "the primary tool for building a strong and vital Jewish community" (JESNA.org; Jewish Educational Service of North America, 2003). The burgeoning field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education is considered a particularly effective tool with which to build Jewish identity among American Jewish teenagers. Also referred to as informal Jewish education, this particular segment of the Jewish educational enterprise consists of programs that are offered through a variety of synagogue and non-denominational youth groups, Jewish Community Centers, Jewish camps, as well as on Israel experience programs.

Despite research that illustrates the transformational influence non-classroom, Jewish youth education programs have had on the identity of Jewish teenagers, there is virtually no literature about the professional experiences of those that develop and implement the programs themselves. In consideration of the widely recognized personnel challenges facing the Jewish educational establishment, the lack of research regarding the supervision experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, and combined with extensive literature about the importance of supervision and its relationship to job performance, job-satisfaction, and turnover, this study explores what non-classroom, Jewish youth educators expect from as well as how they define, perceive, and reflect upon their supervisory experience.

Challenges of Jewish Continuity within a Changing Demographic Landscape

In the past fifteen-years, there has been a resurgence of interest and investment in the Jewish educational establishment from a variety of academic institutions, philanthropic

foundations and individual donors, as well as from educational coalitions and program initiatives. The recent push for developing and strengthening Jewish educational systems is described here in the context of changing demographic as well as professional challenges facing the North American Jewish community.

A Communal Reaction to The 1990 National Jewish Population Survey (NJPS)

Findings from the 1990 National Jewish Population Survey (Council of Jewish Federations, 1990) "sent a shock wave through the leadership of the American Jewish community" (Ruskay, 1996, p. 22) when it revealed a 52% intermarriage rate among American Jews, as compared to 3% from 1900-1940, 7% from 1940-1960, and 32% from 1965-1985.

Ruskay (1996) described how communal and educational institutions "mobilized to strengthen formal and informal education" programs (p.24) in response to these findings. Leaders expressed concern about high intermarriage rates, advocating for increased efforts not only to develop and enhance Jewish educational programming, but also on behalf of a major effort "to recruit, prepare, and retain the best and the brightest as rabbis, teachers, educators, and Jewish communal professionals" (p. 24). Goodman & Schaap (2002) explained that the establishment's response reflected the community's belief that Jewish education was "the critical element in preserving and strengthening the Jewish community" (p. 1).

In the earlier part of the 1990s, many Jewish communal and education leaders advocated for support of Jewish educational institutions, citing research and articles that pointed to a positive relationship between Jewish education and the development of a strong Jewish identity (Ruskay, 1996). Specifically, this body of literature identified

formal and non-classroom, Jewish education programs such as "day schools, Jewish summer camps, youth groups and Israel experience trips as having abiding...transformational impact on the development of a positive Jewish identity" (Ruskay, 1996, p. 22).

Institutional Responses to the 1990 NJPS

Concerns about assimilation were accompanied by increases in programmatic innovation and funding. These efforts were evident in the growth and emergence of organizations that sought to, (a) enhance the quality of Jewish educational programming, (b) provide resources necessary for supporting new educational initiatives and individual organizations, and (c) strengthen the overall Jewish educational enterprise by investing energy in the development of Jewish educators. One organization, which has been and continues to be dedicated to advancing the field of formal and informal Jewish education, is the Jewish Educational Service of North America (JESNA).

Jewish Educational Service of North America

Created in 1981 by the North American Jewish Federation system, JESNA has demonstrated a commitment to fostering "vibrant Jewish life" by, (a) promoting quality and affordable day school education, (b) revitalizing congregational and communal education systems, (c) empowering Jewish youth, (d) recruiting and retaining Jewish educators, and (e) utililizing technological media, research and evaluation to foster the development of programs, agencies and individual educators (JESNA.org, 2004). JESNA has been instrumental in calling for a more systematic effort to ensure that Jewish educators have access to adequate resources, opportunities for growth, and that they are properly trained, inspired and challenged (JESNA Strategic Plan, 2003).

JESNA's Educator Recruitment & Retention Initiative (JERRI)

JESNA's supportive efforts on behalf of Jewish educators have intensified on the heels of the report from its task force on Professional Recruitment, Development, Retention, and Placement (PRDRP; Gold, 2003). Referring to a "great personnel crisis in the field of Jewish education", the report cites shortages of qualified personnel and high turnover rates throughout the North American Jewish educational establishments (Gold, 2003, p. 2). The authors lament the community's failure to observe a Jewish tradition that has "long demanded that teachers receive the kind of respect given to the parents of the children they teach" (Gold, 2003, p. 7). To underscore this point, the report's authors challenged the professional and philanthropic community to consider "if, in fact, the role of teachers and educators is so critical in the raising of a child, their importance in the Jewish community should be reflected in the respect they receive from parents and communal leaders" (Gold, 2003, p. 8).

Rather than focusing solely on issues of salary and compensation, the report demanded that a serious investment is "required to create a support system consisting of highly trained mentors and supervisors who will share in the responsibility for nurturing our future educational leaders" (Gold, 2003, p. 9). In addition, the report emphasized the need for a whole-system approach, focused on all issues surrounding Jewish educator recruitment, training, supervision, and retention, which ensures that "successful and effective models of supervision are in place to support and develop the educators; those who stand on the front line of Jewish education, outreach, and engagement" (Gold, 2003, p. 9).

JESNA's supportive efforts have intensified on the heels of the PRDRP report, resulting in the formation of the Jewish Educator Recruitment/Retention Initiative (JERRI). JERRI's goals include, the (a) "strengthening the recruitment process, (b) changing the culture and structure of the educational system, and (c) engaging in ongoing research about the field of Jewish education and the challenges of recruiting and retaining educators" (JESNA.org, 2004). In February 2004, JESNA and The Covenant Foundation convened the first Jewish educator recruitment conference, entitled the Jewish Education Leaders Summit (AGENDA, Spring 2004).

The purpose of the summit was for leading educators, philanthropists and other communal leaders to "generate broad-based change by articulating an ambitious vision for improving Jewish educator recruitment and retention" (JESNA.org, AGENDA insert, Spring 2004). While recommendations, which were specific to informal Jewish educators, called for stronger mentoring, supervision, and professional development opportunities for educators, there was no specific mention of how supervision ought to be developed in the future. However, recommendations for increased research in the field of Jewish education.

Therefore, with the identified need for research, and with an insufficient understanding of how non-classroom, Jewish youth educators define, perceive and reflect on their supervisory experiences, this study attempts to explore and describe how supervision is practiced in the *lived world* of these educators (Schutt, 2001). The reason for focusing on non-classroom, Jewish youth educators is partly due to the researcher's own professional experience as a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator and also in light of research which identifies "Jewish summer camps, youth groups and Israel experience

trips as having abiding...transformational impact on the development of a positive Jewish identity" (Ruskay, 1996, p. 22).

By contributing data about the supervision experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, the researcher hopes that synagogue, non-denominational and Zionist youth movements, Jewish Community Centers, camping institutions, and other informal Jewish educational institutions will build a stronger foundation on which to support their educators in the future. The researcher also hopes that this study will assist these institutions as they work to not only inspire future generations of Jewish educators, but more importantly, Jewish youth as well.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of supervision literature from within the professional arenas of clinical services, education, management and student affairs. The researcher begins with a review of relevant Jewish communal service and Jewish education literature, focusing on selected personnel studies and articles related to the status, development and supervision of Jewish communal professionals and Jewish educators.

The researcher then presents the general impact of supervision followed by a description of how supervision theories and models, from a variety of professional disciplines, have and continue to be developed. The core elements and dynamics of quality supervision and the challenges and opportunities presented by the supervisory relationship are also addressed, paying particular attention to factors that influence, as well as those that are influenced by, the supervisory process.

Foundations of Jewish Communal and Jewish Educational Literature

Regarding the overall state of research in the field of Jewish communal service, the last two decades have seen more than 60 articles and studies published in the Journal of Jewish Communal Service "under the headings of training, mentoring, supervision, recruitment, and professional education" (Edell, 2002, p. 61). Despite this fact, Fishman (1995) referred to a lack of definitive data about Jewish communal professionals' goals, expectations, and aspirations, recommending a more thoughtful effort to explore whom these professionals are and how they ought to be sustained, supported, and nourished.

Organizations and initiatives which have emerged and expanded since the release of the 1990 NJPS include the, Coalition for the Advancement of Jewish Education (CAJE), Partnership for Excellence in Jewish Education (PEJE), and the Jewish Life Network.

Founded in 1968, CAJE is the "largest membership organization of Jewish educators" (CAJE.org, 2004) in North America today. While in existence for more than 35 years, CAJE is stronger today than throughout its history, playing an instrumental role in building the professional and institutional infrastructure of congregational education.

Founded in 1997, PEJE has helped to find and create over 60 day schools, contributed and invested $16 million dollars, and has played a critical role in doubling non-orthodox day school enrollment in 2002-2004 alone (PEJE Strategic Plan Report for 2003-2006). Michael Steinhardt, chairperson of the Steinhardt Foundation and founder of the Jewish Life Network, is considered one of the most outspoken advocates for a strong Jewish educational establishment. Steinhardt has been instrumental in providing funding and advocacy for increased training and compensation Jewish educators (Wiener, 2003).

General Research about Jewish Communal & Educational Personnel

The extent to which supervision is addressed in Jewish communal and educational literature is through studies that address personnel issues such as income (Koller-Fox, Goodman, Rapchik-Levin & Schaap, 2002), hiring practices (Bubis, Phillips, Reitman & Rotto, 1984), retention (Koller-Fox, Goodman, Rapchik-Levin & Schaap, 2002; Goodman & Schaap, 2002; Bubis, 1984), motivation (Burg-Schnirman, Dubin, Flaum, Hollander, Li-Dar, Macht, Michel, & Ney, 1988) as well as professional expectations and job satisfaction (Altmann, Bardack & Martin, 1999; Cohen, Fishman, Sarna, & Lieberman, 1995; Bubis et al., 1984).

Among the findings from this research are elements such as employees' struggles with inadequate salaries (Goodman & Schapp, 2002), as well as difficult lay-professional relationships and job burnout (Altmann et al., 1999). In other research, authors cite the

need to improve professional compensation, recruitment and hiring practices as well as reward and recognition systems in order to ensure that quality professionals remain committed to the field of Jewish communal service (Edell, 2002; Koller-Fox et al., 2002; Solomon, 1995; Bubis, 1990; Bubis, 1984; Bubis et al., 1984)

Of Jewish communal research which has explored a variety of issues facing Rabbis, Cantors, Jewish educators, other communal professionals, five studies and articles are described here, including the (1) Personnel Survey of Leading Employers of Jewish Communal Workers (CJCS; Conference of Jewish Communal Service, 1983), the (2) Mandell Report (CJF; Conference of Jewish Federations, 1987), the (3) Wexner Heritage Foundation's Leadership Study (Cohen et al., 1995) the (4) 2002 Jewish Community Centers Association Personnel Study (Schor & Cohen, 2002), the (5) Hanukat CAJE Educator Recruitment Study (Koller-Fox et al., 2002) and (6) Zeldin's (1998) article about clinical supervision of Jewish classroom instructors.

The Conference of Jewish Communal Service Personnel Survey (CJCS, 1983)

In this study, leaders of the North American Jewish community addressed high turnover rates among Jewish communal personnel, reporting that "as many as 50% of people who begin in Jewish communal service leave the field within two years" (Bubis, 1984, p. 337). In a review of the study's findings, Bubis (1984) lamented the Jewish communal establishment's failure to offer competitive salaries, called for a pay system based on "fairness and reality", and challenged the field to "find and elevate those who will serve it as a career, with dignity, and honor" (p. 338).

The Mandell Report (CJF; 1987)

In this seminal study, conducted by the Council of Jewish Federations, Jewish communal leaders and academics confronted a variety of personnel trends that were facing the North American Jewish Federation system, reporting findings which sought to raise "awareness about recruitment, training, and retention in the federation system and throughout other fields in Jewish communal service" (Edell, 2002, p. 61). The report's recommendations were specific to the "areas of recruitment and continuing professional education", emphasizing the need to create a "comprehensive personnel system and mechanism for addressing long-range concerns about recruitment, education, supervision, placement, career tracing and counseling" (Edell, 2002, p. 62). The extent to which supervision was mentioned in Edell's (2002) summary was evident in his concern for Jewish communal personnel who feel "undervalued, under supported, and under recognized", resulting from inadequate supervision, poor training, low salaries, and limited professional growth opportunities (p. 64).

The Wexner Foundation Leadership Study

Cohen and others (1995) conducted a three-part study, exploring the professional expectations, experiences, tenure rates, and sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among communal workers who were both employed in the Jewish communal field as well as those no longer working in the field. In the first section of the report, Cohen (1995) presented demographic and descriptive data of Wexner applicants, spanning 1988-1992, describing them as professionals with extensive Jewish educational experiences throughout their lives.

The second section, authored by Sarna (1995), focused on the experiences reported by Wexner Graduate Fellowship applicants that explained why applicants chose careers in Jewish communal, Jewish educational or rabbinical work. Respondents indicated a variety of factors, such as family influence, role models, mentors, and among others, their college experiences as being particularly influential.

The third section of the report, authored by Fishman (1995), explored the early professional experiences, feelings and attitudes about Jewish communal work, as well as the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of graduates from Jewish communal and rabbinical graduate programs. Sources of dissatisfaction included feelings of frustration from working in jobs that demanded skills and competencies for which they felt graduate training had failed to prepare them. Sources of satisfaction included the feeling that respondents are making a difference in people's lives, as well as from a sense of warmth and meaningful interpersonal relationships that respondents have developed in the work place.

Sources of satisfaction, those that referred to supervision, included supervisor support for professional development, whereby almost 75% of all respondents indicated that supervisors were supportive to some degree. More than 50% of respondents also claimed to have the ability to make appropriate decisions and control their work environments. Unrealistic expectations about personal time, a lack of collaborative and cooperative systems, low job status, poor supervision, and supervisor inflexibility were among the sources of dissatisfaction reported most frequently in the study. The most frequently referred to sources of dissatisfaction were poor compensation, inadequate reward and

recognition systems, as well as unpleasant relationships with mentors and "arrogant, careless or competitive supervisors" (Fishman, 1995, p. 109).

Jewish Community Center Association Personnel Study

The Jewish Community Center Association (JCCA) and the Florence G. Heller JCC Association Research Center, conducted the 2001 Personnel Study (Schor & Cohen, 2002), distributing and collecting surveys from almost 2000 Jewish Community Center (JCC) professionals. The study's authors presented survey findings that addressed variables such as the Jewish identity of employees, sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, professional commitment, academic background, salary and compensation, gender differences, as well as staff training and development.

Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction were consistent with findings from the previous JCC Association personnel study (Scotch, 1987) conducted fifteen-years earlier. According to the study's authors, respondents identified collegial relationships, contact with JCC members, day-to-day work, and the opportunity to work for the Jewish community as major sources of satisfaction. Areas of dissatisfaction included concerns regarding low salaries, training, poor supervision, as well as benefits and recognition.

The study's authors recommended increasing salary and benefits, designing more reward and recognition systems, improving on-the-job training mechanisms, and building creative and challenging work or job design initiatives, as well as increased opportunities for advancement as potential strategies to enhance JCC personnel's professional experience. The authors also made specific mention of the importance of enhancing JCCs' supervision systems, challenging the JCC system to "pay closer attention to the philosophy and techniques related to supervision" (p. 10) by asking questions such as

"what is the philosophy behind good supervision?" and "what are the tools and keys to being a good supervisor?".

Hanukat CAJE Educator Retention Study

Koller-Fox and others (2002) distributed surveys to just under 2000 Jewish educators who attended the 2001 annual conference of the Coalition for the Advancement of Jewish Education. The surveys, which solicited demographic, academic, professional tenure, and satisfaction data, demonstrated that CAJE educators were an aging, highly educated, and poorly paid group of professionals, citing the need to create more meaningful and challenging work for Jewish educators. In addition to the survey results, the issue of educators' salary was addressed during the conference through a series of "consciousness raising", and "provocative" discussions about educators' salaries and benefits.

As salary and compensation emerged as the most disconcerting issue of this study, the authors reflected, "Those who work for the Jewish community are being compensated and benefited inadequately" (Koller-Fox et al., 2002). The authors also challenged synagogues and other institutions to "reassess and reexamine their personnel practices", which should be consistent with the community's standards for "ethical behavior". When asked why they are willing to tolerate low salaries, some respondents pointed to their passion for teaching while more distressed participants questioned salary policies one of whom is quoted in the study's report, questioning why the wealthiest Jewish community in history "should skimp on programs, particularly at a time when education is the stated priority".

Clinical Supervision of Jewish Classroom Instructors

Drawing on and advancing models of educational supervision of classroom teachers and instructors, Zeldin (1998) reflects on a century of educational approaches to supervision, discussing the emergence, principles, and core elements of clinical supervision (CS) in educational settings. Zeldin (1998) describes CS as an educational alliance, where both teacher and supervisor share different, yet complimentary responsibilities and as a cooperative alliance in which both members of the supervisory dyad are "bound as associates" (p. 146) through a process in which active participation and interaction are essential. According to Zeldin, clinical supervisors should not focus on telling teachers how to teach; rather, school administrators should facilitate and support teachers, working together with teachers toward achieving excellence in the classroom.

Clinical supervision is guided by the concepts of collegiality, collaboration, skilled service, and ethical conduct (Zeldin, 1998). Collegiality refers to the relationship between supervisors and teachers, whereas collaboration refers to the way in and extent to which supervisors and teachers work together to achieve organizational as well as classroom goals. Collaboration requires teachers and supervisors to establish a shared language that maximizes the overall productivity of the teacher, as well as the institution.

Zeldin (1998) discusses the concept of skilled service, referring to the different skills and expertise teachers and supervisors bring to the supervisory relationship. Examples of such skills include the ability to conduct an educational analysis and educational inquiry. Zeldin also refers to ethical conduct in terms of the supervisor's ability to establish and maintain a trusting and confidential relationship with the teacher.

Foundations of Research in Informal Jewish Education

The extent to which literature in the field of informal Jewish education (IJED) contributes to and draws from research and theory is primarily through the work of selected academics, educators and leaders. Those who have contributed to the rise of IJED include Bernard Reisman (1979; 1991), Joe Riemer (IJE.org; Institute for Informal Jewish Education, 2003), and Professor Barry Chazan, author of "What is Informal Jewish Education" (2003).

Principles of Informal Jewish Education

Chazan (2003) articulated a series of experiential learning principles that should guide professionals who work in Jewish youth movements and organizations, Jewish camps and retreats, Jewish Community Centers, as well as family education, Israel experience and other Jewish travel programs. Through these principles, Chazan (2003) described IJED as an educational experience that is person-centered, focusing on the individual growth and the pursuit of Jewish identification and meaning. The other seven principles of IJED described by Chazan (2003) depict IJED as an interactive, engaging, educational process in which 'holistic' educators facilitate group experiences, acknowledge the centrality and impact of individual experiences, and create a unique and singular Jewish culture surrounding these experiences.

Chazan (2003) called for a synergy of principles, describing IJED as both a practice and philosophy of Jewish education; one which values such things as individual choice, interactivity, flexibility in terms of subject content, teacher accessibility, and group process. When relating the concepts of group dynamics, group process, and person-centered foci, Chazan (2003) compared the work of IJED with that of Jewish communal

service. Both of these fields, according to Chazan, share common theoretical orientations, as well as with those inherent to social work, social and individual psychology, and other clinical processes. Chazan (2003) differentiated IJED from these clinical processes, however, arguing that while counseling and social work aim to heal and fix clients, IJED "is overtly about educating, building, and helping to give shape to a Jewish way. It is not about healing or repairing, but about creating and unfolding" (p. 13).

Chazan (2003) also described the core differences between informal or experiential education, with informal education in Jewish settings. Differences emerge with respect to IJED's "curriculum of experiences and values, and its holistic educator". The curricular difference exists as IJED seeks to affect and influence lifestyles and identities of Jews while general informal education focuses primarily on teaching specific skills. The roles of holistic educators in IJED differ from those in general, informal education settings in their responsibility to shape Jewish experiences, influence Jewish identity, and through their capacity as "role models of Jewish lifestyle" (p. 11).

Curricular differences also juxtapose IJED from formal, Jewish educational enterprises. In addition, Chazan (2003) argues that there are sociological factors that differentiate these educational models. This is evident as school learning takes place in a hierarchical structure, which places educators and school officials at the center of the educational process. On the other hand, IJED focuses on experiences, and emphasizes the role of learners, the identity shaping role of the educator, and on the interactivity and group process orientation of IJED.

Training and Development of Informal Jewish Educators

Regarding the informal Jewish educator, Goldstein (1998-1999) presented a variety of reasons with which to justify the use of informal educational approaches in the development of informal Jewish educators. Traditional reasons include social elements that underscore the importance of creating and maintaining social environments in which informal Jewish educators can feel comfortable and supported. Goldstein (1998-1999) also suggested the reason that "good informal Jewish educators will learn best from someone whom they respect as a result of his/her achievements in the field of IJED", a scenario which is less likely when the superior educator is an "older, less charismatic or youthful individual" (p. 18).

According to Goldstein (1998-1999), educational reasons for employing principles of IJED when developing informal Jewish educators include the notion that due to the informal nature of IJED itself, an informal style will assist in modeling the skills and appropriate behaviors for the educator. Further, Goldstein (1998-1999) suggested that informal environments encourage educators to be more open to their own learning experience. In order for the educator to successfully impact and influence the learning of students and participants, superiors should be aware of the extent to which the educator is aware of learning moments, the interest and preferred approach to IJED of the educator, the sources of inspiration, motivation and desire of the educator, as well as the strengths and abilities of the educator.

Goldstein (1998-1999) also proposes ways in which the development of educators can be enhanced. These methods include increasing educators' perception and awareness of the mission, process and task of his or her work, the establishment of more rigid

curriculum, expanding the knowledge base of educators, fostering "navigational" skills which reflect an educators resourcefulness, increasing excitement of the training process, and incorporating an apprenticeship approach with which supervisors encourage educators to be present, observing the supervisor in action and actively participating as a learner.

JESNA's Jewish Educator Recruitment & Retention Initiative

While JESNA's latest initiative focuses on formal and non-classroom, Jewish educators, leaders from within each industry have contributed their thoughts and reflections about how to successfully recruit, train, develop and retain Jewish educators. Riemer and Finkel (2004) articulated that mentoring, intellectual excitement and group networking combine to form "the right kind of professional development" (p. 3).

Supervision Research in Secular Education and Clinical Settings

The relative scarcity of supervision literature in Jewish communal and educational scholarship does not correspond to the large body of supervision literature, from a variety of professional disciplines, which demonstrates the importance of supervision on organizational life. What follows is a review of supervision literature that addresses the impact of supervision in clinical, managerial, and educational settings as well as a review of supervision literature that addresses supervisory variables that characterize as well as affect elements of quality supervision practice from different professional settings.

Impact of Supervision

As early as the 1940s, and into the 1970s, researchers demonstrated a positive relationship between employee turnover, job satisfaction, satisfaction with compensation, satisfaction with supervision, role ambiguity, institutional support, infrequent

opportunities for promotion, and inadequate training of hospital staff, nurses and factory laborers (Gordon, 1974; Eichentraub, 1948; Poivedin, 1956; Weitz, 1952).

More contemporary research continues to demonstrate that the above factors, especially those of supervision satisfaction, degree of institutional support, opportunities for professional development, and level of compensation correspond positively with job retention and satisfaction of engineers (Cramer, 1995), technicians (Sherman, 1989), corrections officers (Shuaibi, 1995), nurses (Chapman, 1999; Gresham & Brown, 1997), firefighters (Riggio and Cole, 1992), as well as management personnel (Cacioppe, 2000). These findings are consistent with counseling, social work and therapy literature that demonstrates a strong relationship between the supervision experience, supervision satisfaction, job satisfaction, and employee turnover (Thogeba & Miller, 2001; Blair, 2000; Bowen, 1999; Shaw, 1999; Schroffel, 1999; Dickenson & Perry, 1998; General Accounting Office, 1995; Reagh, 1994; Fleischer, 1985).

Supervision impact and the positive relationship between high quality supervision with the quality of educational services in student affairs (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Arminio & Creamer, 2001) and on teacher retention (Rettig, 2000; National Center for Education Statistics, 1997; Gross & Billingsley, 1994; Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982) have also been well documented.

Ways in which turnover negatively impacts organizational life include decreased service quality, declining sales, and poor performance (Armstrong, 2000). Declines in the quality of emotional, mental and physical care delivery systems also demonstrate the negative impact of turnover in public, non-profit, and other health and human service agencies (Chapman, 1999). Whether in clinical, educational, or other professional

settings, the quality of supervision is consistently referred to one the most important elements of any successful retention and recruitment strategy. Although supervision impact is similar throughout the literature, clinical and academic researchers have contributed the bulk of research upon which the foundation of supervision scholarship lies.

