



City Research Online

City St George's, University of London

Citation: Wood, J. (2007). Methods of reflective practice. (Unpublished Doctoral thesis, City University London)

This is the accepted version of the paper.

This version of the publication may differ from the final published version. To cite this item please consult the publisher's version.

Permanent repository link: <https://city-ref-test.eprints-hosting.org/id/eprint/8573/>

Copyright and Reuse: Copyright and Moral Rights remain with the author(s) and/or copyright holders. Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, unless otherwise indicated, provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way. For full details of reuse please refer to [City Research Online policy](#).

Methods of Reflective Practice

Joanne Wood

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Psychology**

City University
Department of Psychology

July, 2007

Table of Contents

Index of Appendices.....	9
List of Figures/Tables.....	10
Acknowledgements.....	13
Declaration.....	14
Abstract.....	15

SECTION A: PREFACE

1.1 Overview.....	17
1.2 Research.....	18
1.3 Professional Component.....	19
1.4 Critical Literature Review.....	20
1.5 Summary and Conclusion.....	20

SECTION B: RESEARCH

Reflection within supervision: Exploring the impact of a perceived supportive supervisory environment on the initiation of the reflective process

Chapter 1

Integrating Reflective Practice: A Review of the Reflection Literatures

1.1 Introduction.....	23
1.2 Philosophical Background.....	26
1.2.1 Dewey.....	27
1.2.2 Jürgen Habermas.....	28
1.3 The Role of Reflection in the Learning Process.....	30
1.3.1 Experiential Learning.....	30
1.3.2 Levels of Learning Theories.....	31
1.4 The Development of Reflective Thinking – Developmental Stage Theories of Reflection.....	33
1.5 Schön’s Reflective Practitioner.....	34
1.6 Applying Reflective Practice to the Professions.....	38
1.7 Levels of Reflective Practice.....	39
1.8 The Process of Reflection – Stages of the Reflective Process.....	41
1.9 The Need for Structure – Encouraging the Reflective Process.....	42

1.10	Developing Reflective Practice – Individual and Environmental Conditions.....	43
1.10.1	Individual Pre-requisites of Reflection.....	43
1.10.2	Environmental Conditions of Reflection.....	44
1.10.2.1	A Question of Time.....	44
1.10.2.2	Facilitating Reflection.....	44
1.10.2.3	Reflection and a Supportive Environment.....	46
1.11	Therapist/Counsellor Development – Developmental Models.....	48
1.12	Reflection and Therapist/Counsellor Development.....	49
1.12.1	The Skovholt and Rønnestad Study.....	50
1.12.2	Reflection and the Role of Supervision.....	52
1.12.3	Reflection and a Supportive Supervisory Relationship.....	53
1.12.4	Triggers of the Reflective Practice in Supervision.....	55
1.13	Consolidating the Reflection Literatures.....	56
1.14	The Current Study.....	58
1.15	The Research Objectives/Hypotheses.....	60
1.16	Explanation of the Study Structure.....	61

Chapter 2

Developing a Measure of Reflection –What do counselling psychology trainees reflect on in supervision?

2.1	Aim.....	62
2.2	Methodology and Rationale.....	62
2.3	Design.....	63
2.3.1	Semi-structured Interviews.....	63
2.3.2	Participant Sample.....	63
2.4	Procedure.....	65
2.4.1	Ethical Approval.....	65
2.4.2	Recruitment of Participants.....	65
2.4.3	The Coding Frame and Codebook.....	65
2.4.4	Data Collection.....	66
2.4.5	Data Analysis.....	66
2.4.5.1	Data Sampling.....	66
2.4.5.2	Units of Analysis.....	66