Foundations of Supervision Research

A large body of supervision literature exists within the fields of social work, counseling and psychotherapy (Gabbay, Kiemle, & Maguire, 1999; Perris, 1997) as well as in marriage and family therapy (Green, Shilts, & Bacigalupe, 2001; Anderson, Schlossberg, Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000) literature. Educational (Scott, 1998; Hunter, 1980; Cogan, 1973) and student affairs researchers (Carpenter et al., 2001; Cooper, Saunders, Howell, & Bates, 2001; Winston & Creamer, 1997; Fey & Carpenter, 1996) have also contributed substantially to the literature on supervision.

Schwartz (1997) referred to early forms of supervision research, citing that one of the first studies appeared in the late 1950s, followed by the publication of an additional 25 articles by 1969. Since that time, supervision has been explored through clinical, educational, and management scholarship, each of which addresses supervision in terms of its function, purpose, impact, and dynamics.

Contemporary management and organizational development literature describes supervision as a personnel system (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Sims & Sims, 1991), citing it as one of the most important factors in creating positive work cultures (Zeitz, Johannesson, Ritchie, 1997; Weatherly & Beach, 1994; Schneider, 1990), influencing service quality and delivery (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Congram & Friedman, 1991),

improving quality control (Burke, 2001; Miller, 2000), as well as increasing job satisfaction (Ban & Faerman, 1990), organizational commitment (Glisson & Durrick, 1988), and job retention (Karl & Sutton, 1998).

Supervisor-Supervisee Interaction & Synergy

A recent trend in supervision research has been the exploration of interactive components and dynamics of the supervisory process (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002; Holloway & Carroll, 1996; Holloway, 1995; Watkins, 1995; Strozier, Kivlighan, & Thoresen, 1993; Friedlander, Siegel, & Brenock, 1989). Research in this area focuses primarily on the "the patterns of discourse in supervision" (Holloway, 1992, p. 197) such as in the *interactional* supervision model proposed by Shulman (1991; 1993). This model emphasized the need to focus and reflect on how interactive elements of supervision can influence an employee's experiences, job satisfaction, service quality, and ultimately, job retention.

Specific interactional dynamics that influence the supervisory experience of marriage and family therapists include frequency and duration of supervisory contact, communicating expectations, evaluation and feedback, teaching practical skills, encouragement, as well as support for the supervisee's professional growth (Anderson et al., 2000; Anderson, Rigazio-DiGilio, & Kunkler, 1995; Allen, Szollos, & Williams, 1986). Interactive elements of quality psychotherapy supervision include a supervisor's ability to articulate clear expectations, set specific and realistic goals, and engage in regular and ongoing feedback and evaluation activities (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002). In both clinical settings, supervisees relate frequent contact, clarity of expectations, and

feedback that is ongoing, straightforward, and constructive as among the most important interactive supervisory activities (Anderson, et al., 2000; Strozier et al., 1993).

Similar to Shulman's (1993) model of interactional supervision, student affairs researchers have argued that synergistic, collaborative, supervisory dynamics are necessary for quality supervision to take place (Schuh & Carlisle, 1991; Winston & Creamer's, 1997). In order to identify how these dynamics manifest themselves in ongoing supervision, the synergistic supervision model (Saunders, Cooper, Winston, and Chernow, 2000) was developed. This model measured synergistic activities such as the discussion of "exemplary and inadequate performance", career goals, frequent and consistent performance evaluations, and ongoing reflection of staff personality characteristics and their attitudes towards work (p. 185).

Other student affairs researchers have since defined synergistic supervision as a "mutual process that is concerned with a dual focus on employee and institutional needs, joint effort by the supervisor and supervisee, commitment to communication, capitalizing on competence, emphasis on growth and development, proactivity, goal orientation, persistent systematic effort, and holism" (Carpenter, Torres & Winston, 2001, p. 3). Synergy is characterized by a supervisory relationship that is open, dynamic and authentic, based on multi-directional and cooperative communication, and focused on growth and competence (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Arminio & Creamer, 2001).

Winston and Creamer (1997) also called for synergy in supervision practice, demonstrating positive relationships between open and clear communication as well as consistent and ongoing interaction between both supervision satisfaction and job satisfaction. Building on the notion the concept of synergistic and interactive supervision

in student affairs supervision, Arminio and Creamer (2001) recommended that supervisor training programs must focus on developing, implementing and sustaining collaborative, interactive, and synergistic supervisory relationships.

History of Developmental Models and Theories of Supervision

Emerging as early as in 1964 (Hogan), and expanding throughout the 1970s and 1980s, developmental theories of human behavior have increasingly informed advances in clinical (Littrell, Lee-Borden, & Lorenz, 1979; Stoltenberg, 1981; Longabill, Hardy, and Delworth, 1982) and educational (Carpenter, Torres, & Winston, 2001; Marsh, 2001) supervision. While these models exist in fields such as student affairs (Marsh, 2001; Ricci, Porterfield & Piper, 1987) and medicine (Puliyel, Puliyel, & Puliyel, 1999), they are most apparent in scholarship from clinical fields such as counseling (Stoltenberg, 1998; Melchert, Hayes, Wiljanen & Kolocek, 1996; Chagnon & Russell, 1995; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987), psychotherapy (Watkins, 1995), as well as marriage and family therapy (Storm, Todd, Sprenkle, & Morgan, 2001).

Developmental models of supervision are based on the premise that employees travel along a developmental path and should be supervised in consideration of their developmental and professional needs (Chagnon & Russell, 1995). Central to these models is the supervisor's ability to identify an employee's developmental stage (Storm, Todd, Sprenkle, & Morgan, 2001), and to "tailor their supervision to the specific developmental level of supervisees" (Rigazio-DiGilio, 1997, p. 234). As employees have different supervisory needs in different stages of their career (Flemons, Green & Rambo, 1996; Chagnon & Russell, 1995), supervisors are encouraged to identify in which developmental stage their subordinates lie and determine an appropriate strategy with

which to perform the supervisory function. Arminio & Creamer (2001) also supported the use a developmental model, stating that supervisory approaches in student affairs settings should be delivered in "developmentally timely portions as ways to enhance learning" (p. 41).

Worthington (1984) referred to the rise of developmental supervision theories in clinical settings, citing that more than 10 such models existed by the mid-1980s, with an additional 15 models emerging by 1988. Holloway (1987) alluded to the expansion of developmental models of clinical supervision models as representative of the "zeitgeist of supervision thinking and research" (p. 211). Due to the prevalence of and diverse settings in which developmental models of supervision are discussed, the guiding theoretical framework applied in this research is drawn from Integrated Development Model (IDM; Stoltenberg, 1998). A description of IDM and the key components that illustrate its utility is presented below.

Integrated Development Model (IDM)

IDM (Stoltenberg, 1998) illustrates the most recent developmental framework in supervision scholarship. Adapted from earlier developmental models (Rigazio-DiGilio, 1997; Watkins, 1995; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987; Stoltenberg, 1981), Stoltenberg (1998) claimed that counselors move through distinct developmental stages and master new skills along their journey from beginner to master counselors. As employees develop, Stoltenberg (1998) encourages supervisors to view their development on a continuum through which counselors display "varying degrees of motivation, autonomy, and awareness" (p. 174).

A core component of IDM is based on a supervisor's ability to determine in which of three developmental levels an employee is. Once this stage is identified, supervisors are encouraged to foster and create "an optimal supervision environment" (p. 175) that match the counselor's developmental level, maximizing the growth and satisfaction of the counselor. Counselors in *level one* are characterized as highly motivated, uncertain of their abilities and frequently anxious about their ability to perform. At this stage, counselors are highly dependent on the supervisor for guidance, instruction, and support, often seeking supportive environments that offer direction and structure along with limited amounts of challenges and risks (Stoltenberg, 1998).

Level-two counselors experience varied levels of confidence and comfort, which often result in a tension between their desires for autonomy and feelings of dependence (Stoltenberg, 1998). Stoltenberg recommended for supervisors to decrease direct instruction and to offer challenges that grant employees some degree of independence and autonomy without completely removing supervisory structure. *Level-three* counselors seek environments that are more challenging and self-reflective, have more stable motivation and greater self-efficacy, all of which are conditions that promote and encourage greater self-efficacy, autonomy and self-confidence.

Critics of developmental models of supervision question, (a) whether developmental stages actually reflect an employee's growth (Storm et al., 2001), (b) the ability of supervisors to accurately determine an employee's developmental level (Chagnon and Russell, 1995), as well as (c) the extent to which supervisors, once a strategy has been selected, can intentionally influence the total supervisory environment (Bernard, 1997). Others claim that without successfully identifying an employee's developmental level, a

supervisor will not be able to employ strategies that will facilitate the professional growth, competence, and confidence of that employee (Stoltenberg, 1998).

Advocates claim that adherence to and consideration of developmental models ought to result in statistically greater employee independence, job satisfaction, performance, high levels of trust, and increased organizational commitment (Marsh, 2001; Neswald-McCalip, 2001; Daniels & Larson, 2001; Ratliff, Wampler & Morris, 2000; Stoltenberg, 1998).

Elements of Effective Supervision

One of the first comprehensive social work supervision studies (Kadushin, 1973) investigated the perceived sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for social work clinicians. Kadushin discovered that "consequential and relational implications of the supervision experience" (p. 100) directly affected social workers' job satisfaction, reporting that open communication as well as professional development opportunities were among the strongest sources of job satisfaction. Kadushin also reported that the quality of supervision was dependent upon (a) supervisor skill, (b) dynamic and interactive communication, as well as on (c) a supervisor's investment in the supervisee's professional development. These elements of quality supervision, according to Kadushin, could be demonstrated through behaviors such as consistent and frequent interaction, organizational advocacy, and willingness to discussing an employee's career goals.

Shulman (1981) contributed to the field of clinical supervision research, reporting that counseling and social work supervisees wanted supervisors to teach direct practice skills, discuss and share relevant information, and provide ongoing performance feedback and

evaluation. In a subsequent research study of clinical psychology interns, Gondolfo and Brown (1987) described a quality supervisor as one who plays a collaborative and educational role, facilitating problem solving and dynamic communication with the clinical intern. This study was among the first in which notions of collaboration, partnership, and a dynamic, "multi-directional supervision process between the supervisor and supervisee" first emerged in clinical supervision literature (Schulman, 1993).

In the arena of psychotherapy, clinical supervision is considered a "key element in that process by which psychotherapy is taught and learned" (Watkins, 1995, p. 568). Gabbay, Kiemle & Maguire (1999) referred to psychotherapy supervision as an "essential part of good clinical practice", which should ensure that "all psychologists receive the support and guidance they need to work effectively" (p. 404). Other psychotherapy researchers describe effective psychotherapy supervisors as those who articulate clear expectations, set specific and realistic goals, engage in regular and ongoing feedback (Nelson, 1978; Allen, Szollos, & Williams, 1986; Hutt & Associates, 1986), as well as those who are able to integrate a mix of empathy, support, and respect for their employees (Carifio & Hess, 1987; Russel & Petrie, 1994; Gabbay et al., 1999). These elements of effective counseling and psychotherapy supervision are also consistent with those found in psychiatric literature (Gale, 1976; Perez & Associates, 1984; Pate & Wolff, 1990).

Attributes of effective marriage and family therapy supervision include employees' perceptions of supervisors' interpersonal attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness (Anderson, Schlossberg & Rigazio-Digilio, 2000). Interpersonal attractiveness refers to supervisors who are perceived as likeable and sociable. Expertness refers to supervisors

who are perceived as experienced, capable, skillful and prepared. Trustworthiness relates to a supervisor's perceived degree of honesty, sincerity and reliability.

In contrast, characteristics of ineffective psychotherapy and family therapy supervision include inflexibility, closed-mindedness, lack of support and concern, unclear and vague communication, or lack of supervisor interest (Anderson, Schlossberg & Rigazio-Digilio, 2000; Allen et al., 1986). The most frequent sources of dissatisfaction among clinical employees include supervision infrequency, inconsistency, as well as a lack of supervisor availability (Gabbay, et al., 1999). The negative impact of inconsistent and unavailable supervision is demonstrated by supervisees who feel unsupported, neglected, unappreciated, and undervalued (Gabbay, et al., 1999). The inability to demonstrate respect, support, and encouragement is considered detrimental to family and marriage therapy supervision as well (Anderson, et al., 2000).

Student Affairs researchers confirm that the dimensions of open and clear communication, opportunities for and support of professional development, continuous improvement of instruction, collaboration, performance feedback, provision of relevant and necessary resources, reflection of personal and professional skills and behaviors, are crucial to providing quality supervision (Pajak, 1990). The synergistic supervision model, developed by Saunders, Cooper, Winston, and Chernow (2000), characterizes behaviors that constitute a synergistic relationship between supervisors and employees.

Examples of synergistic behaviors include discussion of "exemplary and inadequate performance" (Saunders et al., 2000, p. 185), career goals, frequent and consistent performance evaluations, and ongoing reflection of staff personality characteristics and their attitudes towards work. These and other student affairs researchers have defined

synergistic supervision in terms of a supervisory relationship which is open, dynamic and authentic, based on multi-directional and cooperative communication, and focused on mutual growth and competence (Winston & Creamer, 1997; Arminio & Creamer, 2001). As Carpenter, Torres & Winston (2000) aptly explained:

> *Synergistic supervision is concerned with a dual focus on employee and institutional needs, joint effort by the supervisor and supervisee, commitment to communication, capitalizing on competence, emphasis on growth and development, proactivity, goal orientation, persistent systematic effort, and holism (p. 3).*

In their most recent study, Arminio and Creamer (2001) characterized the interactive elements of quality student affairs supervision as regular meeting and consultation, staff involvement in planning and goal setting, consistent face-to-face contact, ongoing and constructive feedback, as well as frequent, open, and clear communication. Through in-depth interviews, Arminio and Creamer (2001) developed a grounded definition of high quality supervision, describing it as an educational process that requires a:

> *a) synergistic relationship between supervisor and staff members, b) ubiquitous involvement with and constant nurturing of staff members, and c) a stable supportive institutional environment to be effective (p. 41).*

Institutional support, ethics, and values were also described by the authors (Arminio & Creamer, 2001) as influential elements of quality supervision in student affairs, especially in cases when new staff does not receive the support and guidance they require. For example, one student affairs employee explained how "institutional cultures that are informal influence supervision to be informal, cultures where giving orders is common

encourage supervisors to give orders" (Arminio & Creamer, 2001, p. 42). Another employee described institutional influence, expressing that "stability in the environment matters, that is, having leaders who have been in supervisory roles for sustained periods is beneficial" (Arminio & Creamer, 2001, p. 42).

Specific skills recommended by Arminio & Creamer (2001) include active listening, role modeling, employment of motivation strategies, and consistent caring, interactive processes by which supervisors help their staff accomplish personal, professional, and the institution's goals. The success with which quality supervisors are able to do this depends on their ability to lead by example, articulate clear goals and expectations, establish fair policies, and align staff around the common goals and vision of the institution. According to the authors, supervisors should become familiar with staff's strengths, serve as sources of inspiration, and create synergy through "contexts that are motivating, teaching, listening, observing, giving direction, and caring" (Arminio & Creamer, 2001, p. 42).

Contextual Variables of Supervision

A range of variables is described throughout the literature as having a strong influence on the supervisory process. These variables, referred to as contextual variables, include supervisee's real or perceived 'need for supervision' (Reinout & Roe, 1998), supervisor support (Schwartz, 1997), supervisor communication and expectations (Perris, 1997), as well as supervisor feedback and evaluation (Davis, 2001; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994; Riggio & Cole, 1992).

Need for supervision

An employee's need for supervision (Reinout & Roe, 1998) refers to situational factors in the work setting that influences and is influenced by the extent to which employees feel they need supervision to perform well in their job. Examples of factors which influence and are influenced by an employee's need for supervision (NS) include employee experience and expertise, supervisor experience and expertise, as well as the frequency and consistency of supervisor-employee interaction (Reinout & Roe, 1998).

In an earlier study, Ryan (1995) elaborated on NS, referring to it as the employee's "contextual perception" (p. 405) of his/her superior's influence on his/her behavior and of the superior's capacity to help the employee succeed in his/her job. This notion of NS is consistent with developmental supervision models, whereby as employees gain experience, they are likely to perceive, and ultimately, call upon their supervisors influence and importance in different ways.

In their recent study of NS, Reinout & Roe (1998) found that employees who have more work experience, have specific job tasks that elicit feedback from others, and are a part of a team structure, demonstrate a lower need for supervision. The authors characterized NS as a variable that is dependent upon contextual characteristics of experience, expertise, and hours of contact with a supervisor. Reinout & Roe (1998) demonstrated that the variables of employee experience and the number of hours of supervisor-employee interaction were negatively related with employee need for supervision. Professional experience and tenure was found to be negatively related to NS whereas the number of hours of contact was positively related to employees' perceived

need for supervision. When NS is lower, Reinout & Roe (1998) claimed that supervisors' ability to influence employee behavior is also diminished.

While supervisor influence appeared to decline along with employee NS, the authors acknowledged that supervisors can continue to have a strong influence on more experienced professionals, citing research that demonstrated the importance of supervisory impact across employees' developmental pathways (Yukl, 1994; Bass, 1990), Reinout and Roe (1998) agreed that NS advocates should not underestimate the impact supervisors can have on desired outcomes of employees at all developmental stages.

Independence & Autonomy

Research has demonstrated a strong relationship between the variable of autonomy with employee job satisfaction and performance (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Reinout & Roe (1998) also found that, in addition to experience and supervisor contact, employee autonomy has an strong influence on employee NS. Defined here as "the degree to which a job provides freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures" (Reinout & Roe, 1998, p. 494), Reinout & Roe (1998) found that employees' NS was influenced by the degree to which the employees are granted autonomy by their supervisors whereby a higher degree of autonomy corresponded with a lower perceived need for supervision. In other words, as autonomous employees are given more freedom, decision-making power, and independence from the supervisor, they report lower levels of NS.

Reinout & Roe (1998) caution researchers not to pay too much individual attention to the variables of independence, frequency of interaction, and professional experience. Rather, when employees report infrequent supervision, researchers should also consider

that employee's with more professional experience might not need the frequency and overall amount of supervision contact needed by more inexperienced professionals.

Supervisory Working Alliance and Positive Interpersonal Relationships

Reichelt and Skjerve (2002) articulated that good working relationships are among "the most important variables in supervision" (p. 760). As a result, the authors (Reichelt & Skjerve, 2002) argued that it is important to investigate the conditions that facilitate, or prevent such a relationship from developing, and to explore how the working relationship might be enhanced through other interactive processes. Just as therapeutic relationships are considered the context in which therapeutic changes occur, supervisory relationships have also been described as an equally influential element of supervisory change and development (Bordin, 1983). Drawn from this more traditional therapeutic alliance model (Freud, 1958; Bordin, 1979), the Supervisory Working Alliance model, referred to here as the SWA (Burke, Goodyear & Guzzard, 1998), emphasizes the importance of positive, healthy working relationships in the workplace (Reichelt & Skjerve, 2002; Neswald, 2001; Pistole & Watkins, 1995).

Behaviors that demonstrate a strong SWA, according to Bordin (1994) include, (a) establishing mutual agreement and understanding between the supervisor and employee regarding goals and outcomes, (b) implementing behaviors that attempt to achieve agreed upon goals and outcomes, and (c) formation of the bond between supervisor and employee required to sustain the professional relationship. According to Ladany, Ellis & Friedlander (1999), a strong alliance depends on a supervisor and employee's ability to develop a strong bond, demonstrated by behaviors and feelings of mutual care, trust, and respect, characterized by the degree to which attachment and trust effectively assist both

members of the alliance in accomplishing agreed upon personal, professional, as well as organizational goals and outcomes.

Advocates of the SWA model describe the benefits and positive impact of supervisors and employees who "collaborate by establishing a mutual understanding of the goals and tasks of supervision" (Ladany et al., 1999, p. 447). Bordin (1983) hypothesized that a supervisee's sense of self-efficacy and satisfaction with supervision will change in the direction he or she reports the level of positive or negative supervisory working alliance. Bordin (1982; 1994) and others (Ladany & Friedlander, 1995) have since demonstrated SWA's positive impact on employees' role clarity, on facilitating positive client outcomes, increased job satisfaction, and improved performance (Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Ladany, Brittan-Powell, & Pannu, 1997). These effects are especially prevalent when strong alliances are established early in the supervisory relationship (Gelso & Carter, 1985).

Mueller and Kello (1972) acknowledged that ruptures in the SWA are a natural product of any ongoing relationship. They also claimed, however, that it is the resolution of these conflicts that determines whether relationships grow or weaken. For example, Burke, Goodyear & Guzzard (1998) characterized SWA weakening as ruptures in the supervisor-supervisee relationship, resulting from negative supervisory events, different approaches to work, negative perceptions, and unclear communication and negative evaluation. According to Burke and others (1998), the sources of weakening differed depending on employees' developmental stages. However, both new and more experienced supervisees demonstrated negative evaluation and appraisal processes as typical "weakening activities" (p. 457).

Unlike in the case of a weakened supervisory alliance, which often results from negative supervisory events, Bernard & Goodyear (1998) found SWAs that were weakened because of poor, inconsistent or unconstructive evaluation were less likely to be repaired. Regarding supervisor-employee evaluation systems, Bernard & Goodyear (1998) as well as Burke et al., (1998) expressed concern that more repairing functions must be developed if evaluation is to enhance, not inhibit, the supervisory working alliance.

Communication, Consensus-Correspondence & Expectations

According to Bohm (1998), communication is a dynamic, irreversible, interactive, as well as a contextual means through which two parties relate information to and convey meaning from one to the other. The dynamic component of communication, according to Bohm (1998), refers to communication as interactive, ongoing, verbal and non-verbal forms of expression between two parties.

Communication

Bohm (1998) wrote that communication is an important tool with which one can motivate students, employees, and others who receive the message. In order for communication to be effective, it must be specific, clear, and straightforward, with clearly established objectives and content. In addition to verbal communication, non-verbal communication is another means through which supervisors can demonstrate status, or reflect larger issues prevalent in particular institutions' cultures. For example, Bohm (1998) explains that supervisors who work with closed doors may communicate a message that they are inaccessible and or unavailable as opposed to those who always leave their office door open. Another example of non-verbal communication might take

the form of supervisors setting and keeping strict supervision meeting times as opposed to those who provide inconsistent consultation. When supervisors make time for their employees, the message of openness and support are transmitted as opposed to messages of disinterest and disrespect when supervisors do not make time.

Consensus & Correspondence

Consensus in supervision is referred to in context of the eventual breakdown which occurs when supervisor-employee communication fails to be collaborative and congruent (Ratliff, Wampler, & Morris, 2000; Levinson, 1988, 1983; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Goffman, 1982). Supervision consensus and collaboration, in other words, are defined as the development of shared meaning between supervisor and employee (Cantwell & Holmes, 1994; Hardy, 1993; Marek, Sandifer, Beach, & Coward, 1994). One way in which this definition is demonstrated is by the establishment and clarification of expectations and goals of both the supervisor and the employee (Goffman, 1982; Levinson, 1983).

While a traditional, hierarchical approach to supervision characterizes a top-down approach to communication, the notions of collaboration and consensus reflect a more interactive approach to supervisor-employee communication, with the overall goal of reducing an employee's dependency and increasing the employee's confidence and independence (Cantwell & Holmes, 1994). Ratliff and others (2000) explained that when communication fails to achieve consensus, employees would remain dependent. These authors explained that employees must be given room to negotiate and participate in setting expectations and responding to feedback without fear of being condemned or reprimanded for holding different opinions than their superior. Additional negative

effects, which result from a lack of communication consensus, have been described as poor job performance, job dissatisfaction (Riggio & Cole, 1992), and poor client outcomes (Breunlin, Karrer, McGuire, & Cirmmarusti, 1988; Liddle, Berg, Friedman, & Todd, 1991; Schwartz, Liddle, & Breunlin, 1988; Storm, York, & Sheehy, 1990).

Research regarding the correspondence of supervisor-employee perception of supervisory events was recently explored in a recent study when the researchers (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002) videotaped interactions of supervisors and employees. Following the initial recording of the supervisory sessions, the researchers solicited respondents' reflections and perceptions, paying close attention to the level of correspondence between respondent dyads' perceptions of the recorded events. Results demonstrated a positive relationship between correspondence with supervisor support and constructive criticism, supervisor attention to the employee's experience, and interactive discussion and reflection. These results are also consistent with Schwartz's (1997) findings that established a direct connection between the degree of supervisor-employee correspondence and employee perceptions of supervisor support.

Reichelt and Skjerve's (2002) study also demonstrated a positive relationship between degree of communication clarity and correspondence with employee job satisfaction. These authors found that correspondence existed in relationships where supervisors were direct, and where supervisors engaged their employees in extended periods of exploration and reflection. Specifically, Reichelt and Skjerve explained that when supervisors made their approach to the supervisory process explicit, their employees tended to report higher levels of self-efficacy, more positive feelings about the feedback they receive, a greater

degree of openness to receiving negative feedback, and greater levels of trust in their supervisors.

Supervisor-Employee Expectations

Supervision contracts are one strategy with which to make the overall supervisory process clear, to articulate roles and responsibilities, to clarify expectations, needs and values, and to diffuse potential hidden agendas and power structures are defused (Cottrell, 1997). For example, the 3-Cornered Clinical Supervision Contract (Cottrell, 1997) demonstrates one such model for the supervision of hospital nurses. Cottrell explains that successful contracting depends on thorough, intensive, collaborative, and detailed preparation and negotiation between supervisor and supervisee nurses. Without a stable contract, unclear expectations, roles, and values will result in feelings of distrust, disrespect, and a lack of opportunities for meaningful growth and professional development. Ultimately, an unsuccessful contract will also negatively affect patients and those who receive care from supervisor and supervisee nurses.

Supervisees' expectations have also been addressed in the counseling literature. Specifically, reflecting the developmental models of supervision practice, Perris (1997) demonstrated that different expectations are held by therapists at different stages of their career. For example, beginning therapists place greater value on supervisor support, structure and encouragement, whereas more experienced therapists favor technical guidance and skill development. Regardless of age, however, therapists at all levels look for similar characteristics in the 'ideal' supervisor. These characteristics include clarity, supportiveness, and "the ability to stimulate the supervisee's own resources" (Perris, 1997, p. 29).

Elements of Employee Feedback & Performance Appraisal Systems

Feedback and performance appraisal systems are recognized as effective tools with which develop supervisory practices, teaching and other professional skills as well as to ensure success in achieving organizational outcomes (Daniels & Larson, 2001; Bernard & Goodyear, 1998). Direct feedback can take place in the form of supervisor feedback and direction given to supervisee, as well as supervisee feedback to supervisors regarding their supervisory performance.

Drawing on research that has consistently demonstrated how self-efficacy is affected by feedback, Daniels and Larson (2001) described the utility of clinical feedback in terms of building counselors' self-efficacy and confidence. Bohm (1998) discussed the utility of educational feedback in terms of its ability to provide instant assessment of a situation" (p. 27). Among the many benefits of providing immediate and ongoing feedback, Bohm (1998) stated that the reduction of anxiety, problem solving, establishment of rapport and trust, role clarity, greater commitment, and enhanced performance are among the many benefits and advantages of immediate and ongoing feedback.

The value of providing ongoing and timely feedback is demonstrated throughout counseling literature (Getz & Hildy, 1999; Bernard & Goodyear, 1998). Bernard and Goodyear (1998) described the evaluative relationship as one that should:

> *Extend over time, and has the simultaneous purposes of enhancing the professional function of the more junior person, monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the client, and serving as a gatekeeper of those who are to enter the particular profession (p. 6).*

Other researchers have claimed that effective feedback should be specific, constructive and flexible (Davis, 2001; Daniels & Larson, 2001; Bohm, 2001; Larson, 1998; Friedlander et al, 1989). Specific feedback helps alleviate employee anxiety and assists employees with the mastery of specific skills, resulting in a safer environment in which employees can learn and develop relevant skills (Larson, 1998). When mastery occurs, supervisees will have higher levels of self-efficacy, which ultimately leads to greater self-confidence (Larson, 1998). To illustrate this point, Daniels and Larson (2001) write that feedback that is accurate, specific and flexible can "create opportunities for enhanced growth and experience" of the supervisee (p. 125).

Elements of an effective performance appraisal system in student affairs settings are described as a consistent, ongoing, and systematic review of performance that maintains a dual purpose of evaluation, job performance, and identifying staff improvement needs (Scott, 1998; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991). This system, according to Carpenter, Torres, & Winston (2001), demands a positive relationship "between productivity and reward structures, recognition of changing standards, participative and interactive appraisal, clarity, openness and fairness" (p. 4).

Types of Feedback & Performance Appraisal Systems

Formal feedback systems, known as performance appraisals, typically involve a single superior evaluating an employee's performance (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984 in Riggio & Cole, 1992) by looking at "various dimensions salient to their work" (Furnham & Stringfield, 1994, p. 1). More than an annual review of performance, Davis (2001) wrote that performance appraisals should take the form of an "ongoing process of

individualized, professional development" (p. 93). What follows is a description of less traditional, feedback methods used in a variety of settings.

Self-Evaluation

This type of feedback is considered a meaningful process through which employees develop clinical (Meyer, 1991; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1984) and managerial skills (Smither, London, Vasilopoulos, Reilly, Millsap & Salvemini, 1995). Riggio and Cole (1992) argued that that by participating in self-evaluation, employees demonstrate increased levels of organizational commitment, commitment towards achieving performance goals, and are more open and willing to listen to constructive criticism. Other researchers encourage the use of self-evaluation methods, claiming that they are linked closely with counselor self-efficacy, and encourages counselors to approach their work with increased levels of confidence and self-efficacy (Steward, Breland, & Neil, 2001; Larson & Daniels, 1998).

Upward Feedback

In upward feedback systems, employees assess the quality of their superior's performance whereby a supervisor's ongoing performance is monitored (Bohm, 1998; Williams, 1994). Upward feedback provides several advantages, which include the ability to offer different perspectives on a supervisor's performance, leadership styles, interpersonal skills and delegation of authority (Williams, 1994). Implementation of upward feedback mechanisms has proved to be a valuable tool in early identification of problems and areas for improvement, skill development, understanding of quality supervision practices, and enhanced supervisory alliances (Williams, 1994; Perlesz, Stolk, & Firestone, 1990).

360-Degree Feedback Loop

Through the 360-degree feedback process, working relationships are expanded beyond the traditional supervisor-employee structure (Luthans, 2002; Tornow & London, 1998; Bracken, 1998) as employees and supervisors evaluate the performance of the others. Engaging different level employees in the appraisal process has been shown to present a more complete picture of employee and supervisor performance, demonstrates a commitment to employee development, and seeks to increase employee responsibility, overall participation, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and enhanced performance (Bracken, Dalton, Jako, McCauley, & Pollman, 1997; Deleon & Ewen, 1997; Hall, Leidecker, and Dimarco, 1996; Smither et al., 1995; Hazucha, Gentile, & Schneider, 1993; Nilsen & Cambell, 1993; Williams, Podsakoff, & Huber, 1992).

Overview of Literature Review

This review began with a discussion about the foundations of Jewish communal and educational literature, which related to the challenges facing the professional, Jewish communal and educational establishment. While this body of literature addressed various personnel struggles, only the efforts made by the Wexner Foundation, JCC Association, and JESNA make specific mention of issues related directly to supervision.

This void is particularly relevant concerning the review of supervision literature from clinical, educational, and management scholarship. This body of literature articulates the impact of supervision on job satisfaction and turnover, introduced the rise of developmental frameworks of supervision practice, informed the reader about the elements of effective supervision, and characterized behaviors which contribute to synergistic and interactional supervisory relationships.

Specifically, interactional and contextual variables such as overall contact, need for supervision, supervisory support, communication, expectations and feedback make up a large portion of supervision research. In the next chapter, the researcher describes the methods used in this study to explore whether the aforementioned variables are reflected in the supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

In this study, a qualitative design was used to investigate and describe the supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators. Through survey research procedures, the researcher employed an exploratory and descriptive approach, attempting to describe as closely as possible how respondents reflect and report on their individual supervisory experiences (Schutt, 2001; Creswell, 2001).

Using Qualitative Methods in Social Science Research

The researcher's decision to employ an exploratory, qualitative design was based on a lack of research (Creswell, 2001) about the backgrounds, expectations and supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators. Social science researchers encourage the use of qualitative methods as an appropriate strategy when little is known about the research population (Creswell, 2001). Exploratory research is particularly popular among researchers who describe it as a useful technique for effectively investigating the underlying meaning, details, or "ramifications" of a particular experience (Sarna, 1985, p. 105). These methods are also encouraged as means by which to understand the "real-life world" (Kvale, 1996) and *lived interactions* of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002; Schutt, 2001; Kvale, 1996; Maxwell, 1996; Bernard & Goodyear, 1992; Holloway & Hosford, 1983).

Survey Research

Isaac and Michael (1996) refer to the use of survey research in general, and to mailed questionnaires in particular, as the "most widely used technique" in educational and social science research (p. 141). Survey research is considered an effective tool with which to

explore the experiences of large groups of respondents over a short period of time (Sarna, 1995). This type of exploratory approach is particularly relevant in cases where insufficient data and information exists about the population being investigated (Isaac & Michael, 1996; Sarna, 1995). For example, demographic, background and experiential questions can yield concrete, objective data with which researchers can define and describe a research population. As such, these questions are used in this study for descriptive purposes. Further, this study uses survey questions that solicit reflective and evaluative feedback from respondents regarding interactional, contextual, and dynamic supervisory elements. In an exploratory approach, answers to these types of questions are not used to explain, but to explore and describe respondents' experiences.

Population and Sampling

In North America today, between 35,000 and 40,000 Jewish educators fill part and full-time positions throughout the Jewish educational establishment (JESNA, 2003). Although there are a substantial number of professional associations for those who work in formal, or classroom, settings, there are only a handful of such associations for non-classroom or informal Jewish educators. The researcher identified and approached one such association, the North American Alliance for Jewish Youth (NAA), as a community from which to draw potential research participants.

As a result, a purposeful sample was drawn from 370 non-classroom, Jewish youth educators who registered to attend the 2004 North American Alliance (NAA) Conference on Informal Jewish & Zionist Education. Based on the researcher's prior involvement with and knowledge of the NAA's membership body, and to obtain substantial amounts of

data from the most relevant participants (Isaac & Michael, 1995; Patton, 1990; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), referred to in this paper as P1, were invited to participate in this study.

To expand the research sample, a snowball sampling strategy (Isaac & Michael, 1996) was employed after the NAA conference, drawing from a second population of 100 non-classroom, Jewish youth educators working in two different American regions as well as in Canada. Members of this population are referred to in this paper as P2. The researcher gained access to members of P2 through relationships with three current and former colleagues working in the field of Jewish education. Members of P2 are educators who work in the American regions of the Mid-West and west coast as well as in various provinces in Canada.

Purposeful Sampling Considerations

Based on the researcher's prior involvement with and knowledge of the NAA, and to obtain substantial amounts of data from the most relevant research participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the researcher employed a purposeful sampling strategy in order to collect data from non-classroom, Jewish youth educators in the particular setting, time, and on the occasion of the Eight Annual NAA Conference on Informal Jewish and Zionist Education (NAA.org, 2003). Qualitative methodologists support the use of purposeful sampling decisions, which target specific groups or individual participants and that utilize a researcher's expertise and experience (Schutt, 2001; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Patton, 1990).

In addition to the researcher's familiarity with the NAA, consideration of factors relating to people, settings, events, and processes (Miles & Huberman, 1984) served as an additional mechanism with which the researcher chose to target NAA conference

registrants. The researcher's knowledge of the conference schedule informed the decision to approach this population, as the three-day conference would provide a timesaving process through which data could be collected quickly as well as from the large group of educators present at the conference.

Snowball Sampling Considerations

At the conclusion of the conference, the researcher decided to expand the research sample by employing a snowball sampling strategy (Isaac & Michael, 1996). The decision to do so was based on the interest and positive feedback from NAA conference participants who encouraged the researcher to approach non-classroom, Jewish youth educators who were unable to attend the conference and to extend the opportunity to participate to as many educators as possible. The researcher was able to expand the sample through professional networks that provided access to an additional 100 educators from the west coast and mid-western United States, as well as from Canada.

Profile of NAA Population (P1)

The directory of NAA conference registrants, created by NAA staff and circulated to all participants, provides personal and professional information such as name, work setting, job title, geography, as well as phone numbers, mail and e-mail addresses for all 370 NAA conference registrants. A profile of P1 members, based on the demographic and professional information provided by the NAA roster, is presented below. As shown in Appendix A, tabular presentations of the figures described in the following section are presented.

Job Titles

P1 registrants have more than 100 different job titles. Executive director, assistant director, education director, Rabbi, human resource director, district manager, development director, and youth educator are just a few such titles, demonstrating the depth and professional diversity of this population. As shown in Appendix A, a complete profile of P1 job titles is presented as Table A1.

Geography

P1 members work in more than 133 North American cities, in 31 American states and Canadian provinces, England, as well as in Jerusalem, Israel. Eighty percent of P1 work in only 11 American states, 3 Canadian states, and in Israel. The geographic distribution based on the top 80% of respondent states as well a profile of where the remaining 20% of respondents live are presented in Appendix A, listed as Tables A2 and A3.

Institutional Setting

P1 members work for more than 50 different types of Jewish educational, philanthropic and communal institutions that span the spectrum of Jewish denominational lines. The institutions with the most professionals represented in P1 are the Bnai Brith youth and international organizations (20%) as well as the Union for Reform Judaism youth movement (10% - excluding camps and synagogues).

Just fewer than 25% of P1 works in camping institutions run by Jewish Community Centers, Reform, Conservative, Zionist, and other independent organizations. Within this group, more than half (54%) work for Reform and Conservative camping institutions, and 24 (31%) work in either Jewish Community Center or independent camping organizations. As shown in Appendix A, a complete institutional distribution is presented in Table A4.

Professional Arena

Three-hundred and twenty-five P1 members (87.84%) belong to one of four different professional affinity groups, including Jewish camping, year-round youth programs, Israel experience programming, and university programs. The overwhelming majority of P1 work in either 'year-round youth' and 'teen programming' (50%) or in various 'camping' institutions (30.77%). An additional 8.13% work with Israel experience programs, 5.85% in community initiatives and about 5% with university programs. As shown in Appendix A, the distribution of P1 professional affinity areas is presented as Table A5.

Denomination

The religious affiliation or denomination of 236 P1 members (63.78%) were identified from the information presented in the NAA roster. Among those who could be identified, 117 (49.58%) belong to non-denominational youth education institutions such as JCCs, JCC camps, BBYO, Jewish Federation, and in private camping institutions. Fifty-five (23.30%) members of P1 work in Reform institutions, such as the Union for Reform Judaism Youth Division, URJ camps, and NFTY youth groups. Although there are likely others who work in reform synagogues, the directory does not indicate affiliation for synagogue listings alone.

Seventeen (7.20%) Conservative institutions are listed on the NAA roster, including the United Synagogue Youth organization and various regional and national Camp Ramah institutions. There are only two NAA registrants who work for Orthodox institutions, both of whom work for the Orthodox youth institution called the National Coalition for Synagogue Youth organizations (NCSY). Forty-five Zionist institutions (19.07%) are also represented, including Young Judaea, Habonim Dror, Hashomer Hatzair, and the

Jewish Agency for Israel. As shown in Appendix A, the denominational distribution for these P1 agencies is presented as Table A6

Profile of Snowball Sample Population #2 (P2)

The 100 educators who make up the snowball sample population (P2) work on the west coast of the United States, in mid-Western United States, and in Canada. The researcher's personal relationship with two youth educators from the Midwest and in Canada yielded access to 18 of the 100 potential respondents. The mailing list from which the researcher was able to contact the west coast educators provided names of the educators, the name of the institution in which they work, as well as the educators' job titles and work addresses.

Unlike the NAA roster, however, the mailing list provided no additional data with which to describe this part of the research population. Because of this lack of descriptive information, and to ensure participant confidentiality, the researcher does not provide specific information about the names of individual institutions or cities in which these respondents work. The extent to which the mailing list describes this group of potential respondents, and to which the researcher is able to describe them, is provided below in describing the professional titles of those who were invited to participate in this study.

Professional Title

Virtually all P2 west coast educators (85%) work in synagogue settings, most of whom work specifically with youth groups and youth education programs. Titles of this segment of P2 include education director, youth director, youth educator, senior youth advisor, junior youth advisor and Rabbi. Job titles and professional setting information for the snowball sample was not made available to the researcher, and therefore cannot be described here.

Instrument Design

A 44-item, self-report questionnaire, adapted from Ladany, Nutt & Hill's (1996) Supervision Satisfaction Questionnaire (*SSQ*), and building on previous supervision research, was developed to explore the supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators. To accompany each survey, and as shown in Appendix B, the researcher designed an informed consent document, which described the overall purpose and process of this study.

Informed Consent

Designed to educate the research population of the study's purpose, duration, and procedures, the researcher created an Informed Consent document, adapting it from guidelines provided by the Office for Human Research Protection (ORHP; 2003). By signing the form, individuals voluntarily agree to participate in the study. The document begins with a brief introduction of the researcher, details the process and timeline for data collection, and provides a statement that indicates that participation is voluntary and respondents have the right to withdraw their participation at any time.

In addition, the Informed Consent document also includes a statement that guarantees respondent confidentiality, and lists contact information such as the researcher's home and cellular telephone numbers as well as the researcher's personal e-mail address. At the bottom of the form, a line is provided on which respondents are instructed to write their initials, signature, and to indicate the date on which the form is signed.

Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey

This study generated respondent data from answers to questions on the Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey (SSSS). While some questions from Ladany and others

(1996) were included in the new Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey (SSSS,) the researcher added both forced-choice and open ended questions, designed to solicit respondents' evaluations and reflections regarding their current supervisory relationship (Steward et al., 2001).

Based on the review of the literature, these additional questions were designed and included in order to explore elements known to be critical in the supervisory process. Specific elements identified from the literature review include those that characterize interactional (Anderson et al., 2000; Gabbay, et al., 1999; Perris, 1997; Shulman, 1993) and synergistic (Arminio & Creamer, 2001; Saunders et al., 2000; Winston & Creamer, 1997) models of supervision practice. Examples of these elements include an investigation of how respondents describe the contextual, interactional, and dynamic elements of supervision discussed in the literature review (Anderson et al., 2000; Allen et al., 1986). The full version of the SSSS is presented as Appendix C.

Survey Categories & Themes

The SSSS is divided into 5 different question categories: (a) questions (#s 1-10) about respondents' background, professional and academic experience (Anderson et al., 2000), (b) questions (#s 12-18) about structural elements of supervision, (c) questions (#s 19-29) about interactional and contextual elements (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002; Strozier, Kivlighan, & Thoresen, 1993; Holloway, 1995; Watkins, 1995; Holloway & Carroll, 1996), (d) questions (#s 30-44) related to the dynamics of supervisor-supervisee communication and expectations, as well as (e) four, open-ended, exploratory questions (#s 45-58), providing respondents an opportunity to expand upon their responses.

Demographic, Background & Experiential Elements

Question #s 1-10 were a combination of fill in the blank and forced choice questions. Fill in the blank questions solicited respondent age, geographic location of employment, religious affiliation. Of the forced choice questions, four provided options from which respondents could indicate their academic history (BA, MA, PhD, Rabbinic, Other), current place of employment (JCC, Synagogue, BBYO, YJ, etc), and primary job responsibilities (camping, teen outreach, program development, etc). The remaining forced choice questions asked about respondents' current tenure, previous work experience, and total career tenure in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education (Reinout & Roe, 1998).

Structural Elements

Survey questions (#s 12-18) explored issues related to frequency and consistency of supervision (Arminio & Creamer, 2000; Thobega & Miller, 2001; Saunders et al., 2000; Anderson et al., 2000; Reinout & Roe, 1998; Ladany et al., 1996; Proctor, 1994; & Hess; 1987), average monthly hours of supervision (Reinout & Roe, 1998; Allen et al., 1986), and duration of individual supervisory meetings (Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002; Anderson, et al., 2000; Allen et al., 1986). Additional interactional questions asked about respondents' overall satisfaction with supervision as well as their satisfaction with the frequency, consistency, and overall amount of supervision (Ladany et al., 1996).

Interactional & Contextual Elements

The third category of questions (#s 19-29) investigated contextual elements such as respondent 'need for supervision' (Reinout & Roe, 1998; Ryan, 1995), autonomy and independence (Watkins, 1995; Fried & Ferris, 1987), supervisor support (Gabbay et al.,

1999; Schwartz, 1997), support of professional development (Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Thobega & Miller, 2001; Winston & Creamer's, 1997; Schuh & Carlisle, 1991; Allen et al., 1986; Kadushin, 1973), supervisor availability (Thobega & Miller, 2001; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Anderson et al., 2000; Gabbay et al., 1999), comfort approaching the supervisor (Thobega & Miller, 2001; Gabbay et al., 1999), perceptions of supervisor expertise (Reinout & Roe, 1998), and supervision impact on job-performance and job-satisfaction.

Interpersonal Dynamics, Communication & Expectations

Fifteen questions make up the final section of the SSSS (30-44). This section is divided into three sections, each of which includes 5 questions that ask about dynamic, interpersonal supervisory functions related to communication (Bohm, 2000), clarity, realistic nature, success in meeting, and congruence of supervisor-respondent expectations (Arminio and Creamer, 2001; Saunders et al., 2000; Anderson et al., 2000; Perris, C, 1997; Anderson et al., 1995; Perris, 1997; Holloway, E. L., 1992; Reichelt and Skjerve, 2002; Anderson, et al., 2000; Strozier, Kivlighan, & Thoresen, 1993). The first question in each series is a forced-choice 'yes' or 'no' option, and is followed by four questions based on the 5-point Likert scale.

Drawing from supervision literature which demonstrates the importance of communication (Ratliff, Wampler, and Morris, 2000; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994; Riggio & Cole, 1992; Goffman, 1982; Levinson, 1983), evaluation and feedback (Luthans, 2002; Davis, J.S., 2001; Daniels & Larson, 2001; Tornow & London, 1998; Bernard & Goodyear, 1998; Bandura, 1997; Riggio & Cole, 1992; Pajak, 1990), clarity of expectations (Cottrell, 1997), as well as expectation congruence (Reichelt and Skjerve,

2002; Ladany, Ellis & Friedlander, 1999; Cantwell & Holmes, 1994; Marek, Sandifer, Beach, & Coward, 1994; Hardy, 1993), question #s 31-44 were included in the survey, soliciting respondent descriptions of the extent to which expectations are communicated clearly, are realistic, are met and are congruent.

Survey Structure and Question Design

The format of the SSSS includes forced-choice, open response and open ended questions. Of the forced-choice questions, six provide a 'yes' and 'no' option, seven questions provide four options from which respondents are instructed to choose one, and one question provides a list of six options from which respondents can only chose one. One additional question provides eight options from which respondents were instructed to choose all which apply. The final 26 forced-choice items are based on a five-point Likert scale, with possible responses ranging from 'to no extent at all' (1) to 'the full extent' (5). Of the open-ended survey items, three are fill in the blank, and four are exploratory questions that provide respondents several lines with which to respond in any way they wish (narrative, outline, etc).

Although the forced-choice questions guide answers, they are included in the survey primarily to generate feedback related to how respondents perceive, describe and reflect upon their supervisory experiences, relationships and interactions with supervisors. Both types of questions were included to facilitate an investigation of multiple variables and elements (Creswell, 2001) which appear to influence or are influenced by respondents' supervisory experiences. Reinout & Roe (1999) encourage researchers to consider how multiple variables might influence responses to specific questions rather than to look at responses in isolation. For example, Reinout & Roe (1999) suggest that a survey response

indicating dissatisfaction with supervision frequency may not indicate that the respondent is being poorly supervised; rather, satisfaction with supervision frequency should be considered within the context of respondents' professional experience, tenure, academic history, and level of comfort with independent work (Reinout & Roe, 1999).

Criteria

Since this research explores the supervisory experiences of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, the researcher included one survey question (#11) which asks explicitly whether respondents have a designated supervisor. If respondents report that they do not, they are instructed to discontinue the survey. However, the survey first gathers background, demographic, and experiential data from all respondents. When a respondent does not have a designated supervisor, the researcher is still able to demonstrate the demographic makeup of the entire research population.

Question Types

The researcher used both realist as well as instrumentalist question types throughout the survey. Instrumentalist questions solicit demographic and easily measurable data such as age, academic history, geography and professional tenure (Maxwell, 1996). Realist questions are typically used to explore participants' perceptions, opinions, and evaluations of a particular phenomena being investigated. Often used in qualitative research, realist questions are useful for providing "fallible evidence about phenomena, to be used critically to develop and test ideas about the existence and nature of phenomena" (Maxwell, 1996, p. 57). They are not considered, however, to demonstrate objective fact.

The realist questions included in the SSSS are therefore represented by those that ask about respondents' satisfaction, independence, and perceptions regarding supervisor

support, availability and approachability and expertise. The 5-point Likert scale questions used in the SSSS, those that explore respondents' perceived need for supervision, feelings of comfort, and the various elements related to communication and expectations are additional examples of realist questions.

Open Ended Questions

The use of open-ended questions in this study demonstrates the researcher's exploratory approach and desire to describe respondents' experiences and perceptions as accurately as possible. The four open-ended questions, which conclude the SSSS, were designed to generate in-depth responses beyond those provided by the SSSS' forced-choice questions, providing an opportunity for respondents to contribute, in their own words, feelings about their particular supervisory experiences as well as about supervision in general.

Following each question, the researcher provided several lines on which respondents could reply in as much or as little detail as they wished. Specifically, the open-ended questions ask respondents to identify elements they feel are crucial to providing 'high quality supervision', to describe their supervisors' strengths, reflect on which aspects of supervision they feel are helpful in doing their jobs, and ways in which their supervisors might be more helpful in assisting respondents to become more successful.

Data Collection Procedures

The ways in which the SSSS was distributed to and the responses collected from research respondents was through a combination of e-mail as well as direct mail procedures. Detailed data collection procedures for the purposeful sample, referred to as

P1, and from the snowball sample, referred to as P2, are presented in the following sections.

NAA Conference Population (P1)

From December 2003 through February 2004, the SSSS was distributed to 470 non-classroom, Jewish youth educators drawn from the purposeful and snowball sampling procedures described in the previous section.