2.4.5.3	Independent Coders.....	67
2.4.5.4	Training.....	67
2.4.5.5	Organisation of Data.....	68
2.4.5.6	Pilot Study of Coding Frame.....	68
2.4.5.7	The Coding.....	69
2.4.5.8	Final Reliability Sample.....	69
2.4.5.9	Procedure of Independent Coders.....	69
2.5	Results.....	70
2.5.1	Objective 1.....	70
2.5.1.1	Negative Views of the Supervisor.....	70
2.5.1.2	Personal Issues.....	72
2.5.1.3	Clinical Mistakes.....	73
2.5.1.4	Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee.....	74
2.5.1.5	Evaluation Concerns.....	76
2.5.1.6	Client Work Concerns.....	76
2.5.1.7	Negative Reactions to the Client.....	79
2.5.1.8	Supervisor/Supervisee Attraction Issues.....	81
2.5.1.9	Client Behaviours.....	81
2.5.1.10	Countertransference.....	82
2.5.1.11	Client/Counsellor Attraction Issues.....	83
2.5.1.12	Positive Reactions to the Supervisor.....	85
2.5.1.13	Supervision Setting Concerns.....	85
2.5.1.14	Placement Setting Concerns.....	87
2.5.1.15	Positive Feelings about the Client.....	88
2.6	Reliability of Coding Frame.....	90
2.7	Questionnaire Development.....	90
2.7.1	Item Construction.....	90
2.7.2	Questionnaire Instructions.....	92
2.7.3	Pilot.....	92
2.7.4	Reliability and Validity Testing.....	92

Chapter 3

How important is the perception of a supportive supervisory environment to the initiation of the reflective process?

3.1	Aim.....	93
3.2	Methodology and Rationale.....	93
3.3	Design.....	94
3.3.1	Power Analysis.....	94
3.3.2	Actual Sample.....	95
3.3.3	Sample Demographics.....	95
3.4	Instruments.....	98
3.4.1	Demographics Information Sheet.....	98
3.4.2	The Revised Relationship Inventory (RRI).....	98
3.4.2.1	Regard.....	100
3.4.2.2	Empathic Understanding.....	100
3.4.2.3	Unconditionality.....	100
3.4.2.4	Congruence.....	101
3.4.2.5	Willingness to be Known.....	101
3.4.2.6	Inventory Instructions.....	102
3.4.3	The Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI).....	103
3.4.3.1	Role Conflict.....	103
3.4.3.2	Role Ambiguity.....	104
3.4.3.3	Inventory Instructions.....	105
3.5	Procedure.....	105
3.5.1	Confidentiality.....	106
3.6	Statistical Testing.....	107
3.6.1	Suitability of Data.....	107
3.6.2	Analysis of Research Hypotheses.....	109
3.6.2.1	Research Hypothesis 1.....	109
3.6.2.2	Research Hypothesis 2.....	109
3.6.2.3	Research Hypothesis 3.....	110
3.6.2.4	Research Hypothesis 4.....	110
3.7	Results.....	111
3.8	Further Development of DISQ.....	111

3.8.1	Overall Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ.....	111
3.8.2	Principal Components Analysis of DISQ.....	112
3.8.3	Reliability of DISQ.....	117
3.9	Reliability and Correlations of RRI and RCRAI.....	117
3.10	Principal Components Analysis of RRI and RCRAI.....	119
3.10.1	PCA of RRI.....	119
3.10.2	PCA of RCRAI.....	120
3.11	Hypothesis Testing.....	124
3.11.1	Hypothesis 1.....	124
3.11.1.1	Descriptive Statistics.....	124
3.11.1.2	Inferential Statistics.....	124
3.11.2	Hypothesis 2.....	125
3.11.2.1	Descriptive Statistics.....	125
3.11.2.2	Inferential Statistics.....	126
3.11.3	Hypothesis 3.....	127
3.11.3.1	Year of Training - Descriptive Statistics.....	127
3.11.3.2	Year of Training - Inferential Statistics.....	128
3.11.3.3	Counselling Experience – Descriptive Statistics.....	129
3.11.3.4	Counselling Experience – Inferential Statistics.....	131
3.11.3.5	Supervision Experience of Trainee – Descriptive Statistics.....	132
3.11.3.6	Supervision Experience of Trainee – Inferential Statistics.....	133
3.11.4	Hypothesis 4.....	135
3.11.4.1	Multiple Regression 1.....	135
3.11.4.2	Multiple Regression 2.....	137
3.11.4.3	Multiple Regression 3.....	138
3.11.4.4	Multiple Regression 4.....	139
3.11.4.5	Multiple Regression 5.....	140
3.11.4.6	Multiple Regression 6.....	141
3.12	Summary of Research Findings.....	142