Pre-Conference Procedures

In 2003, the researcher contacted the NAA and asked for permission to distribute the Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey at their annual Conference on Zionist and Informal Jewish Education. NAA staff agreed to assist, and indicated their willingness to circulate an explanation of and invitation to participate in the study to all conference registrants.

Per their request, the researcher prepared and provided NAA staff with what Isaac and Michael (1996) refer to as a letter of transmittal, or cover letter. The text of the letter included a "statement of the purpose and value" (p. 143) of the study, an invitation for conference registrants to participate as well as contact information with which interested individuals could contact the researcher. Two weeks in advance of the conference, NAA staff forwarded the cover letter, by e-mail, to a listserv of 370 conference registrants. The initial cover letter is presented as Appendix D.

During Conference Procedures

On the second evening of the conference, the researcher distributed 300 surveys, placing them on each chair set for the evening dinner program. Attached to each survey copy was the informed consent document, explaining the purpose, procedure, and timeline

of the study. Each form guaranteed respondent confidentiality, explaining that no identifying information would be revealed in the final research report.

Prior to the start of the meal, the researcher arranged to have an NAA volunteer read an announcement during the meal, informing conference attendants of the surveys placed at each table. When the announcement was made, the NAA volunteer encouraged conference attendees to complete and turn in the SSSS and informed consent forms to the researcher, and provided instructions for completed surveys to be placed in a marked box, created and provided by the researcher, at the conference registration and information desk. At the end of the evening, the researcher walked through the dining hall, collected surveys directly from respondents as well as those left behind on dinner tables.

Post Conference Procedures

A reminder e-mail was sent to all conference participants two weeks after the conclusion of the conference, inviting non-respondents to participate and complete the SSSS. The e-mail included the SSSS, informed consent form, and instructions explaining how to fill out and send the electronic version of the SSSS and informed consent form directly back to the researcher. A copy of the post-NAA e-mail is presented as Appendix E.

Snowball Sample Population

Three weeks after the NAA conference, the researcher contacted three current and former professional colleagues, asking them to assist in distributing additional surveys to their respective professional networks on the west coast, in Mid-western United States, and in Canada. As a result of this snowball strategy, the SSSS and informed consent letter was distributed to an additional 100 non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, 83 of whom

work on the west coast of the United States and 17 of whom work in Canada and in mid-Western United States. Surveys distributed to the west coast were sent by direct mail, and those distributed to Canadian and mid-western educators were sent by e-mail. The cover letter text sent to both groups is listed as Appendix F.

Direct Mail Procedures to West Coast Educators

One colleague agreed to assist, providing the researcher with a mailing list of both full and part-time Jewish youth educators working on the west coast. The researcher mailed the SSSS to all 83 individuals on the list. Each individual mailing contained a cover letter, which invited participation, a copy of the SSSS, and the informed consent document. Mailings included a self-addressed, stamped envelope, as well as instructions for how to fill out and return the SSSS. The cover letter also made it explicit that completed surveys must be returned within two weeks of the date at the top of the letter.

E-mail Procedures to Canadian and Mid-Western Educators

One Canadian and one mid-Western colleague also agreed to solicit participation from local networks of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators. While they could not provide the researcher with a mailing list, each suggested that the researcher send all relevant materials to them through e-mail, at which time they would forward the information to their local colleagues. Per their requests, the researcher provided the two colleagues with e-mail versions of the SSSS, Informed Consent document, and a cover letter that was identical to the one mailed to the west coast educator group. Between both colleagues, 17 emails were sent to their respective networks within three days. Because the researcher was blind copied on each e-mail, it was possible to confirm that each e-mail was sent with the appropriate materials attached.

RESULTS

A total of seventy-one non-classroom, Jewish youth educators completed some or all of the Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey (SSSS). This figure represents a response rate of 15.11%, which is well below what is considered to be a healthy response rate. Sixty-seven respondents (94.37%) completed the SSSS in its entirety. By answering 'no' to question #11, the remaining four respondents (5.63%) indicated that they do not currently have a designated supervisor, and were instructed to discontinue filling out the final 33 survey questions. While all survey results are presented in narrative form, frequency distribution tables are also included throughout this chapter, providing both grouped and individual results for each survey question.

Survey results are divided into the following sections: (a) profile of survey respondents, (b) interactional & contextual elements of supervision, (c) supervisor-supervisee communication & expectations, & (d) open-ended reflections. The first section illustrates demographic, background, and experiential information provided by the total sample of 71 respondents who answered a series of forced choice and open-ended questions. The second section includes findings related to supervision satisfaction, frequency and consistency of supervision, respondents' perceived need for supervision, supervisor approachability and availability, respondent independence and confidence, and the extent to which respondents feel supervision impacts their overall job performance and job satisfaction.

The third section includes findings from 67 respondents, those who indicated that they have a designated supervisor, and portrays the extent to which respondents feel expectations are clearly articulated and realistic, whether they and their supervisors meet

each other's expectations, and the extent to which respondent and supervisor expectations are congruent. The final results section includes a summary of responses to the open-ended questions at the end of the SSSS.

Comparison of Results

In the context of Integrated Development Theory, the researcher also presents results that compare how respondents in different stages of their career described various interactional and contextual supervisory variables. While the dependent variables of age, academic background and professional tenure all indicate varying levels of experience, comparisons of interactional and contextual variables are only made with regard to respondents' work experience. Ways in which respondents who are working in their first job described these variables are compared to the answers provided by respondents with previous experience as non-classroom Jewish youth educators.

The less experienced respondents, referred to in this chapter as *entry-level* professionals are those who answered 'no' on question #7, indicating that they have not held prior positions as non-classroom, Jewish youth educators. Respondents with previous experience, those who answered 'yes' to question #7, are referred to as *veteran* professionals. Examples of the variables which are compared include frequency of supervision (questions 13-15), consistency of supervision (question 17), satisfaction with supervision frequency (question 16), satisfaction with supervision consistency (question 18), satisfaction with the overall amount of supervision (question 19), need for supervision (question 20), supervisor support (question 26), respondent independence (questions 22-23), as well as supervisor availability (questions 24-25).

According to Miles and Huberman (1984), making these types of comparisons in qualitative and exploratory research is a particularly useful tool with which researchers can understand and uncover the "reasons for differences between settings or individuals" (p. 165). The reason for comparing respondent answers with these variables then is that according to integrated and other developmental theories, less experienced respondents require different levels of interaction and support from their supervisors (Reinout & Roe, 1998). For example, measuring supervision frequency for the entire sample would not take into consideration that respondents in different career stages might report differing levels of supervisor contact and interaction. Therefore, by making comparisons in this regard, the researcher is able to reflect on whether respondents are being supervised according to their individual developmental levels.

Presentation of Ungrouped & Grouped Results

Throughout this chapter, the researcher refers to the format in which results are presented in either ungrouped or group format (Schutt, 2001). Ungrouped results depict what individual respondents answer a given question. For example, as respondents chose from among four possible choices indicating the length of time they have been working in their current job, the researcher provides the frequency of responses given for each possible choice.

A grouped results format presents respondent answers along mutually exclusive ranges (Schutt, 2001). For example, grouped results are typically used when more than 15-20 values are reported by research respondents. Grouped results are also used to provide a clearer picture of a particular phenomenon (Schutt, 2001). For example, this study

presents grouped results for all 5-point Likert scale survey questions, differentiating a *high-level* extent group from a *low-level* extent group.

High-level extent responses include the highest two Likert-scale answers of 'to *a great extent*' (4) and '*to the full extent*' (5) whereas *low-level* extent responses are represented by the three lower Likert-scale answers of '*to some extent*' (3), '*to a little extent*' (2), and '*to no extent at all*' (1). The decision to group responses in this manner was made based on an approach used by the authors of the JCCA Personnel Survey (Kaplan & Schorr, 2001) in which a five-point Likert scale, ranging from completely dissatisfied (1) to completely satisfied (5), was used to measure respondent sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Just as the JCC authors grouped responses into two separate groups, the results in this study are presented in that *low-level* extent responses are differentiated from *high-level* responses throughout the narrative.

Profile of Respondents

The 71 non-classroom, Jewish youth educators who completed and returned the SSSS were diverse in terms of age, institutional setting, geography, academic background, current, previous and career tenure, as well as in their description of job responsibilities. Demographic, background, and experiential findings are presented below in non-grouped as well as in grouped format. Non-grouped, or individual results demonstrate the full range of respondents' denominational affiliation, work setting, geography (state), academic history, and professional experience.

Grouped results are presented concerning respondents' ages as well as geographic location. For example, the researcher presents geographical findings both in terms of the specific states lived in by respondents as well as by identifying the geographic regions in

which respondents live and work. Respondent age is illustrated both individually as well as in grouped intervals of 4 years apart.

Respondent Age

Overall age of the sample varied as respondents reported to be 25 different ages, the youngest of whom is 21 and the oldest reporting to be 60 years old. Individual ages reported with the highest frequency were those of eight 24 year old respondents (11.43%), 7 respondents were 27 years old (10.00%), another 7 were 29 years old (10.00%), and 6 respondents (8.57%) were 30 years old. Sixteen of the twenty-five individual ages were reported by multiple respondents. Results showing that 9 of 10 respondents (92.86%) are under 40, almost two-thirds (n=46; 64.78%) are 30 years old or younger, and a mean age of 29.19 years old suggests the relatively young age of the research sample.

As shown in Table 1, the researcher grouped respondent ages in intervals of 4 years, with the exception of the oldest (over 42) and youngest (under 23) age groups. Of the six interval groups, the two most representative consisted of respondents who were between 23-27 years old (n=29; 42.03%) and between 28-32 years old (n=22; 31.88%). Only five respondents (7.25%) reported to be less than 23 years old, 7 respondents (10.14%) are between 33-37, 2 (2.90%) are in the 38-42 year old group, 4 respondents (5.80%) are over 42 years old and 2 respondents (%) did not provide their age.

Age	n	%
< 23	5	7.25%
23-27	29	42.03%
28-32	22	31.88%
33-37	7	10.14%
38 - 42	2	2.90%
> 42	4	5.80%
Total	**N= 69**	**100.00%**

Table 1 - Respondent Age

Institutional Setting

As shown in Table 2, 20 respondents (28.17%) currently work in synagogues, 14 (19.72%) work in camping institutions and nine respondents (12.68%) are employed by JCCs. Of the remaining respondents, 4 (5.63%) work for Zionist youth organizations (i.e. Young Judaea, Habonim Dror, Jewish Agency for Israel) (i.e. BBYO), and three respondents (4.23%) indicated that they work for non-denominational youth movements such as Bnai Brith Youth Organization (BBYO).

By answering 'other', 17 respondents (23.94%) identified Jewish educational institutions and fundraising organizations such as the Bureau of Jewish Education, Jewish community High Schools, Jewish Federations, and other fundraising organizations and foundations in which they currently work.

Institution	n	%
Synagogue	20	28.17%
Other	17	23.94%
Camp	15	21.13%
JCC	10	14.08%
Non-Denominational.	4	5.63%
Zionist	4	5.63%
NA	1	1.41%
Total	**N= 71**	**100.00%**

Table 2 - Institutional Setting

Denominational Diversity

The 23 respondents (32.39%) who reported to work for non-denominational institutions and the 6 respondents (8.45%) who work with Zionist institutions make up more than 40% of the total sample. The largest denomination represented by the research sample, as shown in Table 3, is that of the 28 respondents (39.44%) who work for synagogues, camps and youth group programs that are associated with the Reform

movement. Ten respondents (14.1%) work for various Conservative organizations such as regional and national offices of Camp Ramah as well as the Conservative movement's United Synagogue Youth Organization (USY). Only one respondent (1.41%) works in the Reconstructionist movement while no respondents reported affiliation to Orthodox institutions and three respondents (4.23%) did not answer this question at all.

Denomination	n	%
Reform	28	39.44%
Non-Denominational	23	32.39%
Conservative.	10	14.08%
Zionist	6	8.45
No Answer	3	4.23%
Reconstructionist	1	1.41%
Orthodox	0	0%
Total	**N= 71**	**100.00%**

Table 3 - Denomination and Affiliation

Geographic Diversity

As shown in Table 4, the states most represented in this sample are California (N=17; 23.9%), New York (N=10; 14.1%), Massachusetts (N=8; 11.3%), Missouri (N=6; 8.5%), and Pennsylvania (N=4; 5.6%). Three respondents (4.22%) live in Canada, 3 (4.22%) in Maryland, 3 (4.22%) in Ohio, as well as two respondents (2.81%) who work in Florida, Virginia, New Jersey respectively. Nine respondents (1.41%) each reported to live in nine other states throughout north America.

A regional look illustrates that mid-Atlantic and New England states (from Virginia through Massachusetts) are the largest regions in which 31 respondents (43.67%) work. The second largest region includes the northwest and southwestern states of California, Arizona, and Colorado (n=20, 28.99%). The mid-west region states of Missouri, Illinois, and Ohio represent the third largest regional grouping (n=10, 14.49%) while southern and

southeastern states such as Florida, North Carolina and Louisiana represent 7.04% (n=5) of the total sample.

Geographic Region	n	%
Mid-Atlantic - Northeast	23	32.39%
North West - South-West	20	28.99%
Mid-West	10	14.49%
New England	8	11.28%
South South-East	5	7.04%
International	3	4.35%
Total	**N= 71**	**100%**

Table 4 - Geographic Distribution

Academic History

As shown in Table 5, thirty-six respondents (50.7%) reported that the last degree they received was a Bachelors degree and 28 respondents (40%) indicated they had earned a Masters degree. The remaining seven respondents (9.3%) received either their rabbinical, doctoral, or other advanced degrees.

Degree	n	%
Bachelors	36	50.70%
Masters	27	38.03%
Other	6	7.04%
Rabbinic/PhD	2	4.23%
Total	**N = 71**	**100.00%**

Table 5 - Academic History

Previous Experience

As shown in table 6, almost two-thirds of the research sample (n=46; 64.79%) indicated having held previous positions as non-classroom, Jewish youth educators with the remaining 25 respondents (35.21%) reporting that they are currently in their first non-classroom, Jewish youth education job. As shown in Table 7, eighteen of the 46

respondents (39.13%) with previous experience have worked 3-4 years and 15 respondents (32.61%) worked for 1-2 years in their previous job. Eight respondents (17.39%) reported that they worked for less than 1 year and five respondents (10.57%) indicated having worked in their previous jobs for five or more years.

Response	n	%
3-4 years	18	39.13%
1-2 years	15	32.61%
< 1 year	8	17.39%
≥ 5 years	5	10.87%
Total	**N= 46**	**100.00%**

Table 7 – Previous Tenure

Response	n	%
Yes	46	64.79%
No	25	35.21%
Total	**N = 71**	**100.00%**

Table 6 – Previous Work Experience

Current and Career Tenure

A mean response of 2.9 years illustrates the average number of years respondents have been employed by their current institutions. As shown in Table 8, twenty-five respondents (35.21%) have been employed for 3-4 years whereas 23 respondents (32.4%) indicated a current tenure of 1-2 years. Nineteen (26.76%) have been employed by their current agency for less than 1 year and only 4 respondents (5.63%) respondents have worked for 5 or more years at their current institution.

Regarding total career tenure, the mean response of the sample was 3.9 years. As shown in Table 9, thirty-two respondents (45.1%) have worked for five or more years, 18 (25.35%) for 1-2 years, 16 (22.54%) for 3-4 years, and five (7.04%) for one or fewer years.

Response	n	%
3-4 years	25	35.21%
1-2 years	23	32.40%
< 1 year	19	26.76%
≥ 5 years	4	5.63%
Total	**N= 71**	**100.00%**

Table 8 - Current Tenure

Response	n	%
≥ 5 years	32	45.07%
1-2 years	18	25.35%
3-4 years	16	22.54%
< 1 year	5	7.04%
Total	**N= 71**	**100.00%**

Table 9 - Career Tenure

Specific Areas of Responsibility & Job Diversity

In total, 71 respondents selected 156 individual job responsibilities when completing the survey. Answers indicated that respondents are most frequently responsible for the areas of teen programming (22.44%) and teen outreach (21.79%). As shown in Table 10, frequent responses also included youth group advising (16.67%), overnight camp programming (14.10%), and overnight camp administration (10.26%). A total of seventeen respondents (10.90%) answered 'other' as either their sole responsibility, or as a part of a combination of responsibilities.

Individual Job Responsibilities	n	%
Teen Programming	35	22.44%
Teen Outreach	34	21.79%
'Other'	17	10.90%
Youth Group Advising	26	16.67%
Overnight Camp Programming	22	14.10%
Overnight Camp Administration	16	10.26%
Religious School Administration	4	2.56%
Day Camp Programming	1	0.64%
Day Camp Administration	1	0.64%
Religious School Administration	4	2.56%
TOTAL	**N = 156**	**100%**

Table 10 - Individual Job Responsibilities

As this survey question allowed for multiple responses, more than 20 different combinations of job responsibilities were reported by the respondents. As shown in Table 11, the most frequent combination reported was by the twelve respondents (16.9%) who work in overnight camp programming and overnight camp administration. Almost as frequently, 10 respondents (14.08%) reported the three-part combination of teen programming, youth group advising and teen outreach as their core areas of responsibility.

Job Diversity	n	%
Overnight Camp Programming & Administration	12	16.90%
Single Responsibility & Alternative 'Other' Responses	11	15.49%
Teen Programming, Youth Group Advising, Teen Outreach	10	14.08%
Teen Outreach, Other	5	7.04%
Teen Programming, Youth Group Advising, Teen Outreach, Other	5	7.04%
Teen Programming, Teen Outreach	4	5.63%
Youth Group Advising, Teen Outreach	4	5.63%
Teen Programming, Overnight Camp Programming, Youth Group Advising, Teen Outreach	3	4.23%
Teen Programming, Religious School Administration	2	2.82%
Teen Programming, Other	2	2.82%
Teen Programming, Youth Group Advising	2	2.82%
Overnight Camp Programming, Religious School Administration	1	1.41%
Religious School Administration, Other	1	1.41%
Overnight Camp & Day Camp Administration	1	1.41%
Overnight Camp Programming & Administration, Other	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Day Camp Programming, Youth Group Advising, Teen Outreach	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Overnight Camp Programming	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Overnight Camp Programming & Administration	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Overnight Programming & Administration, Other	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Overnight Camp Programming, Teen Outreach	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Overnight Camp Programming, Youth Group Advising	1	1.41%
Teen Programming, Teen Outreach, Other	1	1.41%
TOTAL	**N = 71**	**100.00%**

Table 11 - Grouped Job Responsibility Distribution

Regarding respondent job diversity, 60 respondents (84.51%), reported responsibilities in multiple areas of non-classroom, Jewish youth education work while only one (1.41%) considers him/herself responsible for one area. As shown in Table 12, thirty-five respondents (49.30%) indicated two professional roles for which they are responsible, 14 (19.72%) said that they are responsible for 3 specific areas of youth work, and the remaining 11 respondents (15.49%) reported having as many as 4 areas of responsibility. The remaining 10 respondents (14.08%) provided 'other' as there only response,

describing family education, Zionist education, and rabbinic youth advisory roles as their single primary responsibility.

# of Responsibilities	n	%
1 Responsibility	11	15.49%
2 Responsibilities	35	49.30%
3 Responsibilities	14	19.72%
≥4 Responsibilities	11	15.49%
Total	**N = 71**	**100.00%**

Table 12 - Job Diversity

Interactional & Contextual Elements of Supervision

The results presented in this section are based on the answers provided by 67 respondents (94.37%), each of whom reported to have a designated supervisor. The four respondents (5.63%) who indicated that they do not have a supervisor answered 'no' to question #11, and were instructed to discontinue filling out the SSSS. Results from the remaining survey responses therefore are based on a sample of 67 respondents instead of the 71 who answered the first ten SSSS questions.

This section focuses on respondent answers that describe various interactional variables identified in the literature review as being important indicators of quality supervisory experiences. Variables addressed in this section include supervision frequency, amount, duration as well as the extent to which respondents are satisfied with the supervision in general, with the frequency, consistency, overall amount, and general satisfaction with their supervisory experience. Additional variables reported on here include respondents' need for supervision, degree of autonomy, supervisor availability and approachability, supervisor support, supervisor expertise, and supervision impact on job performance and job satisfaction.

Amount, Frequency, Duration and Consistency of Supervision

Respondents were asked to describe the overall amount, duration, frequency, consistency of supervision they currently receive. As shown in Table 13, more than one of every two respondents (n=36, 53.73%) reported that they receive 2 or fewer hours of monthly supervision, 19 (28.36%) receive between 2.1-5 hours, 6 (8.96%) receive between 5.1-8 hours of monthly supervision, and the remaining 6 respondents (8.96%) receive more than 8 hours of monthly supervision.

Response	n	%
≤ 2 hrs	36	53.73%
2.1-5 hrs	19	28.36%
5.1-8 hrs	6	8.96%
> 8 hrs	6	8.96%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 13 - Monthly Hours of Supervision

A comparison of monthly supervision responses for the 24 entry-level and 43 veteran level professionals, as shown in Table 13.1, illustrates that 21 entry-level respondents (87.50%) and 30 veteran respondents (69.77%) receive 4 or fewer hours of monthly supervision. Only three entry-level respondents (12.50%), compared to 13 veteran respondents (30.23%) reported that they receive four or more monthly hours of supervision. As shown in Table 13.2, a larger group of the veteran respondents (n=10; 30.23%) reported that they receive between 4-8 hours of monthly supervision whereas only three entry-level respondents (12.51%) received this amount of monthly supervision.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
0-4 Hrs	21	30	87.50%	69.77%
> 4 Hrs	3	13	12.50%	30.23%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 13.1 Monthly Hours Supervised

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
< 2 Hrs	8	11	33.33%	25.58%
2-4 Hrs	13	19	54.17%	44.19%
4.1-6 Hrs	1	5	4.17%	11.63%
6.1-8 Hrs	1	2	4.17%	4.65%
8.1-10 Hrs	1	3	4.17%	6.98%
> 10 Hrs	0	3	0.00%	6.98%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 13.2 Monthly Hours Supervised

As shown in Table 14, twenty-seven respondents (40.30%) indicated that supervision occurs weekly and 26 respondents (38.81%) receive supervision on a monthly basis. Thirteen respondents (19.41%) meet for supervision on a bi-monthly basis and only one respondent (1.49%) indicated that supervision occurs on a daily basis.

Response	n	%
Weekly	27	40.30%
Monthly	26	38.81%
Bi-monthly	13	19.40%
Daily	1	1.49%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 14 - Frequency of Supervision

As shown in Table 14.1, 50% of entry-level respondents (n=12) and 62.97% of veteran respondents (n=27) reported that they receive supervision once a week or less. Of the remaining 12 entry-level respondents, 10 (41.66%) reported that they receive supervision on a monthly basis and two (8.33%) reported that they receive supervision, on average,

twice each month. As shown in Table 14.2, sixteen veteran level respondents (37.21%) reported that they receive monthly supervision while the remaining 11 veteran professionals (25.88%) reported that they participate in bi-monthly supervision.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
< Weekly	12	27	50.00%	62.79%
> Weekly	12	16	50.00%	37.21%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 14.1 - Frequency of Supervision

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Monthly	10	16	41.66%	37.21%
Bi-Monthly	2	11	8.33%	25.58%
Weekly	12	15	50.00%	34.88%
Daily	0	1	0.00%	2.33%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 14.2 - Frequency of Supervision

In terms of meeting duration, and as shown in Table 15, supervision meetings lasting for 1 hour or less were reported by 82% of the respondents with almost 1/3 of the sample, or 21 respondents (31.34%) reporting supervision meetings that last for 30 or fewer minutes. Thirty-four respondents (50.75%) participate in supervision meetings lasting between 30-60 minutes long and 12 respondents (17.91%) reported that supervision meetings last more than one hour.

Response	n	%
30-60 min	34	50.75%
< 30 min	21	31.34%
61-90 min	7	10.45%
> 90 min	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 15 - Meeting Duration

As shown in Table 15.1, fourteen entry-level respondents (58.33%) and nine veteran level professionals (20.93%) reported that a typical supervision meeting lasts for more than one hour. A much larger percent of veteran level professionals (n=34, 79.07%) and only 10 entry-level respondents reported meeting durations of 0-60 minutes. As shown in Table 15.2, only one entry-level respondent (4.17%), as compared to 16 veteran level respondents (37.21%), reported that supervision meetings typically last 30 minutes or less.

Of the four possible survey answer choices, the largest percent of entry-level respondents (n=13; 54.17%) indicated that typical meetings last between 61-90 minutes and the largest percent of veteran respondents (n=21; 48.84%) reported that typical supervision meetings last between 30-60 minutes. One entry-level respondent (4.17%) and no veteran respondents reported supervision meetings lasting for more than 90 minutes.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
> 60 Min.	14	9	58.33%	20.93%
0-60 Min.	10	34	41.67%	79.07%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 15.1 Meeting Duration

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
> 90 Min	1	0	4.17%	0.00%
61-90 Min.	13	6	54.17%	13.95%
30-60 Min.	9	21	37.50%	48.84%
< 30 minutes	1	16	4.17%	37.21%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 15.2 - Meeting Duration

Regarding supervision consistency, respondents largely indicated that supervision takes place on a consistent basis. Differentiated from supervision frequency, consistency is defined in terms of whether supervision takes place on a regular schedule. As shown in Table 16, forty-six respondents (68.66%) represented the more than two-thirds of the sample who indicated that supervision is held on a consistent, regularly scheduled basis whereas the remaining 21 respondents (31.33%) claimed to receive inconsistent supervision.

Response	n	%
Yes	46	68.43%
No	21	31.33%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 16 - Consistency of Supervision

Both entry-level and veteran level respondents reported a high level of supervision consistency. As shown in Table 16.1, almost three of every 4 entry-level respondents reported that in general, they receive consistent supervision whereas more than two-thirds of the veteran respondent group (n=29; 67.44%) indicated a high degree of supervision consistency.

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Yes	17	29	70.83%	67.44%
No	7	14	29.17%	32.56%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 16.1 - Consistency of Supervision

Supervision Satisfaction: Overall Experience, Frequency, Consistency, and Amount

The next series of questions solicited information regarding respondents' satisfaction with various interactional elements of their current supervisory relationship. As shown in Table 17, forty-one respondents (61.19%) reported a low level of satisfaction with their overall supervisory experience. The remaining 26 respondents (38.83%) represented more than one-third of the sample who represented the high-level extent group, reporting a greater amount of satisfaction with their overall supervisory experience.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Some Extent	21	31.34%
Little Extent	15	22.39%
Great Extent	13	19.40%
Full Extent	13	19.40%
No Extent	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	41	61.19%
High Level Extent	26	38.81%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 17 - Satisfaction with Overall Supervision

In general, veteran level professionals reported a slightly lower degree of satisfaction with their overall supervisory experience than did the entry-level respondents. Grouped responses, as shown in Tables 17.1, illustrate the 28 veteran respondents (65.12%) and 13 entry-level respondents (54.17%) who comprised the low-level extent groups, reporting satisfaction to a lesser satisfaction. A larger percent of entry-level respondents (n=11; 45.83%) reported higher levels of satisfaction compared to the 15 veteran respondents

(34.88%) who feel in the high-level satisfaction group. Individual distribution of responses is also presented as Table 17.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	13	28	54.17%	65.12%
High Level Extent	11	15	45.83%	34.88%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 17.1 Overall Satisfaction

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
NA	0	0	0.00%	0.00%
No Extent	2	3	8.34%	6.98%
Little Extent	7	8	29.17%	18.60%
Some Extent	4	17	16.67%	39.53%
Great Extent	5	8	20.83%	18.60%
Full Extent	6	7	25.00%	16.28%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 17.2 Overall Satisfaction

Respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they are satisfied with the frequency of supervision they receive. Grouped responses, as shown in Table 18, show that just over one-half of the respondents (56.72%) reported low-levels of satisfaction whereas the remaining 29 respondents (43.28%) indicated a high level of satisfaction with supervision frequency.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	16	23.88%
Little Extent	15	22.39%
Some Extent	15	22.39%
Full Extent	13	19.40%
No Extent	8	11.94%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	38	56.72%
High Level Extent	29	43.28%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 18 - Satisfaction with Frequency of Supervision

In terms of entry-level versus veteran respondents' satisfaction with supervision frequency, a larger percent of entry-level respondents (n=12; 50%) reported a higher degree of satisfaction. As shown in Table 18.1, only 16.28% of veteran level respondents (n=7) reported high levels of satisfaction while the remaining 36 (83.72%) reported low levels of supervision frequency satisfaction. A non-grouped frequency distribution of responses is also presented as Table 18.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	12	36	50.00%	83.72%
High Level Extent	12	7	50.00%	16.28%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 18.1 Satisfaction with Frequency

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	3	17	12.50%	39.53%
Little Extent	3	9	12.50%	20.93%
Some Extent	6	10	25.00%	23.26%
Great Extent	6	7	25.00%	16.28%
Full Extent	6	0	25.00%	0.00%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 18.2 - Satisfaction with Frequency of Supervision

In response to the question asking about respondents' satisfaction with supervision consistency, 41 respondents (61.19%) reported low-level satisfaction. Twenty-six respondents (38.81%) made up the high-level extent group, reporting a greater amount of satisfaction with the consistency of supervision they receive. As shown in Table 19, individual and grouped frequency distributions regarding respondents' satisfaction with supervision consistency are provided.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Some Extent	16	23.88%
Great Extent	16	23.88%
Little Extent	15	22.39%
No Extent	10	14.93%
Full Extent	10	14.93%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	41	61.20%
High Level Extent	26	38.80%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 19 - Satisfaction with Supervision Consistency

Satisfaction with the consistency of supervision was relatively low among entry-level as well as veteran respondents. In addition, there was only a slight difference between the ways each group responded to this question. As shown in Table 19.1, 67.33% of entry-level respondents (n=14) compared to 62.79% of veteran respondents (n=27) reported a low degree of satisfaction. The high-level extent groups were comprised of 10 entry-level (32.67%) and 27 veteran respondents (37.21%). A non-grouped frequency distribution is presented here as Table 19.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	14	27	67.33%	62.79%
High Level Extent	10	16	32.67%	37.21%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 19.1 - Satisfaction with Supervision Consistency

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	2	7	8.33%	16.28%
Little Extent	6	9	25.00%	20.93%
Some Extent	5	11	20.83%	25.58%
Great Extent	7	9	29.17%	20.93%
Full Extent	3	7	12.50%	16.28%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 19.2 - Satisfaction with Supervision Consistency

Regarding satisfaction with the overall amount of supervision received, the low level-satisfaction group was represented by 39 respondents (58.21%) whereas the high-level extent group was made up of the remaining 28 respondents (41.79%). As shown in Table 20, individual and grouped frequency distributions regarding respondents' satisfaction with the overall amount of supervision they receive are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	18	26.87%
Little Extent	16	23.88%
Some Extent	16	23.88%
Full Extent	10	14.93%
No Extent	7	10.45%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	39	58.21%
High Level Extent	28	41.79%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 20 - Satisfaction with Overall Amount of Supervision

Satisfaction with the overall amount of supervision received was also similar among the entry-level and veteran respondents. As shown in Table 20.1, only a slightly larger proportion of veteran respondents (n=26; 62.41%) reported a lesser degree of satisfaction compared to the 13 entry-level respondents (58.17%) who comprised the low-level satisfaction group. The remaining 17 veteran respondents (37.59%) and 11 entry-level

respondents (41.83%) reported a lower degree of satisfaction with the overall amount of supervision they have received. A non-grouped frequency distribution is also presented here as Table 20.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	13	26	58.17%	62.41%
High Level Extent	11	17	41.83%	37.59%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 20.1 - Satisfaction with Overall Amount of Supervision

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	3	4	12.50%	9.30%
Little Extent	5	11	20.83%	25.58%
Some Extent	5	11	20.83%	25.58%
Great Extent	9	9	37.50%	20.93%
Full Extent	2	8	8.33%	18.60%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Table 20.2 - Satisfaction with Overall Amount of Supervision

Respondents were then asked to indicate the extent to which they would, if given the choice, continue working with their current supervisor. The sizes of both the low and high-level extent groups were almost identical as 34 respondents (50.75%) indicated that they would continue working with their supervisor to a low-level extent whereas 33 respondents (49.25%) reported that this was the case to a high-level extent. As shown in Table 21, individual and grouped frequency distributions regarding whether respondents would choose to continue working with their current supervisors are presented.

Non-Grouped Response		
Response	**n**	**%**
Great Extent	17	25.37%
Full Extent	17	25.37%
Little Extent	13	19.40%
Some Extent	13	19.40%
No Extent	7	10..45%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response		
Response	**n**	**%**
Low-Level Extent	33	49.25%
High Level Extent	34	50.75%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 21 - Choice to Work with Supervisor in the Future

Need for Supervision

As shown in Table 22, low-level extent responses were given by 41 respondents (61.19%) whereas the remaining 26 respondents (38.81%) reported a higher need for supervision.

Non-Grouped Response		
Response	**n**	**%**
Great Extent	31	46.27%
Full Extent	20	29.85%
Little Extent	9	13.43%
Some Extent	6	8.96%
No Extent	1	1.49%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response		
Response	**n**	**%**
Low-Level Extent	41	61.19%
High Level Extent	26	38.81%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 22 – Need for Supervision

As shown in Table 22.1, the low-level extent group of entry-level professionals was comprised of 17 respondents (70.83%) compared to only 54.76% (n=23) of veteran professionals. The remaining seven entry-level respondents (29.17%) and 19 veteran respondents (45.24%) reported higher need for supervision. A non-grouped frequency distribution is also presented here as Table 22.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	17	23	70.83%	54.76%
High Level Extent	7	19	29.17%	45.24%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 22.1 – Need for Supervision

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	1	0.00%	2.38%
Little Extent	2	7	8.33%	16.67%
Some Extent	15	15	62.50%	35.71%
Great Extent	6	14	25.00%	33.33%
Full Extent	1	5	4.17%	11.90%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 22.2 – Need for Supervision

Independence & Autonomy

Regarding supervisor encouragement of respondents' autonomy and independence, 62 respondents (92.54%) reported that this takes place either to the 'full' or to a 'great' extent'. Only five respondents (7.47%) were in the low-level extent group, claiming that their supervisors encourage independence and autonomy to 'some' and to a 'little' extent. There were no respondents who indicated a total lack of supervisor encouragement of independence and autonomy. As shown in Table 23, individual and grouped distributions regarding supervisor encouragement of respondent independence are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	35	52.24%
Full Extent	27	40.30%
Little Extent	3	4.48%
Some Extent	2	2.99%
No Extent	0	0.00%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	5	7.47%
High Level Extent	62	92.53%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 23 – Encouraged to work Independently

As shown in Table 23.1, entry-level and veteran respondents reported that they are encouraged to work independently to a high-level extent. As shown in Table 23.1, eighty-eight percent veteran respondents (n=37) and all 24 entry-level respondents (100%) comprised the high-level extent groups, reporting that support for independence was largely encouraged by their supervisors. A non-grouped distribution is also presented here as Table 23.2

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	0	5	0.00%	11.90%
High Level Extent	24	37	100.00%	88.10%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 23.1 – Encouraged to work Independently

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	0	0.00%	0.00%
Little Extent	0	2	0.00%	4.76%
Some Extent	0	3	0.00%	7.14%
Great Extent	12	15	50.00%	35.71%
Full Extent	12	22	50.00%	52.38%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 23.2 – Encouraged to work Independently

Similar responses were given in regard to the extent to which respondents reported confidence with their independence. As shown in Table 24, fifty-six respondents (83.58%) represented the high extent group by reporting a greater degree of confidence while the remaining 11 respondents (16.42%) indicated low-levels of confidence.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	29	43.28%
Full Extent	27	40.30%
Little Extent	10	14.93%
Some Extent	1	1.49%
No Extent	0	0.00%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	11	16.42%
High Level Extent	56	83.58%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 24 - Confidence in Working Independently

As shown in Table 24.1, entry-level respondents reported a high and low-level extent of confidence with independent work that was identical to reports made by veteran level respondents. The only difference in the proportions of their responses was in the high-level extent group responses. As shown in Table 24.2, five entry-level respondents (20.83%) compared to 22 veteran respondents (52.38%) reported that they are confident with working independently to "the full extent".

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	4	7	16.67%	16.67%
High Level Extent	20	35	83.33%	83.33%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 24.1 - Confidence in Working Independently

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	0	0.00%	0.00%
Little Extent	1	0	4.17%	0.00%
Some Extent	3	7	12.50%	16.67%
Great Extent	15	13	62.50%	30.95%
Full Extent	5	22	20.83%	52.38%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 24.2 - Confidence in Working Independently

Supervisor Availability, Support, Expertise & the Impact of Supervision

Respondents were next asked a series of questions that measured supervisor availability, approachability, support for respondent professional development, and supervisor expertise. In addition to the results provided in the following narrative, frequency distribution tables for all respondents are presented in Tables 25-28.

The first two questions, which measure supervisor availability and approachability, yielded identical results. As shown in Tables 25 and 26, forty-five respondents (67.16%), representing more than two-thirds of the sample, provided high-level extent responses, indicating a high degree of supervisory availability and approachability. The remaining 22 respondents (32.84%), representing less than one-third of the sample, indicated a lower degree of supervisor availability and approachability.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	26	38.81%
Little Extent	19	28.36%
Some Extent	19	28.36%
Full Extent	2	2.99%
No Extent	1	1.49%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	22	32.84%
High Level Extent	45	67.16%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 25- Supervisor Availability

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	30	44.77%
Little Extent	15	22.39%
Some Extent	15	22.39%
Full Extent	5	7.46%
No Extent	2	2.99%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	22	32.84%
High Level Extent	45	67.16%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 26- Comfort Approaching Supervisor

As shown in Table 25.1, the high-level extent groups were comprised of 69.05% of veteran professionals (n=29) compared to 15 entry-level respondents (62.50%). Veteran respondents in the low-level extent group were represented by 13 respondents (30.95%) whereas nine entry-level respondents (37.50%) indicated a lower degree of supervisor availability. Non-grouped distributions indicating supervisor availability for these two populations are presented as Table 25.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	9	13	37.50%	30.95%
High Level Extent	15	29	62.50%	69.05%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 25.1- Supervisor Availability

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	1	0.00%	2.38%
Little Extent	0	2	0.00%	4.76%
Some Extent	9	10	37.50%	23.80%
Great Extent	8	17	33.33%	40.48%
Full Extent	7	12	29.17%	28.57%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 25.2- Supervisor Availability

As shown in Table 26.1, thirty-three percent of entry-level (=8) and veteran respondents (n=14) reported a lower degree of supervisor availability and 66.67% of the entry-level group (n=16) and veteran group of respondents (n=28) indicated that supervisors are approachable to a lesser extent. As shown in Table 26.2, proportions of individual responses provided by members of each group were also similar.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	33.33%	33.33%	8	14
High Level Extent	66.67%	66.67%	16	28
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 26.1- Comfort Approaching Supervisor

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	2	0.00%	4.76%
Little Extent	3	2	12.50%	4.76%
Some Extent	5	10	20.83%	23.80%
Great Extent	5	9	20.83%	21.43%
Full Extent	11	19	45.83%	45.24%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 26.2- Comfort Approaching Supervisor

As shown in Table 27, forty-two respondents (62.68%) answered in the high-level extent group, whereas only 25 respondents (37.32%) indicated a lower level of supervisory support for their professional development. The non-grouped distribution of responses regarding supervisor support of professional development is also shown in Table 27.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	21	31.34%
Little Extent	21	31.34%
Some Extent	11	16.42%
Full Extent	10	14.93%
No Extent	4	5.97%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	25	37.32%
High Level Extent	42	62.68%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 27- Supervisor Support for Professional Development

As shown in Table 27.1, a slightly larger proportion of entry-level respondents (n=16; 66.67%) provided high-level extent responses compared to the 25 veteran level respondents (59.52%) who indicated that their supervisors provide a high degree of support for their professional development. The remaining 8 entry-level respondents (33.33%) and remaining 17 veteran respondents (40.48%) reported that their supervisors provide support for professional development to a lesser extent. The non-grouped frequency distribution of responses for both groups is also presented as Table 27.2.

Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
Low-Level Extent	8	17	33.33%	40.48%
High Level Extent	16	25	66.67%	59.52%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 27.1- Supervisor Support for Professional Development

Non-Grouped Comparison

Response	Entry-Level (n)	Veteran (n)	Entry-Level (%)	Veteran (%)
No Extent	0	4	0.00%	9.52%
Little Extent	5	5	20.83%	11.90%
Some Extent	3	8	12.50%	19.05%
Great Extent	8	12	33.33%	28.57%
Full Extent	8	13	33.33%	30.95%
Total	**N= 24**	**N= 43**	**N= 24**	**N= 43**

Table 27.2- Supervisor Support for Professional Development

Sample respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they feel their supervisor is an expert in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education. In response, a larger low-level group was represented by 38 respondents (56.72%), with the remaining 29 respondents (43.28%) falling into the high-level extent group. As shown in Table 28, individual and grouped distributions related to supervisor expertise are presented.

Response	n	%
Great Extent	18	26.87%
Little Extent	18	26.87%
Some Extent	15	22.39%
Full Extent	11	16.42%
No Extent	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	38	56.72%
High Level Extent	29	43.28%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 28- View of Supervisor as Expert in Non-Classroom Jewish youth Education

Respondents then indicated the extent to which they feel supervision impacts their overall job-performance as well as job-satisfaction. In terms of job-performance, 40 respondents (59.70%) represent the larger, low-level extent group that feels supervision has only a limited impact, if at all, on respondents' job performance. The remaining 27 respondents (40.30%) made up the high-level extent group, indicating that they feel supervision has a significant impact on job-performance. As shown in Table 29,

individual and grouped distributions regarding the extent to which respondents feel supervision influences their job performance are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	25	37.31%
Little Extent	21	31.34%
Some Extent	12	17.91%
Full Extent	6	8.96%
No Extent	3	4.48%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	40	59.70%
High Level Extent	27	40.30%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 29- Supervision Impact on Job-Performance

Thirty-seven respondents (55.22%) represented high-level extent group whereas the remaining 30 respondents (44.78%) indicated that supervision influences job-satisfaction to a low-level extent. As shown in Table 30, individual and grouped distributions regarding the extent to which respondents feel supervision influences their job satisfaction are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	30	44.77%
Little Extent	22	32.84%
Some Extent	7	10.45%
Full Extent	5	7.46%
No Extent	3	4.48%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	30	44.78%
High Level Extent	37	55.22%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 30- Supervision Impact on Job-Satisfaction

Supervisor-Supervisee Communication & Expectations

The final 15 questions on the SSSS are divided into three categories; 1) supervisor communication and expectations regarding respondent job-performance, 2) supervisor communication and expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory

process, & 3) respondent communication and expectations regarding supervisors' participation in the supervisory process.

Each series of questions address whether expectations, in general, are communicated, and measure the extent to which expectations are clearly articulated, realistic, met, and are congruent. The first question in each set is a forced choice, 'yes' or 'no' question, followed by a series of 4, 5-point Likert scale extent questions. As with the second section in the results chapter, results from this section are presented here in grouped distributions, with frequency distribution tables for both grouped and individual responses following each section.

Supervisor Communication and Expectations Regarding Respondent Job-Performance

In response to the question, "*In general, do you feel your supervisor communicates what he/she expects from you regarding your job-performance*?", 43 respondents (64.18%) answered 'yes', 23 (34.33%) answered 'no', and one (1.49%) did not answer the question at all. As shown in Table 31, the individual frequency distribution related to supervisor communication regarding respondent job performance is presented.

Response	n	%
Yes	43	64.18%
No	23	34.33%
No Answer	1	1.49%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 31- General Communication of Expectations

Forty-one respondents (61.18%) make up the low-level extent group when reporting that their supervisors clearly articulate expectations to a lesser extent. The remaining 26 respondents (38.82%) made up the high-level extent group, reporting that their supervisors articulate expectations with greater clarity. As shown in Table 32, grouped and individual

frequency distributions related to the clarity of supervisor communication of expectations regarding respondent job performance are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	22	32.83%
Little Extent	21	31.34%
Some Extent	17	25.37%
Full Extent	5	7.46%
No Extent	2	2.98%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	41	61.18%
High Level Extent	26	38.82%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 32- Clarity of Expectations

Regarding the realistic nature of supervisors' expectations, 27 respondents (40.28%) fall into the low-level extent group, with the majority of respondents (59.72%) indicating that their supervisors' expectations are realistic to a higher extent. As shown in Table 33, grouped and individual frequency distributions related to the realistic nature of supervisor expectations regarding respondent job performance are provided.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	32	47.76%
Little Extent	18	26.86%
Some Extent	8	11.94%
Full Extent	7	10.44%
No Extent	2	2.98%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	27	40.28%
High Level Extent	40	59.72%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 33- Realistic Nature of Expectations

In general, respondents reported a high level of success in meeting their supervisors' expectations, evident as more than three-quarters of the respondents (n=52; 79.62%) provided high-level extent responses. As shown in Table 34, fifteen respondents (22.38%)

made up the low-level extent group, reporting a small degree of success in meeting their supervisors' expectations.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	37	55.22%
Little Extent	15	22.38%
Some Extent	12	17.91%
Full Extent	3	4.47%
No Extent	0	0.00%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	15	22.38%
High Level Extent	52	79.62%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 34- Success in Meeting Expectations

Results indicating the extent to which respondents' feel they share similar expectations with their supervisors indicated a high-level expectation congruence among study respondents. Almost two-thirds (n=43; 64.20%) of the sample feel they share similar expectations with their supervisor for their own job-performance, whereas 24 respondents (35.80%) fall into the low-level extent group. As shown in Table 35, grouped and individual distributions related to the congruence of supervisor-supervisee expectations regarding respondent job performance are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	28	41.79%
Little Extent	15	22.38%
Some Extent	15	22.38%
Full Extent	7	10.44%
No Extent	2	2.98%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	24	35.80%
High Level Extent	43	64.20%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 35- Expectation Congruence & Correspondence

Communication and Expectation: Respondent Participation in the Supervisory Process

In response to the question "*In general, do you feel your supervisor communicates what he/she expects from you regarding your participation in the supervisory process*", 42 respondents (62.69%) indicated that their supervisors communicate what they expect and over one-third of the respondents (n=24; 35.82%) answered reported that supervisors do not communicate their expectations. One respondent (1.49%) did not answer this question at all. As shown in Table 36, the individual frequency distribution related to supervisor communication of expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory process is presented.

Response	n	%
Yes	42	62.69%
No	24	35.82%
No Answer	1	1.49%
Total	N=67	**100.00%**

Table 36- General Communication of Expectations

Regarding the extent to which supervisors clearly articulate these expectations, the low-level extent group included 42 respondents (62.69%). The remaining 25 respondents (37.31%) made up the high-level extent group, indicating that expectations are articulated to a high degree. As shown in Table 37, grouped and individual frequency distributions related to the clarity of supervisor communication of expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	19	28.36%
Little Extent	19	28.36%
Some Extent	18	26.87%
Full Extent	6	8.96%
No Extent	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	42	62.69%
High Level Extent	25	37.31%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 37- Clarity of Expectations

Regarding the realistic nature of supervisors' expectations, answers from more than one-half of the sample (n=38; 56.72%) indicated that supervisors' expectations are realistic. While the majority of respondents reported that supervisors' expectations are realistic, almost one-half of the sample (n=29; 43.28%) indicated that their supervisors' expectations are realistic to a lesser extent. As shown in Table 38, grouped and individual frequency distributions related to the realistic nature of supervisor expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	30	44.77%
Little Extent	16	23.88%
Some Extent	8	11.94%
Full Extent	8	11.94%
No Extent	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	29	43.28%
High Level Extent	38	56.72%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 38- Realistic Nature of Expectations

Forty-nine respondents (73.15%) comprised the high-level extent group, reporting that they have been largely successful in meeting their supervisors' expectations. The low-level extent group, which reported a lesser degree of success, consisted of the remaining 27 respondents (26.85%). As shown in Table 39, grouped and individual distributions

related to respondent success in meeting supervisor expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	36	53.73%
Little Extent	13	19.40%
Some Extent	12	17.91%
Full Extent	3	4.47%
No Extent	3	4.47%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	18	26.85%
High Level Extent	49	73.15%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 39- Success in Meeting Expectations

Regarding congruence of supervisor-respondent expectations, a similar number of respondents made up the high-level and low-level extent groups. Thirty-six respondents (53.73%), just over one-half of the sample, reported a high-level of congruence while the remaining 31 respondents (46.27%) reported a lesser degree of expectation congruence. As shown in Table 40, grouped and individual distributions related to the congruence of supervisor-supervisee expectations regarding respondent participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	23	34.33%
Little Extent	20	29.85%
Some Extent	13	19.40%
Full Extent	7	10.45%
No Extent	4	5.97%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	31	46.27%
High Level Extent	36	53.73%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 40- Congruence & Correspondence of Expectations

Communication and Expectations: Supervisor Participation in the Supervisory Process

In response to the question, "*In general, do you feel you communicate what you expect from your supervisor regarding his/her participation in the supervisory process*", 41 respondents (61.19%) answered 'yes', 24 respondents (35.82%) answered 'no', and two (2.99%) did not answer the question at all. As shown in Table 41, the individual frequency distribution related to supervisor communication of expectations regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process is presented.