Chapter 4

Discussion

4.1 Introduction..... 144

4.2 Overview of Research Findings..... 144

4.3 Interpretations of Findings and Research Findings..... 145

 4.3.1 Objective 1..... 146

 4.3.2 Hypothesis 1..... 149

 4.3.3 Hypothesis 2..... 151

 4.3.4 Hypothesis 3..... 152

 4.3.5 Hypothesis 4..... 155

4.4 Limitations of the Study..... 157

 4.4.1 The Sample..... 157

 4.4.2 Methodological Considerations..... 158

4.5 Implications for Professional Practice..... 159

4.6 Conclusion..... 160

References..... 162

SECTION C: PROFESSIONAL COMPONENT

Reflecting on a Trainee’s Levels of Reflection: A Case Study

1.1 Introduction to the Case Study..... 184

2.0 Section A - Introduction and the Start of Therapy..... 186

2.1 Introduction..... 186

2.2 Summary of the Theoretical Orientation..... 186

2.3 Context of the Work and the Referral..... 187

2.4 The Assessment Session..... 187

2.5 The Client’s Definition of the Problem..... 188

2.6 Initial Assessment/Formulation of the Problem..... 189

2.7 Decision to use CBT..... 191

2.8 The Contract and Therapeutic Aims..... 192

2.9 Summary Biographical Details of the Client..... 192

2.10 Reflective Commentary..... 192

3.0 Section B – Development of Therapy..... 193

3.1 The Therapeutic Plan and Main Techniques Used..... 193

3.2	Emerging Recurrent Themes.....	195
3.2.1	Dependency.....	195
3.2.2	Autonomy and Control.....	196
3.2.3	Difficulties and Making Use of Supervision.....	197
3.4	Reflective Commentary.....	198
4.0	Section C – Review.....	199
4.1	The Future.....	199
4.2	What you have learnt about psychotherapeutic practice and theory.....	199
4.3	Learning from the case about yourself as a trainee Therapist.....	201
4.4	Reflective Commentary.....	201
4.5	Conclusion and Comments.....	202
	References.....	204

SECTION D: CRITICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing with Reflective Ink: A critical review of the journal literature

1.1	Abstract.....	210
1.2	Introduction.....	210
1.3	Defining the Written Journal.....	212
1.4	Journals and Critical Reflection.....	213
1.5	The Journal Writing Process.....	214
1.6	Journal Structure.....	215
1.7	Journal Feedback.....	218
1.8	Journals and Trust.....	220
1.9	Journals and Assessment.....	221
1.9.1	Assessing Students' Levels of Reflection.....	222
1.9.2	Evaluating Journals.....	224
1.10	Journals and Development.....	225
1.10.1	Promoting Reflective Thinking.....	225
1.10.2	Developing Metacognition and Critical Thinking.....	227
1.10.3	Attaining Learning Goals.....	228
1.11	Discussion and Recommendations.....	230
	References.....	233

Index of Appendices

Appendix A	Ethical Approval from City University.....	242
Appendix B	Codebooks and Coding Form.....	243
Appendix C	Interview Script/Prompt.....	244
Appendix D	Information and Consent Forms.....	245
Appendix E	Demographics Information Sheets.....	246
Appendix F	Coder Instruction Sheet.....	247
Appendix G	Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire (DISQ).....	248
Appendix H	Permission to use Revised Relationship Inventory (RRI).....	249
Appendix I	Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI).....	250
Appendix J	Recruitment of Participants Correspondence.....	251
Appendix K	Case Study Graded Hierarchy.....	252
Appendix L	Critical Literature Review Summary.....	253