Response	n	%
Yes	41	61.19%
No	24	35.82%
No Answer	2	2.99%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 41- General Communication of Expectations

Forty respondents (59.70%) made up the low-level extent group, reporting that they have not clearly articulated their expectations. The high-level extent group consisted of the remaining 27 respondents (40.30%). As shown in Table 42, grouped and individual frequency distributions related to the clarity with which respondents communicate their expectations regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	21	31.34%
Little Extent	21	31.34%
Some Extent	12	17.91%
Full Extent	7	10.45%
No Extent	6	8.96%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	40	59.70%
High Level Extent	27	40.30%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 42- Clarity of Expectations

Just under three-quarters of the sample (n=60; 74.67%) reported that their expectations are realistic to a higher extent. The low-level extent group consisted of answers from 17 respondents (25.36%). As shown in Table 43, grouped and individual frequency distributions related to the realistic nature of respondents' expectations regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	40	59.70%
Little Extent	11	16.42%
Some Extent	10	14.92%
Full Extent	3	4.47%
No Extent	3	4.47%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	17	25.36%
High Level Extent	60	74.67%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 43- Realistic Nature of Expectations

Regarding the extent to which respondents feel their supervisors are successful in meeting their expectations, 41 respondents (61.30%) made up the low-level extent group. Twenty-six respondents (38.30%) reported a higher degree of success on behalf of their supervisors. As shown in Table 44, grouped and individual distributions related to supervisors' success in meeting respondent expectations regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	21	31.34%
Little Extent	18	26.87%
Some Extent	15	22.39%
Full Extent	8	11.94%
No Extent	5	7.46%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	41	61.20%
High Level Extent	26	38.80%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 44- Success in Meeting Expectations

Regarding congruence of supervisor-respondent expectations, a larger group of respondents (n=37; 55.22%) reported a low-level of congruence whereas a higher extent of congruence was reported by 30 respondents (44.78%). As shown in Table 45, grouped and individual distributions related to the congruence of supervisor-supervisee expectations regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process are presented.

Non-Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Great Extent	23	34.33%
Little Extent	20	29.85%
Some Extent	10	14.92%
Full Extent	10	14.92%
No Extent	4	5.97%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Grouped Response

Response	n	%
Low-Level Extent	37	55.22%
High Level Extent	30	44.78%
Total	**N=67**	**100.00%**

Table 45- Congruence & Correspondence of Expectations

Open-Ended Reflections

This section summarizes the responses provided by respondents who answered four open-ended questions at the conclusion of the SSSS. Each question solicited respondents' reflections about (a) their supervisors' strengths, (b) ways in which respondents feel their supervisors could improve their supervisory performance, (c) factors in supervision respondents feel are critical, and about (d) advice respondents would give to other supervisors working with non-classroom, Jewish youth educators.

Ways in which respondents answered questions include responses in narrative form, as well as in the form of lists with both single and multiple words or phrases. Some respondents answered all four questions, whereas others answered only some questions. A different number of individual responses to each question were provided, with as many as six or seven answers.

Categories and Themes

The researcher generated response categories, paying particular attention to recurring themes, ideas, and patterns that appear to be evident through each respondent's answer. (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Patton (1990) describes this analysis process as inductive whereby salient categories emerge directly from respondent data. Marshall and Rossman (1999) refer to these themes as "categories of meaning" (p. 154), or typologies that reflect patterns, themes, and categories grounded in data, and created by the researcher.

As categories were identified and developed, the researcher regularly evaluated the recurrent themes from the individual responses, making sure that they accurately reflected respondents' intent (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Through this process of testing emergent understandings and themes, the researcher challenged his own understanding of each question's responses by looking for alternative explanations and implied meanings that might offer other explanations for respondents' answers (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).

From each question, a different number of categories were identified in which to place each individual response. For the purpose of reporting the results of this section of the SSSS, and because respondents provided different numbers of individual responses to each survey question, the frequency of individual responses from within specific categories are presented below. Rather than report how many respondents provided answers that fit a particular category, the researcher presents individual responses, based on the total number of responses, which were placed in each category. In addition, the researcher provides examples of responses that were placed in each of the categories in order to elucidate the specific nature of each category.

In terms of providing high quality supervision, what advice would you give to any supervisor that works with non-classroom, Jewish youth educators?

Fifty-six respondents described the advice they would give other supervisors working in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education. One-hundred and seventy-eight individual answers were provided, from which six categories and emergent themes were identified by the researcher. Categories include, a) support & advocacy, b) consistency, frequency & interaction, c) communication, goals & expectations, d) role modeling & education, e) guidance, feedback & recognition, & f) openness, flexibility & availability.

Frequency of Categorical Results

As shown in Table 46, results from four of the six categories contain more than 30 individual responses (74.16%), 37 (20.79%) of which fell under the category of *support & advocacy*, 32 (17.98%) fell within the category of *communication, goals & expectations*, and 31 responses (17.42%) were placed into the category of *modeling & education* also includes 31 individual responses. Twenty-eight individual responses (15.73%) were placed in the category of supervisor *consistency & frequency*, 24 responses (15.73%) in the category of *guidance, feedback & recognition*, and the remaining 22 responses (12.36%) fit in the category of *supervisor openness, flexibility, & availability* category.

Categories	Frequency of Individual Responses	% Response by Category
Supervisory Support & Advocacy	37	20.79%
Communication, Goals & Expectations	32	17.98%
Modeling & Education	31	17.42%
Consistency & Frequency	28	15.73%
Guidance, Feedback & Recognition	24	13.48%
Openness, Flexibility & Availability	22	12.36%
Total	**N=178**	**100%**

Table 46 - Advice to Other Supervisors Working with Non-Classroom, Jewish Youth Educators

Examples of Supportive & Advocacy Functions

As shown in Table 47, respondents described supportive supervisory behaviors such as patience, persistence, advocacy, responsiveness to needs and concerns of staff, and encouragement of various items. Respondents advise other supervisors to encourage supervisee independence, "thinking about and use of personal self", creativity, autonomy, and professional development opportunities. Additional supportive behaviors include sharing of resources and information, providing direction and guidance, valuing and respecting staff, recognizing the influence supervision has on staff self-esteem.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Be supportive (n=3)	Foster creativity (n=2)	Offer support proactively (n=2)
Advocate to and Educate lay community about work	Encourage thinking about and use of personal experience	Support professional development of staff first
Share resources to foster creativity and cooperation	Support professional development opportunities	Support autonomy and provide direction
Be honest	Encourage independence/autonomy	Autonomy versus Guidance
Be patient	Patience	Show respect to staff and work
Be persistent	Encourage autonomy	Support
Be responsive to [s]'s concerns	Pay attention to new staff	Support autonomy
Be responsive to [s]'s needs	Recognize supervision's impact on S-Esteem	Support professional development ops
Advocate for staff	Respect [s]'s skills	Support, especially new staff
Encourage and support staff	Share information	Value staff
Show respect for staff	Support creativity for meeting expectations	

Table 47 - Supportive & Advocacy Functions

Examples of Consistency, Frequency, and Interaction in Supervision

Respondents largely suggested that supervisors be consistent, engage in frequent interaction with staff, give timely and frequent supervision, and to set consistent, frequent, and regular supervision meetings. Of the 32 individual responses, 17 responses included

the word "consistency" and 25 responses included phrases and words such as "be consistent", "set consistent meeting times", "have consistent supervision", 'set regular, frequent meetings", "set consistent and frequent meetings", as well as "interactive and continuous supervision". Additional suggestions included supervisor encouragement of staff to bring their own agenda to supervision meetings, and for supervisors to "interact by brainstorming". All respondent suggestions related to this category are shown in Table 48.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Be consistent (n=3)	Set consistent meetings (n=3)	Set frequent and consistent Meetings (n=4)
Consistency (n=2)	Consistent Meetings (n=2)	Set regular frequent meetings
Regular meetings Don't be inconsistent	Set regular frequent meetings	Encourage [s] to bring own agenda
Set consistent / Frequent supervision	Frequent interaction	Interact with [s] by brainstorming
Have consistent supervision	Give timely, frequent supervision	Interactive and continuous supervision
Set regular meeting time	Set consistent/regular supervision	Use meetings to check-in
Set regular meetings		

Table 48 - Consistency, Frequency, and Interaction in Supervision

Examples of Behaviors Related to Communication, Goal Setting, and Expectations

In terms of setting goals and expectations, respondents recommended that supervisors should articulate expectations clearly, set measurable expectations, establish clear supervision goals, and help supervisees establish professional growth goals. Respondents also suggest that supervisor expectations should be realistic, established in collaboration with the supervisee early in the supervisory relationship, and should be congruent with supervisees' expectations. One respondent wrote that expectations should be "clear and congruent expectations from both supervisor and supervisee", and another described how

"setting clear expectations prevents long-term problems". Recommendations that emphasize communication skills include those that ask supervisors to foster open and clear communication with staff, ensure clarity of their message, and to employ "active" listening skills. Recommendations made in this category are shown in Table 49.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Articulate clear expectations (n=2)	Open communication (n=2)	Have high expectations (n=2)
Articulate clear expectations re: Job-Performance	Interactive and Early Goal Setting	Set clear expectations (n=2)
Articulate clear supervision goals	Be a good listener	Have realistic expectations (n=2)
Clear and Congruent Expectations from both sides	Be Active listener	Set clear expectations early on
Set measurable expectations	Clarity	Early goal setting and action planning
Clearly articulated expectations	Clear, open communication	Establish professional growth goals
Clearly articulated expectations for both supervisor and supervisee	Communicate with your teachers	Have realistic goals
Communicate expectations early on	Have open communication	Setting clear expectations prevents long-term problems
Create clear expectations	Synergy of [s] vision	
Discuss process, expectations, tasks		

Table 49 - Communication, Goal Setting, and Expectations

Examples of Modeling and Educational Behaviors

Respondents recommend that supervisors address issues that are both small-scale, or program specific, as well as organizational, or on a macro-level. Additional recommendations encourage supervisors to lead by example, challenge staff, avoid micromanaging staff, and to utilize Jewish content when supervising staff. Respondents also identify the importance of participating, being involved and familiar with staff strengths, and aware of what staff members do on a daily basis as important modeling and educational behaviors. A complete list of modeling and educational recommendations is presented in Table 50.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Address Macro and Micro	Don't micromanage (n=2)	Be involved
Utilize macro and micro supervision	Be a teacher	Be knowledgeable about daily ops
Employ Macro	Encourage [s] to take personal time	Bring own Agenda
Discuss micro and macro	Lead by example	Familiarity with programs
Maintain focus on mission of agency	Challenge staff	Follow Through
Balance dreaming and focus	Use Jewish component in supervision	Have knowledge
Set boundaries and policies	Use social work model of supervision	Make resources available
Take Supervision seriously	Remember past experience	Model supervision behavior
Treat staff like professionals	Be familiar with staff strengths	Participate programs
Confidentiality	Control frustration	Participate

Table 50 - Modeling and Educational Behavior

Examples of Supervisor Guidance, Feedback, & Recognition Behaviors

As shown in Table 51, respondents encourage supervisors to offer feedback that is constant, positive, constructive, frequent, consistent, honest, and respectful. Supervisor guidance, according to respondents, should be relevant to the job and should facilitate changes in staff or program goals when appropriate. For example, respondents wrote about providing resources and tools, giving "advice/knowledge relevant to the supervisee's job", providing "direction and changes to goals as needed", and offering "advice or providing tools to find solutions". In terms of recognizing staff, one response indicated that supervisors publicly and privately recognize their staff.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Positive feedback (n=2)	Positive reinforcement (n=2)	Provide resources (n=2)
Constant review of progress	Offer solutions when critiquing	Give advice or providing tools to get find solutions
Constructive, concrete feedback	Ongoing interaction and Discussion	Give advice/knowledge relevant to [S]'s job
Frequent feedback	Ongoing review of goals	Guidance
Give criticism in private	Open and honest Feedback	Offer direction and changes to goals as needed
Give positive and constructive feedback	Set and Review Goals and Objectives	Constant review of goals and action plans
Offer consistent and frequent feedback	Constant positive feedback	Recognize staff in public and private

Table 51 - Supervisor Guidance, Feedback, & Recognition

Examples of Supervisor Openness, Flexibility & Availability

As shown in Table 52, respondents indicated the importance of supervisor availability, accessibility, approachability, flexibility and adaptability. For example, supervisors are encouraged to be open to new ideas, suggestions, and change. Respondents also reported that supervisors should offer "uninterrupted supervision", "timely responses", and maintain an "open-door policy" with staff.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Be Available (n=5)	Give attention, uninterrupted supervision (n=2)	Be flexible (n=3)
Be approachable – Open Door	Be clear and easily accessible to educators	Flexibility
Availability	Be easily accessible to educators	Allow for suggestions
Be Adaptive	Be available / Make Time	Open to new ideas
Give timely responses	Be available – Have open door policy	Openness to change

Table 52 - Supervisor Openness, Flexibility & Availability

What do you feel are your supervisor's greatest strengths?

Sixty-four respondents described what they feel are their supervisors' greatest areas of strength. From a total of 192 individual responses, the researcher created five categories and emergent themes, which include a) supervisor support & encouragement, b)

leadership and management, c) communication, expectations, & feedback, d) openness, flexibility, & availability, and e) supervisor experience.

Frequency of Categorical Results

As shown in Table 53, categories of supervisor strength with the greatest number of individual responses were *supervisory support & encouragement (n=63; 32.81%) and leadership & management* (n=52; 27.08%). Respondents also communicated 34 (17.71%) individual strengths in the category of *communication, expectations, & feedback.* Categories with the lowest frequency of individual responses were supervisor *openness, flexibility & availability* (n=22; 11.46%), as well as supervisor *experience & expertise* (n=21; 10.94%).

Categories	Frequency of Individual Responses	% Response by Category
Supervisory Support & Encouragement	63	32.81%
Leadership & Management	56	29.17%
Communication, Expectations & Feedback	34	17.71%
Openness, Flexibility & Availability	22	11.46%
Experience & Expertise	21	10.94%
Total	**N = 192**	**100.00%**

Table 53 - Supervisors' Greatest Strengths

Examples of Supervisory Support & Encouragement Behaviors

Supervisor strengths in the area of support and encouragement were described as behaviors ranging from advocating, supporting, valuing, understanding, and trusting staff. As shown in Table 54, additional supportive functions played by supervisors include support for professional development and one who "supports success". Encouraging staff autonomy, maintaining a positive attitude, showing compassion and understanding, and

fostering staff creativity were also described by respondents as supervisor strengths. Lastly, supervisor thoughtfulness, professionalism, kindness, rationalism, fair mindedness, empathy, and the ability to demonstrate confidence in staff were among the supervisor strengths reported by respondents.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Advocates for staff (n=2)	Encourages Autonomy (n=8)	Fosters Creativity (n=3)
Understanding (n=2)	Trusting (n=4)	Has positive Attitude (n=3)
Supportive (n=8)	Compassionate (n=4)	Honest (n=2)
Helpful	Confident in staff	Caring (n=2)
Loyalty to staff	Encouraging	Understanding
Strong advocate	Trusts staff	Empathetic
Supports professional development	Values Staff Input	Kind
Unconditional support	Values staff opinions	Thoughtful
Builds strong systems to support staff	Values staff	Interested in Prof Development
Rational	Good attitude	Supports Success
Understands and considers needs	Fair minded	Strong Advocate for staff in community
She listens to our concerns and is able to address them	Professional	

Table 54 - Supervisory Support & Encouragement Behaviors

Examples of Strong Leadership & Management Skills

As shown in Table 55, supervisors who have strengths in the area of leadership and management are described as "good administrators", "good team workers", "organizationally savvy", and committed to both their agencies as well as to the Jewish education field in general. Behaviors that demonstrate these skills were also described as "decisive decision making" and the ability to "relate to teens". Some respondents elaborated on their answers, one of whom reported that his/her supervisor "makes sure she's on top of our activities". Another stated that his/her supervisor has particularly

strong skills with "numbers, money, and details". Additional strengths described by respondents included the provision of sound advice, strong teaching skills, and the ability to challenge and motivate staff as well as to see "the big picture".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Good administrator (n=2)	Org Savvy (n=9)	Passionate (n=4)
Organized (n=2)	Wise (n=2)	Visionary (n=3)
Good team worker	Decisive decision making	Motivational (n=2)
Good collaborator	Discusses solutions	Captivates all ages
Fosters teamwork	Focused during meetings	Inspirational
Making sure she's on top of our activities	Challenges staff to vision	Commitment to agency
Good management skills - #s, $s, details	Challenging staff	Interested in staff's work
Wonderful Teacher	Good trouble shooter	Commitment to Vision
Great storyteller	Relates to teens	Commitment to field
Energetic	Respected by community	Capable Educator
Great visionary	Dedicated to excellence	Strong sense of responsibility
Jewish knowledge	Sees Big Picture	Creative
Gives good advice	Uses Judaic content	Innovative

Table 55 - Leadership & Management Skills

Examples of Strengths Regarding Supervisor Communication, Expectations, & Feedback

Respondents described a variety of communication, listening and relationship building strengths that they feel their supervisors have. For example, one respondent reported that his/her supervisor "listens to our concerns and is able to address them" whereas others described supervisors who have "great relationships with the board", and are "is able to talk to educators, be in charge, but not make enemies". Some supervisors were described as good communicators who set as well as have high and realistic expectations for their staff and able to articulate clear and realistic expectations in a "straight forward manner". Awareness of their own limitations, recognition of staff strengths, and supervisors'

tendency to offer sound advice and supportive feedback were also among the strengths reported within this category. As shown in Table 56, strengths related to supervisor communication, expectations and feedback are presented.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Good communicator (n=2)	Good listening Skills (n=2)	Interactive (n=2)
Good listener (n=6)	Has good relationship skills	Straight forward (n=2)
Good relationships	Able to talk to educators	Recognizes own strengths
Good schmooze	Great relationships with Board	Complimentary
Good communication skills	Clear expectations	Gives positive feedback
Sets clear limits	Has high, realistic standards	Gives Recognition
Aware of limitations	Has realistic expectations	Offers good advice
Realistic	High Expectations	Supportive feedback
Sets clear goals		

Table 56 - Supervisor Communication, Expectations, & Feedback

Examples of Strengths Related to Supervisor Openness, Flexibility & Availability

As shown in Table 57, supervisor strengths in this category were described in terms of supervisor accessibility, approachability, attentiveness, responsiveness and open-mindedness. More detailed responses included "total availability", "responsiveness to needs of staff, ability to be "responsive in a timely manner" and willingness to be "open to new ideas".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Accessible (n=2)	Responsive (n=2)	Open to Ideas (n=2)
Available (n=4)	Takes risks	Open-minded (n=2)
Total Availability	Responsive in timely manner	Flexible
Availability	Responsive to needs of staff	Open
Approachable	Timely responses to issues	Attentive

Table 57 - Supervisor Openness, Flexibility & Availability

Examples of Strengths Related to Supervisor Experience & Expertise

As shown in Table 58, only two terms were used by respondents to describe their supervisors' strengths in this category. Of the 21 individual responses, 12 describe supervisors as "experienced" with the remaining nine responses describing supervisors as "knowledgeable.

Individual Responses	
Experienced (n=12)	Knowledgeable (n=9)

Table 58 – Supervisor Experience & Expertise

What aspects of supervision do feel are the most important in helping you do your job?

The third open-ended question yielded 131 individual answers from 52 respondents. The researcher created six categories from the responses including, a) support, feedback & guidance, b) encouragement, c) leadership & management, d) communication & expectations, e) education, and f) supervisor consistency & flexibility.

Frequency of Categorical Results

As shown in Table 59, the largest number of individual responses fit into the category of *supervisor support & encouragement* (n=48; 36.64%). Twenty-nine individual responses (22.14%) described behaviors in the category of *feedback* & guidance as among

the most helpful to respondents in performing their jobs. Other helpful aspects of supervision fit into the categories of *leadership and management (n=17; 12.98%)*, *communication and expectations* (n=16; 12.21%), as well as *professional development and education* (n=14; 10.69%). The category which included the fewest individual responses was supervisor *consistency, flexibility, and availability* (n=8; 6.10%).

Categories	Frequency of Individual Responses	% Response by Category
Feedback & Guidance	53	40.46%
Supervisory Support & Encouragement	23	17.56%
Leadership & Management	17	12.98%
Communication & Expectations	16	12.21%
Professional Development and Education	14	10.69%
Consistency, Flexibility & Availability	8	6.10%
Total	**N = 131**	**100.00%**

Table 59 - Aspects of Supervision that are the Most Helpful in Doing your Job

Examples of Supervisor Feedback & Guidance

As shown in Table 60, a list of responses, which describe helpful aspects of supervision related to feedback and guidance, are presented. Ways in which supervisors provide helpful feedback are described as "giving feedback in a respectful manner", "giving me positive and negative feedback", as well as giving feedback that is honest, consistent, and constructive. One respondent elaborated on his/her supervisor's strength in this area, describing "constructive evaluation and implementation of change" as a helpful element of supervision.

Behaviors that demonstrate supervisor guidance were also described as a helpful aspects of supervision practice. For example, some respondents reported, "giving detailed advice", "direct guidance on specific projects", and "not just telling me what to do, but

showing me what to do". Additional ways in which supervisor guidance was reported to be helpful included the provision of "resources and materials", asking "good, critical, but non-threatening questions", offering "to the point ideas", as well as giving "advice which is relevant and constructive". More detailed answers included "constructive evaluation and implementation of change", the "ability to let me try and fail, and show me how I could have done it better, as opposed to only doing things the way he/she wants me to do it", and "support and a clear minded, objective opinion during difficult moments".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Feedback (n=2)	Support (n=3)
Honest feedback (n=2)	Constructive Criticism (n=2)
Giving detailed advice	Support for programs
Giving positive and negative feedback	Treating me like a team member
Giving me feedback in a respectful manner	Assistance
To the point ideas	Support Network
Positive reinforcement	Support on decisions I make
Consistent feedback	Giving support
constructive evaluation and implementation of change	Supporting me when I need it;
Constructive feedback	Having someone to turn to
Consultation when needed	Helping me make difficult decisions
Getting another perspective	Interested
Gives me a new perspective	Knowing if I am on the ball
Advice (which is relevant and constructive)	Letting me know who it is that I should be talking to
Working with a person who is entirely committed to my long-term, personal, and professional growth	Not just telling what to do, but showing what to do
Providing resources and materials would be nice	Ability to let me try and fail, showing me how I could have done it better (not only doing the way she wants me to do it)
Helping me when I need it	Asking good, critical, but non-threatening questions
Helping to solve problems with congregants	Backing me up
The pats on the back are always nice	Being there for me
Support and a clear minded, objective opinion during difficult moments	Coming to Supervisor on an as needed basis
True exploration of performance	Allowing youth director to be respected and not treated as glorified "baby sitter"
Understanding my needs	Attending programs
Whenever I have questions or need feedback, he is always there	Connecting me to others
Advocate on my behalf	Connection with my executive director
Direct guidance on specific projects - What is expected of me	Speaking about the future and what the next step should be

Table 60 - Supervisor Feedback & Guidance

Examples of Supervisor Encouragement

As shown in Table 61, encouraging supervisory behaviors were described in a variety of ways. For example, encouragement of professional development, for self-reflection, and of staff "dreams and vision" were among respondent answers in this category. Other

ways in which supervisors were encouraged to support their staff were reported in terms of "being allowed to do my thing", "empowering me to try new things", exhibiting "trust in my abilities", as well as providing "the space and freedom to take ideas and make them become a reality". Supervisor support for staff programs, "connecting me (staff) to others" and "speaking about the future and what the next step should be" were also among respondent answers.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Being allowed to do my thing	Experience (n=2)
Compassion	Learning from experience
Connecting me to others	Leaving me to do the job I was hired to do
Connection with my executive director	Opportunities to try new ideas
Easily appreciable	Providing challenges
Empowering me to try new things (n=2)	Speaking about the future and what the next step should be
Encouraging dreams and vision	an open mind
Encourage my professional development (n=2)	Openness (n=2)
Encourage self-reflection	Encouragement and "pats me on the back"
Working with a person who is entirely committed to my long-term, personal, and professional growth	

Table 61 - Supervisor Encouragement

Examples of Leadership & Management Behaviors

As shown in Table 62, helpful aspects of supervisor management and leadership behaviors are presented. Among the respondents' answers included calls for supervisor organization, efficiency, partnership, passion and positive energy. Specifically, respondents described thinking "about larger issues within the synagogue community", "finding a place to integrate youth programs into the culture of the synagogue", and "building a cohesive program" as among the most helpful aspects of supervision within

the category of supervisor leadership and management behaviors. Additional behaviors reported to be helpful include supervisors who "follow through", exhibit "passion", and in particular, include supervisors who make "sure supplies are there to work with".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Being a macro manager	Organization (n=2)
Building a cohesive program	Making sure our supplies are here to work with
Positive energy	Partnership
Energy	Passion
Follow through	Fitting my programs in institution's overall mission
Efficient meetings focusing on problem solving and not personalities	Presence
Finding a way to integrate youth programs into culture of the synagogue	Serving as liaison with other staff and Temple board
Having supervisor as a liaison to the greater synagogue community	To think about larger issues within the synagogue community

Table 62 - Leadership & Management Behaviors

Examples Related to Supervisor Communication and Expectations

As shown in Table 63, ways in which respondents reported that behaviors related to communication and setting expectations are important supervisory behaviors include supervisors' "frankness", "thoughtful listening", and "reflective listening" skills. Respondents also reported that setting goals that are "realistic", help "mark progress", and are clearly stated are particularly helpful elements of supervision. One respondent elaborated, "clear deadlines and objectives are an important tool/guideline, allowing distinct programs to come through to fruition" and another pointed to the importance of "clear, concise communication of expectations for job duties and methods of performance".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Communication of expectations and of the bigger picture of what is going on in the school	Clear deadlines and objectives are an important tool/guideline allowing distinct programs to come through to fruition
The ability to check myself with someone that I trust	Clear, concise communication of expectations or job duties and methods of performance
Communication	Realistic goal setting
Thoughtful listening	Helping to mark progress
Communication	Clearly stated expectations
Reflective listening	Frankness
Clear expectations	Some goal setting
Setting limits	

Table 63 - Supervisor Communication and Expectations

Examples of Educational & Experiential Factors

As shown in Table 64, respondents described helpful aspects of supervision that emphasizes respondent learning as well as both supervisors' and respondents' experience. For example, respondents identified how the experiences of learning from their supervisors and having a positive supervisory experience are important and helpful. One respondent described how supervision ought to be a "great opportunity to learn from someone else and know that I have support" and another reported that his/her supervisor "is preparing me to be a good supervisor".