List of Figures/Tables

Figure 1	Neufeldt et al Model (1996) of Reflection in Supervision.....	58
Table 1	Cohen's kappa Statistic for the Independent Coding of Interview Data.....	90
Table 2	Age Range of Participants.....	95
Table 3	Participants by Year of Training.....	96
Table 4	Participants by Gender.....	96
Table 5	Highest Qualification of Participant.....	96
Table 6	Counselling Experience of Participant.....	97
Table 7	Supervision Experience of Participant.....	97
Table 8	Theoretical Orientation of Supervisor.....	97
Table 9	Ethnicity of Participant.....	98
Table 10	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for DISQ.....	111
Table 11	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for DISQ Items.....	112
Table 12	Comparison of PCA Eigenvalues with Corresponding Parallel Analysis Criterion Values.....	114
Table 13	Direct Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solutions for DISQ Items – Pattern Matrix.....	115
Table 14	Direct Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solutions for DISQ Items – Structure Matrix.....	116
Table 15	Cronbach Alpha Reliability of DISQ Total and Subscales.....	117
Table 16	Cronbach Alpha Reliability of RRI Total and Subscales.....	118
Table 17	Cronbach Alpha Reliability of RCRAI Total and Subscales.....	118
Table 18	Split-half Reliability Statistics for RRI and RCRAI.....	119
Table 19	Component Structure of RRI Items for Current Sample.....	122
Table 20	Component Structure of RCRAI Items for Current Sample.....	123
Table 21	Mean, Standard Deviation and Score Range for RRI.....	124
Table 22	Pearson Correlation Coefficients for DISQ and RRI.....	125
Table 23	Mean, Standard Deviation and Score Range for RCRAI.....	125
Table 24	Pearson Correlation Coefficients for DISQ and RCRAI.....	126
Table 25	Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Year of Training	127

Table 26	Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Year of Training	128
Table 27	Analyses of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Year of Training.....	129
Table 28	Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Year of Training.....	129
Table 29	Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Counselling Experience of Trainee.....	130
Table 30	Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Counselling Experience of Trainee.....	130
Table 31	Analyses of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Counselling Experience of Trainee.....	131
Table 32	Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Counselling Experience of Trainee.....	131
Table 33	Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Supervision Experience of Trainee.....	132
Table 34	Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Supervision Experience of Trainee.....	133
Table 35	Analyses of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Supervision Experience of Trainee.....	134
Table 36	Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Supervision Experience of Trainee.....	134
Table 37	Multiple Regression Analysis 1 – Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on Willingness to Disclose	135
Table 38	Multiple Regression Analysis 2 – Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Counsellor/Counselling Issues/Concerns.....	137
Table 39	Multiple Regression Analysis 3 – Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Supervisor/Supervisory Issues/Concerns.....	138

Table 40	Multiple Regression Analysis 4 – Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose	139
Table 41	Multiple Regression Analysis 5 – Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Counsellor/Counselling Issues/Concerns.....	140
Table 42	Multiple Regression Analysis 6 – Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Supervisor/Supervisory Issues/Concerns.....	141

Acknowledgements

There are a number of people I would like to thank for their input in assisting me in the development and completion of this portfolio. These include Dr James Hampton, who gave me some initial guidance regarding my research, Dr Barrett-Lennard and Dr Anita Schacht both of whom gave me permission to use their questionnaires in my study and the statistician, Russell Ecob, who validated my statistical analysis. I would also like to publicly thank Dr Malcolm Cross who has provided me with some excellent support and feedback as my research supervisor over the last three years.

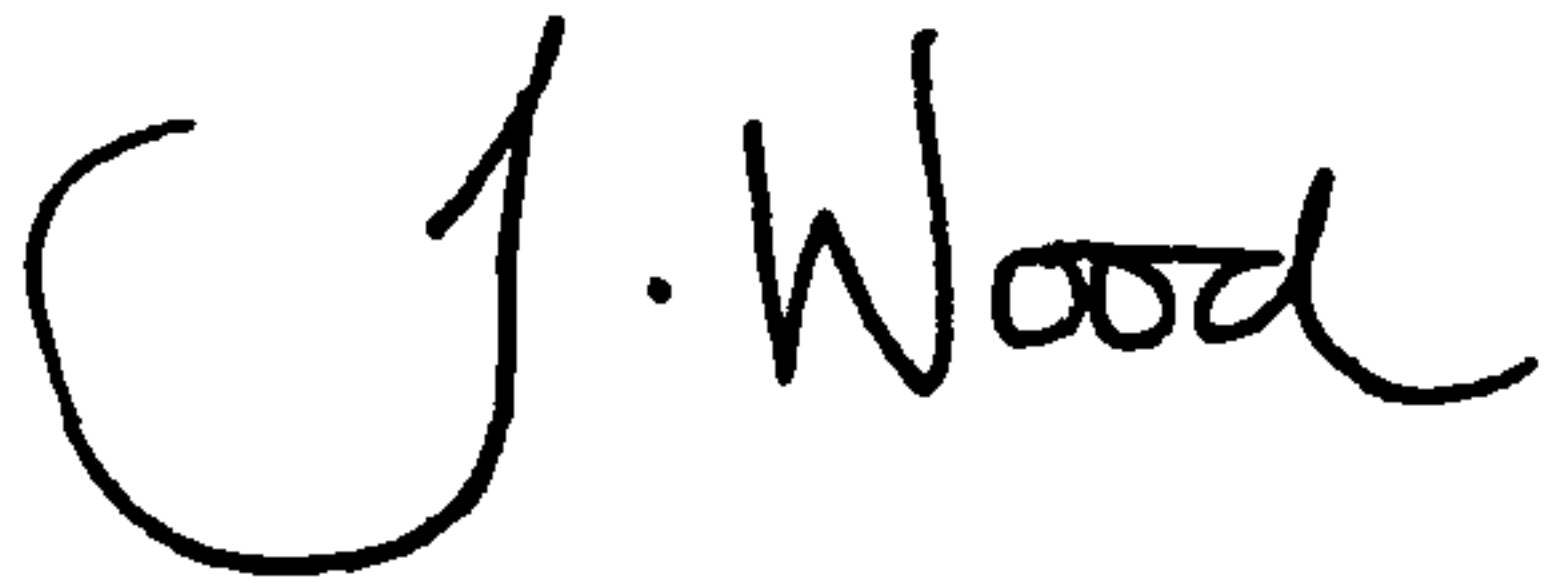
I am also indebted to the extremely helpful course directors from the eight professional counselling psychology training courses, who allowed me to recruit participants from their student cohorts and the participants themselves who gave up their valuable time to take part in my study.

During the last three years, I have also been supported by my fellow DPsych student, Nadia Kolonia. The sharing of our experiences and frustrations and mutual encouragement has ensured that the process of research has not been one of solitary isolation and has been a crucial factor in the completion of my work in such a timely fashion.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their patience and endurance in coping both with a wife and mother who has spent the last ten years in a continual state of studying.

Declaration

I grant powers of discretion to the City University librarian to allow this thesis to be copied in whole or in part without further reference to me. This permission covers only single copies made for study purposes, subject to the normal conditions of acknowledgement.

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "J. Wood". The letter "J" is large and stylized, with a long horizontal stroke extending to the right. The name "Wood" is written in a cursive script.

Joanne Wood

Abstract

Background: Acknowledging that reflecting on experience is a necessary, but potentially difficult process for the neophyte professional, due to the need to disclose potentially complex issues and concerns, the reflection literatures argue that this process requires the trainee to reflect within a supportive environment. This study considers this under-researched condition of reflection within counsellor/therapist supervision. Utilising the model of reflectivity in supervision produced by Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson (1996) and the wider reflection literature, the main aim of this study was to consider the impact of the perception of a supportive supervisory environment on the willingness to disclose issues and concerns in order to initiate the reflective process.

Method/Analysis: Employing a mixed methodology, in Part 1 of the study 15 participants (consisting of counselling psychology trainees, newly qualified counselling psychologists and supervisors) were interviewed to ascertain the types of issues and concerns disclosed in supervision in order to begin the reflective process. These semi-structured interviews were transcribed and analysed using a content analysis methodology. Results of the coding exercise were subject to inter-rater reliability testing using Cohen's kappa. The themes validated in the study provided the basis for the development of the Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire (DISQ). In Part 2 of the study, a cross-section of 123 counselling psychology trainees from seven counselling psychology programmes were asked to complete the Revised Relationship Inventory (Schacht, Howe and Berman, 1988), the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (Olk and Friedlander, 1992), the DISQ and a short demographics information sheet. In terms of the statistical analysis, the data was explored and transformed to provide normal or near-normal distributions. The validity and reliability of all the measures were tested using principal components analyses, Cronbach alphas and split-half reliabilities. Once validity and reliability had been ascertained, the study's hypotheses were tested using Pearson correlation coefficients, ANOVA and a series of standard multiple regressions.

Results/Conclusion: The findings suggest that the perception of a supportive supervisory environment as defined in the study does impact on the initiation of the reflective process. More specifically, a significant positive relationship was found between the perception of the supervisor demonstrating the facilitative conditions and a willingness to disclose and a significant negative relationship was found between this willingness to begin the reflective process and a perceived ambiguity and/or conflict involving the roles and expectations of supervision. The experience of the trainee had a negligible impact on these findings. In terms of the predictive nature of the different aspects of a supportive supervisory environment, the facilitative conditions provided the strongest predictor. However, it is evident that although a supportive supervisory environment is important, other elements of the supervisory environment may also impact on the reflective process. These elements and suggestions for further research are discussed.