Educational behaviors described by respondents include role modeling for and teaching staff, leading by example, reviewing staff ideas and work, as well as exhibiting knowledge of the field and population. One respondent elaborated in this area, describing how his/her supervisor "models, during and outside of supervision, the type of professional I want to be". Additional examples of educational behaviors provided by respondents suggested the importance of including regular study in supervision, and "teaching the correct way to

write a letter, the right way to handle people, the way to fill out forms and a countless amount of other small details I deal with every day".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Being a role model for work/life balance	Regular Study
Knowledge of the field and target population	Teaching the ropes to me
Leading by example	Wisdom
He is preparing me to be a good supervisor	Sometimes having to check in and review my work
Have supervision be a positive learning experience	Reminding me to cover all areas of my job, and not just in Youth group/Age
Great opportunity to learn from someone else and know that I have support	Simply having an experienced person to flesh out ideas with and brainstorm with
He models (during and outside supervision) the type of professional I want to be	Teaching the correct way to write a letter, the right way to handle people, the way to fill our forms and a countless amount of other small details that I deal with every day.

Table 64 - Educational & Experiential Factors

Examples of Supervisor Consistency, Flexibility & Availability

Examples of supervisor consistency, flexibility and availability are presented in Table 65. One example of supervisor flexibility was provided by a respondent who described the importance of "letting me be flexible with my schedule". Other respondents described supervision consistency in terms of setting and keeping regular meetings, one of whom stressed the importance of taking time "before my meetings to think about my to-do list and what my priorities are". One respondent reported that consistency is a helpful element of supervision, but is also one "which is not happening".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Consistency, which is not happening	Informed
Consistency	Letting me be flexible with my schedule
Flexibility	My taking time before my meetings to think about my to-do list and what my priorities are
I am not supervised in a formal way	Regularly scheduled Meetings

Table 65 - Supervisor Consistency, Flexibility & Availability

In what ways, if any, could your supervisor help you to be a more successful non-classroom, Jewish youth educator?

Forty-seven respondents provided 75 individual responses to the final, closed-ended question. From their responses, the researcher created four categories which include, a) communication, expectations, feedback & guidance, b) support, encouragement, & engagement, c) professional development & education, and d) organizational advocacy, management & leadership.

Frequency of Categorical Results

As shown in Table 66, an equal number of individual responses fit into the category of *Communication, Expectations, Feedback & Guidance* (n=23; 30.67%) as well as in the category of *Supervisory Support, Encouragement & Engagement* (n=23; 30.67%). In the category of professional development and education, respondents provided 16 individual responses (21.33%). *Organizational advocacy, management & leadership* represented the category with the fewest individual responses (n=13; 17.33%).

Categories	Frequency of Individual Responses	% Response by Category
Communication, Expectations, Feedback & Guidance	23	30.67%
Supervisory Support, Encouragement & Interaction	23	30.67%
Professional Development & Education	16	21.33%
Organizational Advocacy, Management & Leadership	13	17.33%
Total	**N = 75**	**100.00%**

Table 66 - Ways your Supervisor Could be More Helpful

Examples Related to Supervisor Communication, Expectations, Feedback & Guidance

As shown in Table 67, ways in which supervisors ought to be more helpful were described in terms of setting clearer expectations, offering suggestions and guidelines, providing more feedback, and by employing more sound listening skills. Specific answers regarding guidelines included "clearly providing guidelines and procedural rules", enforcing "a uniform code of conduct", "making suggestions", "brainstorming" and "implementing new ideas", as well as setting of "appropriate boundaries" by the supervisor.

In the area of feedback, respondents described the need for "true exploration of performance", "more time for thoughtful evaluation", "setting realistic goals", and providing "more constructive feedback whether it is positive or negative". Helpful communication behaviors reported by respondents referred to supervisors' ability to "articulate clear vision", employ "reflective listening", and to be "clear on his/her role as my supervisor".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Set clear expectations	Making suggestions
A uniform code of conduct	Micromanage less!
If he were an educator, he could give me more advice, ideas	More clearly providing guidelines and procedural rules
Articulating a clear vision of where the organization should go and what the organization should accomplish	More time for thoughtful evaluation (It seems we are always rushed).
Be clear on her role as my supervisor	More Feedback
Brainstorm new ideas with me	Provide guidelines and procedural rules
Evaluate my work and explain her expectations for me	Realistic goal setting
Fulfill his roles as a supervisor	Reflective listening
Appropriate boundaries should be set (with regard to staff/student relations)	Setting realistic goals, organization, and better time management
Making suggestions	Making more time to brainstorm/think tank about things
The most important thing for me would be to get a bit more constructive feedback whether it is positive or negative. It is hard to know what my supervisor is thinking	True exploration of performance
	Listen more

Table 67 - Communication, Expectations, Feedback & Guidance

Examples of Supervisory Support, Encouragement & Interaction Behaviors

As shown in Table 68, respondents described supportive and interactive supervisory behaviors that they feel would be more helpful to them in doing their job. For example, interactive functions include supervisor involvement in "educational programming" and in the overall supervisory "process". Fostering staff ownership and involvement of staff in the work of the agency are also among the interactive functions described by respondents. One respondent expressed concern that his/her supervisor "doesn't always witness me doing my best work. If he/she did, he/she could be more helpful", and another "would like to feel like he/she is more of a hand-on, working partner".

Additional supportive behaviors were characterized as supervisor availability and consistency. For example, some respondents reported that they want supervisors to "speak regularly about supervision", "sit with me on a regular basis", and not to "wait for

employees to ask for support". One respondent reflects on the importance of supervisors who are "supportive of my decisions, ideas and opinions" whereas another respondent identifies support in terms of being able to "check myself with someone that I trust".

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Ability to let me try and fail, as opposed to only doing the way she wants me to do it	She doesn't always witness me doing my best work, If she did, she could be more helpful
Allow more opportunities for educator (workshops, resources)	More support
Be consistent and regular in supervision	Not very warm.
Be more Available	Ownership
Be more involved in educational programming	Make herself available when needed
Become more involved in the process	Sit with me on a regular basis
Don't wait for employee to ask for support	Speak regularly about supervision
Ideas	Supportive
Help with implementing new ideas	The ability to check myself with someone that I trust
I would like to feel like he's more of a hands-on, working partner than a strict "supervisor"	They could be supportive of my decisions, ideas, opinions;
Involve me in things	To be supervised
Help me come up with concrete ideas/ways to run my adult youth committee (I have no chair)	

Table 68 - Supervisory Support, Encouragement & Interaction

Examples of Professional Development & Educational Behaviors

Respondents described various behaviors in the category of professional development and education that would be helpful. Examples of such behaviors included providing staff with sufficient resources, tools, and opportunities to grow professionally. Specifically, one respondent articulated how his/her supervisor should "show me through example, ways in which I can do my job better and suit the needs of my constituents", another asked for "more training in the front end of this job", and a third called on his/her supervisor to "provide more books, tools, and TIME for professional development, study and growth".

Respondent descriptions indicating helpful behaviors of professional development support and education are presented in Table 69.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
Show me through example, ways in which I can do my job to better suit the needs of my constituents	More training in the front end of this job could really help
Ask me to take on more responsibility that involves supervision of staff	Provide more books/tools and TIME for professional development (study and growth)
Ask me where I would like help and then work with me in finding resources in these areas	Understand a need for constant professional development
Educate themselves on teen programming, teen outreach and teen culture	Developing staff training for me and other people he supervises
Provide resources for me to go to	Show me how I could have done it better
Formal learning opportunity	Study models of supervision
Give me some professional development help (where can I go from this job?)	They can't, but they do by providing resources for me to go to
Modeling	Provide more time for continuing Jewish Education

Table 69 - Professional Development & Educational

Examples of Advocacy, Leadership & Management Behaviors

Salary raises, stronger supervisor organizational skills, and better distribution of staff responsibilities were among the helpful supervisory behaviors in this category. In terms of organizational and management skills, one respondent explained that his/her "supervisor lacks the organizational skills to have his/her ideas become a concrete reality in an organized fashion" and another called on his/her supervisor to "help me navigate the personnel structure to get more administrative support and a salary commensurate with my responsibilities". Respondent answers that described helpful elements of supervisor advocacy, leadership and management are presented in Table 70.

Individual Responses	Individual Responses
A raise	Higher salary
Be more organized	More equal distribution of responsibilities
Bringing department of education and youth together	Not marginalizing the efforts of the director
Has issues with confrontation and personal sharing	Repercussions should be set/enforced
Helping me better navigate community politics	Learn more about when to be hands-on, hands off
With more administrative support (mailing, copies, etc), I could spend more time on program development	My supervisor lacks the organizational skills to have their ideas become a concrete reality in an organized fashion.
Help me navigate the personnel structure to get more administrative support and a salary commensurate with my responsibilities (I am not in a position to obtain things on my own)	

Table 70 - Advocacy, Leadership & Management Behaviors

DISCUSSION

Demography, Background & Experience of Respondents

The respondents in this study were primarily young, evidenced by almost three-fourths of the respondents who are 23-32 years old. Respondents live throughout North America although the majority of respondents live in New York, Massachusetts, Washington DC, Maryland and in California. Respondents work in various areas of Jewish youth work and have diverse job responsibilities. Consistent with findings from CAJE's educator retention study (Koller-Fox et al., 2002), respondents were highly educated, with more than 90% of the respondents holding Bachelors, Masters, or other advanced degrees.

A large group of respondents work in reform institutions such as in synagogue youth groups and in different Union for Reform Judaism camping organizations. While fewer in number, almost one-third of the respondents reported to work for other camping institutions, non-denominational and Zionist youth movements, as well as in Jewish Community Centers. Almost three times as many respondents reported that they work for Reform institutions compared to those who work for Conservative institutions.

Respondents' professional experiences varied from those with limited work experience to those who have worked for multiple years and in multiple non-classroom, Jewish youth education jobs. While current tenure levels were reported at an average of just fewer than 3 years, more than half of the respondents reported current tenure levels of two or fewer years and more than one-third of the respondents reported that they are currently working in their first job as a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator. Although a significant number of respondents have had previous work experience, about half of these respondents reported that they worked for only two or fewer years in previous jobs. While

the majority of respondents reported career tenure levels of five or more years, almost one-third of the respondents have worked as non-classroom, Jewish youth educators for two or fewer years throughout their careers.

Findings indicate a general lack of current as well as overall professional experience of the respondents. While respondents' ages may help to explain these findings, the fact that respondents change jobs, on average, every 2-3 years, may be a cause for concern. Consistent with Bubis's (1984) findings, these turnover figures should be explored in future research.

Interactional & Contextual Elements of Supervision

A discussion about the research findings of the entire research sample, as well as of how responses from the entry-level and veteran respondent groups were similar or different, is presented below.

Supervision Contact, Frequency, Duration & Consistency

More than half of the respondents reported relatively low levels of supervisory contact ($\geq$ 2 hours/month) and supervision frequency (monthly/bi-monthly). Although the majority of the sample's respondents reported that supervision meetings typically last 60 or fewer minutes, almost one-third of the respondents indicated that the duration of typical supervisory meetings last for fewer than 30 minutes. More than two-thirds of the respondents reported that consistency of supervision occurs to a large extent.

Comparison Results: Supervision Contact

Comparisons of entry-level and veteran respondent answers were not consistent with developmental models of supervision, which articulate the need for younger professionals to have more overall contact with supervisors than more experienced professionals do.

This statement is supported by findings that showed that entry-level respondents receive fewer hours of monthly supervision than do veteran respondents. Moreover, veteran respondents reported that they receive more than four hours of monthly supervision two and one-half times more frequently than entry-level respondents do.

Comparison Results: Supervision Frequency & Meeting Duration

Regarding supervision frequency and meeting duration, comparison results were consistent with Stoltenberg's (1998) Integrated Development Model (IDM). This was evident as entry-level respondents reported higher degrees of supervision frequency than veteran respondents did, and as entry-level respondents reported that typical, supervisory meetings last longer than 60 minutes almost three times as frequently as veteran respondents did.

Although overall frequency and meeting duration was reported to be low by both groups, these findings may indicate that supervisors recognize the need to interact with inexperienced educators on a more frequent basis and may illustrate supervisors' efforts to provide enough more consultation time than they might for more experienced educators. While veteran professionals reported shorter meeting duration, this may have occurred because these respondents have the capacity to work without the same time commitment required by less-experienced professionals. Whether these findings reflect veteran respondents' capabilities or supervisor intentions to provide greater levels of frequency and time to less experienced respondents, further research should be conducted in order to better understand these phenomena.

Regarding supervision consistency, more than two-thirds of the entry-level and veteran respondent groups reported that they meet and interact with their supervisors on a

consistent basis. While both groups reported low levels of frequency and contact as well as short meeting duration, it appears as though respondents benefit from regularly scheduled supervisory meetings, and suggests an area of supervisor strength.

Satisfaction with Frequency, Consistency, Amount & Experience

More than half of the respondents reported dissatisfaction with supervision frequency and with their overall supervisory experience, while almost two-thirds of the respondents indicated dissatisfaction with the overall amount and with the consistency of supervision they currently receive. The overall dissatisfaction of the respondents is a potential cause for concern in light of the research that demonstrates the strong relationship between satisfaction with the frequency, consistency and amount of supervision, with overall supervision satisfaction, job satisfaction, and turnover. Further research should be conducted to ascertain the reasons for the respondents' general dissatisfaction.

Comparison Results: Satisfaction with Frequency

About half of the entry-level respondents reported high-levels of satisfaction with supervision frequency compared to the three-quarters of veteran respondents who reported low levels of satisfaction. In fact, veteran respondents provided answers of 'little' and 'no' satisfaction with supervision frequency almost six times more frequently than entry-level respondents did.

Comparison Results: Satisfaction with Consistency & Overall Amount

Entry-level and veteran respondents reported high levels of dissatisfaction with both the consistency as well as the overall amount of supervision they currently receive. While entry-level respondents reported a much higher degree of satisfaction with supervision frequency than veteran respondents did, both groups reported dissatisfaction with these

variables in similar proportions. It is difficult to understand why there were differences between each group's responses with regard to supervision frequency, yet not about satisfaction with consistency and overall amount. Future research is required to understand the interrelation and impact of these variables for new as well as experienced educators.

Comparison Results: Satisfaction with Overall Supervision

Veteran respondents were slightly less satisfied with supervision than entry-level respondents were. Whereas a similar proportion of entry-level and veteran level respondents are satisfied to 'no' extent, to a 'little' extent and to a 'great extent', veteran respondents reported only 'some' extent of satisfaction more than twice as frequently as entry-level respondents, explaining the larger percent of veteran professionals in the low-satisfaction group.

These findings are a potential cause for concern in light of the research that shows a strong relationship with supervision satisfaction, job-satisfaction and job retention (Thogeba & Miller, 2001; Blair, 2000; Cacioppe, 2000; Bowen, 1999; Shaw, 1999; Schroffel, 1999; Chapman, 1999; Dickenson & Perry, 1998; Gresham & Brown, 1997; Cramer, 1995; Shuaibi, 1995; Riggio and Cole, 1992; Sherman, 1989; Fleischer, 1985). In particular, research that has demonstrated the negative impact of supervision and job-dissatisfaction with job turnover of classroom and university educators (Rettig, 2000; National Center for Education Statistics, 1997; Gross & Billingsley, 1994; Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982) suggests the need for further research about supervision and job satisfaction of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators.

While greater frequency and consistency rates reported by respondents might explain the higher levels of satisfaction among less experienced professionals, additional research is needed to determine why the entry-level and veteran respondent groups reported low-levels of satisfaction. Perhaps findings from the Wexner Jewish leadership study (Fishman et al., 1995), which demonstrated that among the most frequently referred to sources of dissatisfaction of Jewish communal professionals were inadequate reward and recognition systems, as well as unpleasant relationships with mentors and "arrogant, careless or competitive supervisors" (p. 109), may help to explain these findings.

The greater satisfaction among entry-level respondents may be explained by the greater levels of supervision frequency and consistency reported by these respondents. However, according to Reinout and Roe (1998), young professionals' satisfaction with supervision frequency may only reflect situations in which a less experienced professional lacks an awareness for what is acceptable in terms of the frequency and consistency of supervision. Another way in which higher entry-level respondent satisfaction might be explained is by acknowledging the larger percent of these respondents who reported satisfaction with their overall supervision experience. In other words, these findings are consistent with the literature that demonstrates a relationship with supervision satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision frequency.

Need for Supervision, Independence, Confidence, Availability, Approachability & Support

Two-thirds of the respondents reported that they have a low need for supervision, more than 90% indicated that they are encouraged to work independently, and more than 80% feel confident with the amount of independence they have. In addition, about two-thirds

of the respondents indicated that their supervisors are available, approachable, and that supervisors provide a strong support for respondents' professional development.

Comparison Results: Need for Supervision

Comparison results were not consistent with Stoltenberg's IDM as entry-level respondents reported a lower need for supervision than did veteran respondents. These findings contradict developmental models of supervision that suggest how less-experienced employees have a greater need for supervision. One possible explanation for this contradiction may be explained by the extent to which entry-level respondents feel they are highly skilled, or that they feel they are not benefiting from their supervisors guidance (Reinout & Roe, 1998). Another way one might understand why a greater proportion of veteran respondents feel they need supervision might be that these educators better understand the importance of supervision, and therefore feel they need it to effectively do their jobs (Reinout & Roe, 1998). Additional research is required to understand the contradiction in these findings.

Comparison Results: Independence & Confidence

Both the entry-level and veteran respondent groups reported high degrees of confidence with working independently. Whereas entry-level and veteran respondents reported that their supervisors encourage them to work independently, entry-level respondents did so more than veteran respondents did. These findings are inconsistent with Stoltenberg's IDM, which recommends that supervisors provide more structure and less independence when working with younger employees. Additional research is needed to explore the extent to which supervisors encourage their employees to work independently.

Comparison Results: Supervisor Availability & Approachability

Both the entry-level and veteran respondent groups reported that their supervisors make themselves available with only a slightly larger percent of veteran respondents reporting that this is the case. In terms of supervisory approachability, and in identical proportions, the entry-level and veteran level respondent groups reported that they feel comfortable approaching their supervisors for help. As supervision literature refers to the availability and approachability of supervisors as strong indicators of supervisor support, supervision quality, supervisor influence and supervision satisfaction, these findings suggest this as an area of supervisor strength.

Comparison Results: Supervisory Support

Whereas entry-level and veteran respondent groups reported high levels of supervisory support, a slightly larger percent of entry-level respondents reported this than veteran respondents did. Despite this difference, the high degree of support for professional development demonstrates strength in the practices of the respondents' supervisors. Moreover, these results are consistent with recommendations from the literature, which advocates for supervisory support of employees as an instrumental component of quality and effective supervision.

Supervisor Expertise

More than half of the respondents did not consider their supervisors to be experts in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education. If educators do not perceive supervisors to be experts, they may be less inclined to share information, communicate in an open way, feel supported, approach supervisors for guidance, and ultimately, may experience feelings of distrust or dissatisfaction. As the perception of supervisor expertise is among

the variables that influences the quality of supervision and degree of trust and confidence employees have in supervisors, additional research is needed to explain these findings. Questions relevant to the expertise supervisors bring into the supervisory relationship might address the academic and professional training supervisors have, the extent to which these supervisors are qualified to do their particular jobs, and whether supervisors receive supervision training.

Impact of Supervision

Respondents reported that supervision influences job satisfaction greater than it affects job-performance. While the literature that describes the positive relationship between supervision and job-performance was not supported by the results, these findings are consistent with the literature that demonstrates a strong relationship between supervision and job-satisfaction.

Supervisor-Employee Communication & Expectations

Respondents reported that their supervisors communicate what they expect regarding respondents' job performance and participation in the overall supervisory process. However, respondents tended to feel that supervisors do an inadequate job of clearly articulating their expectations. Respondents felt that they communicate their own expectations regarding their supervisors' participation in the supervisory process, yet they have been unable to do so in a clear way.

The majority of respondents felt that their supervisors' expectations are realistic, claimed to be successful in meeting supervisors' expectations, and stated that they share similar expectations with their supervisors in this regard. Although respondents felt their own expectations, regarding supervisor participation in the supervisory process, are

realistic and congruent with those of the supervisors, almost two-thirds of the respondents indicated that supervisors have been unsuccessful in meeting those expectations.

Implications for Future Research: Clarity, Realistic Nature of & Meeting Expectations

As supervision literature refers to communication and clarity of expectations as variables that influence the quality of supervision, job performance, supervision satisfaction, and job satisfaction, findings in this section suggest that supervisors are practicing in a manner that is consistent with what the literature recommends. It seems as though supervisors are making basic efforts to communicate what they expect, and are setting expectations that are realistic and congruent with respondents' expectations. However, the extent to which supervisors clearly articulate their expectations is considered by the researcher to be a possible area of concern, as more than two-thirds of the respondents reported a lack of clarity regarding their supervisors' expectations related to respondents' job performance and participation in the supervisory process.

Regarding job performance, additional research might explore the prevalence and use of supervision contracts, implementation of formal performance reviews, ongoing feedback behaviors, or how a particular organization's culture influences the way in which supervisors communicate and articulate expectations. Areas of potential concern regarding supervisor responsibilities in the supervisory process include respondents' inability to clearly articulate their expectations as well as their perceptions of supervisors' inability to meet what they feel are realistic expectations.

As the issue of unclear expectations emerges in each of these cases, additional research in the area of communication skills is needed to explore these findings. In terms of participation in the overall supervisory process, research might explore whether

supervisors encourage educators to prepare for and bring agendas to supervisory sessions, set professional development goals, ask questions, seek feedback, and update supervisors about progress. Research questions might explore whether, (a) supervisee-level educators have the responsibility to ensure they understand what is expected of them?, or (b) whether supervisors alone bear the responsibility for ensuring that educators understand what is expected of them?

Shulman's (1993) interactional supervision model and Cottrell's (2001) clinical supervision contract place ultimate responsibility for clear communication on the supervisor, although each model implies that both members of the supervisory dyad have responsibility for working together to ensure that expectations are clear in order to achieve the goals of an institution. In the field of student affairs, Arminio and Creamer (2001) suggested that synergy between supervisor-employee is critical if supervision is to be effective and if professional excellence is to be achieved.

Perhaps supervision practice in the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education has simply been inadequately defined; a proposition which suggests the need for ongoing, clear, and open dialogue between both members of the supervisory dyad as well as increased efforts from university educators leaders to train supervisors and employees how to engage in the supervisory process. However researchers choose to address the topic of communication in the future, the study's findings, as well as the literature review, suggest the need for further discussion about how supervisors and educators can ensure that expectations are articulated clearly, are realistic, and aligned with what each expects from the other.

Discussion of Research Design

The researcher chose to use a qualitative design that would reflect the researcher's commitment to exploring and describing respondents' supervisory experiences rather than attempting to understand or demonstrate causal relationships between the dependent and independent variables addressed in this study. While patterns and relationships emerged, the researcher's intent was and continues to be one of maintaining a "descriptive focus on lived interactions of the human world" described by the respondents (Kvale, 1996, p. 135).

Limitations of Qualitative Methodology

One limitation of qualitative methodologies is that while they typically result in greater generalizability than do quantitative designs, findings are often vulnerable to greater subjectivity and are more easily affected by researcher bias (Schutt, 2001; Patton, 1990). A second limitation of qualitative research lies in the difficulty of interpreting contradictory and discrepant findings that emerge from the research (Maxwell, 1996). When respondents, at different stages in their career, provided responses that either supported or contradicted the supervision literature, it was impossible to determine the real sources of and reasons for why those similarities and contradictions took place.

A third limitation of qualitative research methods was the researcher's reliance on self-report measures and on respondent perceptions alone (Maxwell, 1996). Without supervisor input, and in acknowledgment of the aforementioned limitations, the overall results of this study must be viewed with caution.

Defining the Research Population

It was difficult to define the research population because many non-classroom, Jewish youth educators work in formal as well as informal settings and because of the diverse

areas and settings in which these educators work. The distinction between who classroom and non-classroom Jewish youth educators are is perhaps more easily understood when comparing synagogue educators with those who work in Jewish Community Center teen programs, non-denominational camping institutions, Bnai Brith Youth Organization, or Young Judaea. These educators, who have few classroom teaching responsibilities, are frequently referred to as informal Jewish educators.

To invite participation from educators who have responsibilities in classroom and non-classroom settings, the researcher defined the population in such a way that only excluded full-time classroom instructors and day school teachers. By excluding this group of Jewish educators, the researcher does not suggest that exploring how classroom instructors are supervised would yield unimportant information; rather, the researcher recognized formal Jewish education is a unique and distinct field of professional practice that benefits from decades of educational models of supervision (Zeldin, 1998). With its own theoretical foundation, a study of supervision in formal education settings should be conducted as a separate and distinct study.

While Chazan (2003) presented a theoretical foundation on which informal Jewish education (IJED) ought to be understood and practiced, the field of IJED does not have its own model of supervision practice. In addition, and through conversations with leading informal Jewish educators, it seems as though there is a lack of consensus regarding who non-classroom, Jewish youth educators are. In these informal discussions, leaders consistently identified the challenges of and mandate for the field of informal Jewish education to establish stronger professional standards, enhanced professional identity building efforts, and the need to build a grounded model of supervision, all of which

should be made in an effort to advance the field as a viable and relevant educational institution. Comments made by these leaders included, (a) informal Jewish education has insufficiently established itself as a distinct field of Jewish education, (b) informal Jewish education lacks the professional standards and academic criteria required of other formal classroom Jewish educational instruction, and (c) there is no such thing as an informal Jewish educator.

One way in which the researcher incorporated input from these educators was by employing sampling and data collection strategies that would be most appropriate for this study.

Limitations of Sampling Strategy

Purposeful sampling strategies, which target specific settings and populations, utilizing researcher expertise and experience are supported throughout qualitative research literature (Schutt, 2001; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Maxwell, 1996; Patton, 1990). However, a limitation of purposeful sampling strategies is that the findings from this study cannot be generalized to all non-classroom Jewish youth educators. One reason why the sample is considered unrepresentative is that it is possible that those who attended the NAA conference contributed different findings than educators who did not attend the conference would have contributed (Isaac & Michael, 1995). Supervision of these two types of educators might differ depending on a particular agency's (a) policy about offering professional development opportunities, or its (b) financial capacity to send educators to professional development conferences.

Because of these limitations, the researcher does not presume that the supervision experiences for the thousands of other educators were represented by the findings of this

study. Perhaps with unlimited time and resources, random sampling and extensive outreach would be a more viable option, but in the case of this study, findings generated from an unrepresentative sample should be viewed with caution.

Limitations of Instrument Design

Qualitative instruments are often lower in internal and external validity (Creswell, 2001), presenting another limitation of this study. The researcher designed the Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey (SSSS), adapted from the Supervision Satisfaction Questionnaire (SSQ; Ladany, Nutt & Hill, 1996), without going through the rigorous steps necessary to produce a truly valid research instrument. Despite this weakness, the process of constructing the SSSS included a search for existing supervision surveys that have demonstrated internal and external validity. This search resulted in finding different supervision satisfaction questionnaires at which point the researcher identified the SSQ as the template from which to create the SSSS, basing the decision on literature that demonstrates the SSQ's internal and external validity (Ladany, Ellis & Friedlander, 1999; Ladany & Friedlander, 1996).

Recommendations & Implications

In context of the current personnel crisis, and despite the literature that points to supervision as a critical component in delivering quality education and ensuring high job-satisfaction, why has the Jewish educational and communal establishment failed to truly explore how non-classroom, Jewish youth educators are supervised? The need for additional research on the experiences of these and other Jewish communal professionals has, however, been cited by a variety of Jewish communal leaders.

Recommendations for Future Research

Fishman et al. (1995), whose Wexner study explored the backgrounds, expectations, and experiences of Jewish communal leaders from a variety of settings, called for increased research in this area. Kelner (AGENDA, Spring 2004) also advocated for increased efforts to gather "critical system wide data about the state of the Jewish educational workforce" (p. 16). Without this type of data, Kelner (AGENDA, Spring 2004) wrote that the community is forced to rely on information "of varying quality, from instinct and anecdote to experience and inside expertise" (p. 16).

While there may be a need for research to explore the ways and extent to which income influences job satisfaction and retention of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, the researcher believes that it is unlikely that philanthropists will commit millions of dollars for higher salaries and that even this would not result in an end to the current personnel crisis. Although low income is cited as problematic throughout Jewish educational and communal literature, Riemer (AGENDA, Spring 2004) supported this claim, suggesting that income is not the sole reason why educators leave their jobs or choose different careers. Instead, future research might explore the academic and professional training and experience of these educators, where and in which type of settings they work, and for what areas of youth work, they are responsible.

In addition, future research might focus on supervisor or supervisor-employee perceptions, resulting in multiple sources of data which might provide a broader and more accurate picture of how non-classroom, Jewish youth educators are supervised. Studies, which employed multi-directional designs, have uncovered interesting phenomena regarding the extent to which both members of the supervisory dyad perceived the same

event in different ways (Ratliff et al., 2000; Deleon & Ewen, 1997; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994). Arminio and Creamer's (2001) study about quality supervision offers a different methodology whereby supervisors, identified by two or more colleagues as having exceptional supervisory skills, were invited to participate in in-depth interviews in order to describe the ways in which they practice supervision. Future research, therefore, might employ some type of in-depth interview inquiry of supervisors who are known to be particularly skilled.

What We Can Learn from Existing Supervision Literature

Riemer (AGENDA, Spring 2004) acknowledged that issues of recruitment and retention are "endemic to so many professions where you don't have high prestige or high compensation" (p. 6), yet he expressed disappointment that "we always seem to have this conversation just among ourselves, and don't find a way to broaden out and take in other input" (p. 6). Finkel (AGENDA, Spring 2004) echoed his concern, claiming that the field of Jewish education can,

> *can learn from other professionals, as Joe said, that are low status, low pay.....There are a lot of new nurses in the community because they had a terrible shortage and they began recruiting around the country, raised salary, and increased benefits for them. Is there some magic information we don't have outside of those tools? (p. 6).*

The researcher believes that drawing on the education, management, student affairs, and clinical supervision literature can serve as a response to Riemer and Finkel's concerns. Literature from these fields are clear about the impact of supervision on job-performance, job-satisfaction and turnover, constantly referring to the importance of

synergy, open communication, consistent and frequent interaction, articulation and clarification of goals and expectations, ongoing feedback and evaluation, and opportunities for professional development. While the content of supervision (e.g. what is discussed, what work is accomplished, what issues emerge) is likely to be different in different settings, the researcher believes that the non-classroom, Jewish education field can not ignore the fact that a diverse body of literature describes common elements that contribute to supervision quality and effectiveness, and ultimately, to enhanced job performance, satisfaction and retention?

In consideration of these similarities, and through a meaningful exploration into how they relate to supervision of non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, the responsibility for establishing a model of quality supervision must be accepted by leaders in the field. Perhaps such a model could pave the road as a benchmark of success in combating the current personnel crisis, something which Kelner (AGENDA, Spring 2004) describes as completely lacking in the Jewish educational system. The researcher believes that the field should utilize existing supervision models and research as a strategy with which to strengthen the field in general and more importantly, as a way of supporting and respecting both young and experienced educators, and ensuring a strong, vibrant Jewish future for our youth.

If the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education is unable to retain educators, and if those that stay are dissatisfied with their supervisory relationships, not only will the quality of programs and institutions suffer, but the target audience of Jewish youth will lack consistent Jewish role models and teachers to guide them throughout their development. If educators act as the movers and shakers of the most effective Jewish

identity-building mechanism for Jewish teenagers, efforts to support, enhance and retain them must accompany a more thoughtful effort to understand what they expect, how they are supported, and what it is that they need to effectively do their jobs. JESNA's Professional Recruitment, Development, Retention and Placement report underscored this mandate, indicating that only when the community acknowledges its educators as the true "centerpiece of the educational process", can it truly affect the lives of all those who benefit from Jewish education (p. 9).

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APPENDIX A

(Profile of Research Population)

Table A1 - Profile of P1 Job Titles

Advisor	Director of Children & Teen Services	Education Director	Regional Educator
Alumni Director	Director of Client Development	Executive Consultant	Senior Assistant Director
Area Coordinator	Director of Communications	Executive Director	Senior Executive Regional Director
Assistant Director	Director of Conferences	Executive Vice President	Senior Marketing Representative
Assistant Executive Director	Director of Development	Fellowship Coordinator	Senior Program Executive
Assistant Regional Director	Director of Education	Head of Educational Delegation	Senior Program Officer
Associate Director	Director of Education & Programming	Human Resource Director	Senior Regional Director
Associate Regional Director	Director of Education for Youth Movements and Students	International Director of Field Services	Senior Research Associate
Associate, Informal Education	Director of Informal Education	International Director of Leadership Programs	Shaliach
Associate, Israel Program Center	Director of Informal Education & High School Coordinator	Israel Coordinator	Site Director
Camp Director	Director of Israel Programs	Jewish Renaissance & Renewal	Staff Assistant
CEO	Director of Outreach & Education	Lead Community Educator	Student
City Director	Director of Recruitment Educators Program	Managing Editor	Teen Initiative Coordinator
Consultant	Director of Regional Programs	Merchav Manager	Tefilah Specialist
Consultant on Camping Services	Director of Secondary Education	Middle School Coordinator	Travel Director
Continental Shlicha	Director of Student Life	National Business Manager	Vice President
Coordinator	Director, American Programs	National Director	Vice President of Israel & Overseas
Coordinator of Experiential Education Program	Director, Group Service Programs	National Director, Co-Chair	Webmaster
Coordinator of Teen Education and Israel Trips	Director, Israel Programs	National Program Director	Year Course Director
Coordinator, Diller Teen Fellows	Director, Jewish Experience of Israel	North American Director	Youth Activities Director
Corporate & Personal Coach	Director, Jewish Service Corps	Outreach Coordinator	Youth Advisor
Council Director	Director, Summer Shlichim Program	Project Coordinator	Youth Department Coordinator
Director	Director, Division for Educational Programs	Rabbi	Youth Director
Director General	Director, Youth Initiatives	Recruiter	Youth Educator
Director of Admissions	District Manager	Regional Advisor	Youth Programs Coordinator
Director of Camping Services	Education Consultant, Global Programs	Regional Director	Youth Shlicha

Table A2 – Geographic Frequency Distribution of Top 80% of P1

State	Frequency	% of P1
New York	86	
California	29	8.05%
Maryland	29	8.05%
Massachusetts	25	6.94%
Florida	19	5.28%
Pennsylvania	18	5.00%
Illinois	15	4.17%
New Jersey	15	4.17%
Georgia	12	3.33%
Washington DC	10	2.78%
Michigan	10	2.78
Canada / Israel	10	2.78%
TOTAL	**N = 288**	**80% (100%)**

Table A3 – States (regions) in which the Remaining 20% of P1 Members Work

State (country)	Frequency	% of P1
Israel	10	12.20%
Texas	9	10.98%
Ohio	7	8.54%
Colorado	6	7.32%
Washington	6	7.32%
Kansas	5	6.10%
Missouri	4	4.88%
Wisconsin	4	4.88%
Arizona	3	3.66%
Connecticut	3	3.66%
Minnesota	3	3.66%
North Carolina	3	3.66%
Indianapolis	3	3.66%
Tennessee	3	3.66%
Mississippi	2	2.44%
Utah	2	2.44%
Virginia	2	2.44%
England	2	2.44%
Alabama	1	1.22%
Arkansas	1	1.22%
Louisiana	1	1.22%
New Hampshire	1	1.22%
South Carolina	1	1.22%
TOTAL	**N = 82**	**100%**

Table A4 – Institutional Distribution of P1

Agency	Frequency	% of P1
Bnai Brith Youth Organization (BBYO)	68	20%
Reform Youth Movement (URJ-NFTY)	32	10%
Federation & other philanthropic agencies	24	7%
URJ Camps	23	7%
Independent Youth Programs	23	7%
Synagogues	22	7%
Jewish Education Associations/Initiatives	20	6%
Zionist Orgs	20	6%
Zionist Youth Movements	20	6%
Ramah Camps	14	4%
Jewish Community Centers (JCC)	13	4%
Independent Camping organizations	13	4%
Camp Associations/Foundations	12	4%
JCC Camps	11	3%
University and Graduate Schools	10	3%
Zionist Camps	5	2%
Conservative Youth Movement	3	1%
Orthodox Youth Movement	2	1%
Totals	**N= 335**	**100%**

Table A6 – Denominational Distribution for P1

Agency	Frequency	% of P1
N-D	117	49.58%
Reform	55	72.88%
Zionist	45	91.95%
Conservative	17	99.15%
Orthodox	2	100.00%
Total	**N= 236**	**100.00%**

Table A5 – Distribution of Professional Affinity Groups

Professional Affinity	Frequency	% of P1
Year-Round Youth Programs	158	48.62%
Camping	100	30.77%
Israel Experience	40	12.31%
Community Initiatives	19	5.85%
University Programs	8	2.45%
Total	**N=325**	**100.00%**

APPENDIX B

(Informed Consent Form)

Informed Consent

The purpose of the Supervision Satisfaction and Status survey is to find out what non-classroom, Jewish youth educators expect from, as well as how they describe, the **frequency** (over a given amount of time), **consistency** (regularity), **content** (topics discussed), **style** (managerial, communication), and **dynamics** (interpersonal relationship with supervisor) of their current supervisory experience.

Procedure

- I will distribute surveys to various individuals, agencies, and professional networks within the field of non-classroom, Jewish youth education.
- In the analysis phase, the researcher will reflect on how survey responses either correspond with, or contradict what other professional and research fields (business, education, social services, psychology, and medicine) recommend as "best practices in supervision".
- The researcher is committed to providing you with the privacy and confidentiality to which you are entitled as a voluntary participant in a research project. To ensure your confidentiality, you do not need to provide any information on the survey that might reveal your identity. The researcher will identify each completed survey by the 'Respondent Number' provided at the top of each page. Lastly, all results will be reported in the aggregate, concealing the identity of the individual respondent's workplace.
- Survey results and recommendations will be organized into a comprehensive thesis for Hebrew Union College's School of Jewish Communal Service. The researcher also intends to publish the completed thesis, disseminating it to Jewish youth education professionals, researchers, and agencies.
- The researcher is available to answer any questions or concerns that may arise at any time before or after completing the survey (researcher contact information provided below).
- If you wish, you may receive a copy of the completed survey for review before the process of data analysis. Upon request, you may have a copy of the completed research.
- **Your initials and signatures below indicate that you voluntarily agree to participate in this research and that you understand the information in this consent form.**

I give consent for the release of any findings, resulting from the analysis of my completed survey, to be used in the final version of the researcher's thesis.

Please Check Your Response	Yes	No	Please initial _____

SIGNATURE _____ **DATE** _____

Researcher: Michael Jeser, 310-770-0585, mjeser@yahoo.com

APPENDIX C

(Supervision Status & Satisfaction Survey)

Page 1 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID : _____ **DATE:**_____	

Please Respond to Questions 1-29 by
Clicking on and Placing a Bolded "X" in the Appropriate Box
or by Filling in the Appropriate Answer

1. You are a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator at a… ☐ Synagogue: (city, state)_____ (Denomination)_____ ☐ Jewish Community Center: (city, State) _____ ☐ Zionist youth group organization: (name, city, state)_____ ☐ Non-denominational youth group organization: (name, city, state)_____ ☐ Jewish camping organization: (name, city, state)_____ ☐ Another Institution: (Name)_____(city, state)_____	
6. How old are you as of today _____(D/O/B)_____	
7. What is the highest academic degree you have received? ☐ Bachelors ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate ☐ Other (please explain):_____ School where highest degree was received (name, city, state) _____ Date highest degree was received (mo/yr) _____ Specific title of highest degree received (E.g., BA Psych, MBA, MSW, etc...)_____	
8. How many hours per week, if at all, do you engage in formal classroom teaching? _____	
9. If at all, what percent of your job is dedicated to classroom Jewish youth education? ☐ 0-25% ☐ 26-50% ☐ 51-75% ☐ 76-100%	
10. As of today, how long have you been a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator in your current place of employment? ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-4 years ☐ 5 + years	
11. Have you held any other positions as a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator? ☐Yes ☐No (If "No", skip to Question #10)	**Continue...**

Page 2 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID: _____ **DATE:** _____	
12. How long did you work at your last non-classroom, Jewish youth education job? ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-4 years ☐ 5 + years	
13. As of today, how many combined years have you worked as a non-classroom, Jewish youth educator? ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-4 years ☐ 5 + years	
14. What are your primary job responsibilities? **Please place bolded "X" in all boxes that apply.** ☐ Synagogue Religious School Administration ☐ Teen programming ☐ Day Camp Programming ☐ Day Camp Administration ☐ Overnight / Resident Camp Programming ☐ Overnight / Resident Camp Administration ☐ Youth Group Advising ☐ Teen/Youth Outreach ☐ Other (Describe): _____	
11. Do you currently have a designated supervisor? ☐ Yes ☐ No (If "No", please do not continue with this survey)	
12. Overall, to what extent are you satisfied with the supervision you are getting? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
13. How many hours of supervision do you generally receive each month? _____	
14. On average, how long does a supervision meeting last? ☐ less than 30 minutes ☐ 30-60 minutes ☐ 61-90 minutes ☐ more than 90 minutes	
15. On average, how frequently do you receive supervision? 4 ☐ Daily 3 ☐ Weekly 2 ☐ Bi-monthly 1 ☐ Monthly	Continue...

Page 3 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID: _____ **DATE:** _____	
16. To what extent are you satisfied with the frequency of supervision you have received? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
17. Do you receive supervision on a consistent/regular schedule? (e.g. Tuesdays @ 9:00am; 1st and 3rd Wednesday of every month @ 2:00pm) ☐Yes ☐No	
18. To what extent are you satisfied with the consistency/regularity of supervisory meetings? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
19. To what extent are you satisfied with the overall amount of supervision you have received? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
20. To what extent do you feel you need supervision to effectively do your job? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
21. To what extent, if given the choice today, would you continue to work with the same supervisor? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
22. To what extent does your supervisor allow you to work independently? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
23. To what extent do you feel confident in working independently? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
24. To what extent does your supervisor make him/herself available to you when you need help? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
25. To what extent do you feel comfortable approaching your supervisor for guidance? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
26. To what extent do you feel your supervisor is committed to your professional growth? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	**Continue...**

Page 4 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID: _____ **DATE:** _____	
27. To what extent do you view your supervisor as an expert in non-classroom, Jewish youth education? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
28. To what extent do you feel your supervisory experience influences your overall job-performance? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
29. To what extent do you feel your supervisory experience influences your overall job-satisfaction? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	

Please Respond to Questions 30-34, which ask about
Your Supervisor's Expectations, regarding Your Job Performance
(E.g. quality of programs, # of youth engaged, meeting deadlines, etc...)

30. In general, do you feel your supervisor communicates what he/she expects from you in terms of your overall job performance? ☐Yes ☐No	
31. To what extent do you feel your supervisor clearly articulates these expectations? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
32. To what extent do you feel your supervisor's expectations are realistic? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
33. To what extent do you feel you meet these expectations? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
34. To what extent do you feel you and your supervisor share similar expectations in this regard? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	

Please answer questions 35-39, which ask about
Your Supervisor's Expectations, regarding Your Responsibilities In The Supervisory Process
(E.g., who sets the supervision agenda, who drives supervision meetings, who establishes program goals, etc... ?)

35. In general, do you feel your supervisor communicates what he/she expects from you in terms of your responsibilities in the supervisory process? ☐Yes ☐No	**Continue...**

Page 5 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID: _____ **DATE:** _____	
36. To what extent do you feel your supervisor clearly articulates these expectations? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
37. To what extent do you feel your supervisor's expectations are realistic? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
38. To what extent do you feel you meet these expectations? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
39. To what extent do you feel you and your supervisor share similar expectations in this regard? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	

Please answer questions 40-44, which ask about
<u>Your Expectations</u>, regarding Your <u>Supervisor's Responsibilities in the Supervisory Process</u>
(E.g., supervisor feedback; supervisor as a teacher, supervisor should address programmatic successes/shortcomings; supervisor initiated discussion about supervisee's professional goals and experiences, supervisor sets the agenda, etc...)

40. In general, do you communicate <u>what you expect from your supervisor</u> in terms of his/her responsibilities in the supervisory process? ☐Yes ☐No	
41. To what extent do you feel you clearly articulate these expectations to your supervisor? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
42. To what extent do you feel these expectations are realistic? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
43. To what extent do you feel your supervisor meets these expectations? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	
44. To what extent do you and your supervisor share similar expectations in this regard? 5 ☐ To the full extent 4 ☐ To a great extent 3 ☐ To some extent 2 ☐ To very little extent 1 ☐ To no extent at all	**Continue...**

Page 6 of 6	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA
RESPONDENT ID: _____ **DATE:**_____	

Please Answer Questions 45-48 to the Best of Your Ability

45. In terms of providing high quality supervision, what advice would you give to any supervisor that works with Jewish educators?

46. Describe what you feel your supervisor's greatest strengths are.

47. What aspects of supervision do feel are the most important in helping you do your job?

48. In what ways, if any, could your supervisor help you to be a more successful non-classroom, Jewish youth educator?

End!

APPENDIX D

(Outreach Letter, Invitation to Participate)

December, 2003

Dear 2004 NAA Conference Registrants and Jewish Youth Educators,

My name is Michael Jeser, and I am currently working on a Masters thesis for Hebrew Union College's School of Jewish Communal Service. The purpose of this letter is to invite you to participate in my thesis research study:

Exploring the Supervisory Experiences
Of Non-Classroom, Jewish Youth Educators

What I am Studying

Through survey research, I am exploring what non-class-room, Jewish youth educators expect from, as well as how they describe the **frequency**, **consistency**, and **dynamics** of their current supervisory experience. Once I finish gathering interview and survey data, I will reflect on how responses either correspond with, or contradict, what other fields (business, education, social services, psychology, and medicine) recommend as 'best practices' in supervision.

How You Can Help?

I am looking for non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, willing to participate in the study during this year's NAA Conference in Florida. I hope you will take a few moments to complete the 'Supervision Satisfaction and Status Survey', which will be made available to all NAA participants at the conference itself.

If you have any questions, if you would like learn more about my research, please contact me anytime before the conference. I can be reached at **(310) 770-0585**, or by e-mail at **mjeser@yahoo.com**.

Thank you in advance and I look forward to seeing many of you in Florida! Chag Sameach.

Regards,

Michael L. Jeser

MSW & MAJCS Candidate, May 2004
Hebrew Union College School of Jewish Communal Service
University of Southern California School of Social Work

APPENDIX E

(Post-NAA Conference Outreach Letter)

January 10, 2004

Attention all Participants from the 2004 NAA Conference,

I want to thank all the non-classroom, Jewish youth educators who were able to complete my thesis supervision survey during last week's NAA conference. Your input will be invaluable.

For those who were unable, but still interested in participating, I've attached the 'Supervision Status and Satisfaction Survey' below. Simply open up and fill out the survey (instructions on document), save on your computer, and e-mail as an attachment directly to me by January 26th 2004.

Attached to this e-mail, you will also find an Informed Consent document. This document explains, in greater detail, my research procedures, how I plan to use survey data, and guarantees your confidentiality. You can type your initials and name on the appropriate signature lines provided on the form, and e-mail to me along with your completed survey by January 26th 2004.

My e-mail address is mjeser@yahoo.com

Should you have any questions or concerns about how to fill out or send the survey, do not hesitate to contact me at this e-mail address, or by phone at **310-770-0585** at any time. Thank you again for your contribution to my thesis research and I hope to hear from you soon.

Regards,

Michael L. Jeser

MSW & MAJCS Candidate, May 2004
Hebrew Union College School of Jewish Communal Service
University of Southern California School of Social Work

APPENDIX F

(Participation Letter to Snowball Sample)

February 5, 2004

Dear Non-Classroom Jewish Youth Educator,

My name is Michael Jeser, and I am currently working on a Masters thesis for Hebrew Union College's School of Jewish Communal Service. The purpose of this letter is to solicit your participation in my thesis research study:

Exploring the Supervisory Experiences Of Non-Classroom, Jewish Youth Educators

What I am Studying

Through survey research, I am exploring what non-class-room, Jewish youth educators expect from, as well as how they describe the **frequency**, **consistency**, and **dynamics** of their current supervisory experience. Once I finish data collection is complete, I will reflect on how responses either correspond with, or contradict, what other fields recommend as "best practices in supervision".

Eligible Research Participants

Eligible participants must be full or part time non-classroom, Jewish youth educators, working in settings that include, but are not limited to:

- Synagogue youth groups and youth movements
- Day/Overnight Camp Institutions
- Israel experience programs
- Jewish Community Center Teen and Camp Programs
- Non-denominational or Zionist youth organizations (YJ, BBYO, Habonim, etc...)

Ways To Participate

If you would like to participate, and if you meet the above criteria, simply fill out and return the enclosed 'Supervision Satisfaction and Status Survey', along with the enclosed 'Informed Consent' document to me by **Wednesday, February 18th**. For your convenience, I have also enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope this mailing for your convenience.

I am happy to answer any questions you may have regarding my research, so please feel free to contact me at any time. I can be reached at **(310)-770-0585**, or by e-mail at **mjeser@yahoo.com**. Thank you in advance and I look forward hearing your feedback.

Sincerely,

Michael L. Jeser

MAJCS & MSW Candidate, 2004
Hebrew Union College – School of Jewish Communal Service
University of Southern California School of Social Work