SECTION A - PREFACE

Preface

1.1 SECTION A: OVERVIEW

The central theme of this portfolio is the promotion of reflective practice through methods of reflection. My interest in this area began when as a trainee counselling psychologist I encountered the concepts of both reflective practice and the reflective practitioner. Discussed by the Division of Counselling Psychology as central to the training and development of counselling psychologists (British Psychological Society, 2006), I was eager to understand more about these concepts and how they applied to my own development. However, on reviewing the available literature, I was to be faced with a complex and rather ambiguous picture lacking in homogeneous definitions and applied studies. Despite the emphasis on reflective practice, the contributions of counselling psychology and other therapeutic professions in the UK to the reflection literature, is limited. Although greater interest is shown in the US counselling and therapy fields, which revolve specifically around the role that supervision plays in the reflective process, the majority of the literature remains heavily reliant on contributions from education, nursing and other allied health professionals. It also became apparent that there is much unacknowledged overlap between these specific and general reflection literatures and that both tend to take more of a theoretical as opposed to an empirical stance.

My motivation in producing this portfolio is twofold. Firstly, I wanted to understand the concept of reflective practice and to establish how in practical terms it relates to the training and development of trainee counselling psychologists and in doing so, to integrate the general and more specific reflection literatures. Further to this, from a pragmatic standpoint, I feel strongly

that a psychologist working in an applied field should not blindly accept hypothetical assumptions and has a responsibility to attempt to apply and empirically test elements of the theoretical literature. Whilst reflective practice intuitively makes sense, it is essentially a theoretical concept and there have been relatively few attempts at its practical application.

With this in mind, this thesis focuses on three methods of reflection, which are viewed as means of promoting and encouraging the trainee to reflect on practice, all of which are essential elements of professional counselling psychology training. In the research component, the researcher considers the method of supervision. This research focuses on the impact of a perceived supportive supervision environment on the willingness of the counselling psychology trainee to begin the reflective process. The second method of reflection is a case study. In this case study, utilising a theory of reflection, the researcher reflects on her own reflections produced as a first year counselling psychology trainee. Finally, there is a critical review of journal writing, another potential method of reflection. This review of the literature considers the practical elements of journal writing as well as the extent to which journal writing promotes student reflection. An overview of each section is described below.

1.2 SECTION B: RESEARCH

The research component considers the impact of the perception of a supportive supervision environment on the willingness of the counselling psychology trainee to begin the reflective process. Based on a number of mainly theoretical discussions in both the specific and general reflection literatures

(Boud and Walker, 1993; Francis, 1985; Ward and House, 1998 etc.), and a linear model of reflectivity in supervision (Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson, 1996), supportive supervision is described as an important environmental condition on the process of reflection and is identified both in terms of the trainee's perception of the facilitative conditions and where the roles and expectations of supervision are clearly defined.

Comprising of two parts, Part 1 of the study is qualitative. This study aims to explore the types of problems and concerns that trainee counselling psychologists take to supervision in order to begin the reflective process. In the absence of any existing reflection measures, these findings were then used to develop the Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire (DISQ), which measures the beginning of the process of reflection in supervision.

Part 2 of the study takes a quantitative approach and uses the DISQ and a number of questionnaires to consider the extent to which supportive supervision impacts on the initiation of the reflective process, the influence of any mediating variables relating to trainee experience and the degree to which the questionnaires measuring supportive supervision are able to predict the initiation of trainee reflection.

1.3 SECTION C: PROFESSIONAL COMPONENT

In this section, a case study is presented in which I reflect upon my own reflections made as a first year counselling psychology trainee working with a client presenting with panic and agoraphobia. A number of reflection theories exist in the literature which argue that reflection can be identified at a number of

different levels, from the descriptive to the critical. To test this premise, the Hatton and Smith (1995) theory of reflection is applied to the original case study, in order to analyse the levels of reflection made in discussing my work with the client. This analysis takes the form of reflective commentaries, which follow the three main sections of the study. The report concludes by reviewing the levels of reflection attained and considers both the process of applying the model and the usefulness of the case study as a method of reflection.

1.4 SECTION D: CRITICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

In this final section, the portfolio continues with the theme of methods of reflection through a critical review of the written journal literature. The use of the written journal or diary forms an established part of the professional training of counsellors and therapists and is described as encouraging the trainee to reflect on practice, despite a dearth of empirical research. This study aims to review the recent available empirical literature and to specifically consider some of the practical aspects of journal writing together with the effectiveness of journals in promoting student or trainee reflection. It is hoped that any findings will bring a greater clarity to the journal writing process within professional therapeutic training and will encourage further future research in this area.

1.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In attempting to apply aspects of the reflective practice literature, this portfolio will hopefully allow greater insight and understanding of the reflective process and how this can be applied and promoted within professional training and development, as well as generating additional questions and areas for future research.

In order to encourage this increased insight and understanding, I plan to share the findings of this portfolio within the domain of counselling psychology via publication and conferences. Through this sharing it is my hope that any findings from the portfolio will be of some value to my colleagues in reflecting on the professional training of counselling psychology trainees and their own identities as reflective practitioners.

SECTION B – RESEARCH

Reflecting within Supervision: Exploring the impact of a perceived supportive supervisory environment on the initiation of the reflective process

CHAPTER 1

Integrating Reflective Practice: A Review of the Reflection Literatures

1.1 Introduction

General agreement exists in the therapist/counsellor literature that supervision plays a central role in the process of trainee development. This agreement has produced numerous developmental stage models, all of which revolve around the supervisory relationship (Hogan, 1964; Blocher, 1983; Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth, 1982; Stoltenberg and Delworth, 1987). Although there is some evidence to suggest that this relationship is crucial to trainee growth and that the supervisor-supervisee interaction changes during the various stages of development (Borders, 1989; Heppner and Roehlke, 1984; Worthington, 1987), these models do not adequately explain how a trainee moves from one stage of development to another (Holloway, 1987). However, more recently, in an attempt to clarify the process of trainee development, there has been increasing interest shown in the role played by reflection. As a result, it is argued that reflection is fundamental to professional therapist/counsellor development (Skovholt and Rønnestad, 1992a; Neufeldt, Iverson and Juntunen, 1995). Defined as a form of deliberate thinking triggered by a problem or issue encountered during the process of clinical practice, reflection is described as a process of actively searching to make sense of the problem using theory and prior personal and professional experience, resulting in change and professional growth (Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson, 1996). Developed out of a number of studies and models that have attempted to explain the process of reflection or reflexivity primarily within the context of clinical supervision, these models describe the interaction between supervisor and supervisee as providing an important potential method of reflective practice and therefore playing a major

role in the development of the reflective practitioner and professional therapist/counsellor expertise (Hoshmand & Polkinghorne, 1992; Skovholt and Rønnestad, 1992a, 1992b; Neufeldt & Forsyth, 1993; Rønnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Shapiro & Reiff, 1993; Hoshmand 1994a, 1994b; Neufeldt, Iversen & Juntunen, 1995; Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson, 1996; Ward and House, 1998; Pranata, 2005; Bennett-Levy, Lee, Travers, Polmand and Hamernik, 2003; Bennett-Levy, 2006).

This attempt to develop and integrate the concept of reflection is not unique to the field of therapist/counsellor development. Since the 1980s, the idea of “reflection” seems to have captured the imagination of a diverse group of academics and professional practitioners, resulting in a large, complex and diffuse literature. Borrowing from what Moon (1999) describes as common-sense or everyday definitions of reflection, which suggests a type of mental process with a purpose applied to complex and unstructured ideas, the application of this interpretation by researchers has resulted in a multiplicity of meanings. As a result, the literature provides no overarching definition, with the concept of reflection appearing to be synonymous with a variety of terms including that of reasoning, thinking, problem solving, “being” reflective and the reflective practitioner. However, despite this chaotic picture of competing interpretations, it is possible to identify some common themes. The most important of these being that reflection is involved in the process of learning which utilises individual experience to promote change and growth. Further to this, the majority of reflection theories tend to draw primarily on the ideas of John Dewey and Jürgen Habermas, perhaps the two most influential of all reflection theorists (Morrison, 1995, 1996). Applying these ideas of reflection in

different contexts, their influence has led to research and theory becoming focused on the interrelated areas of experiential learning, reflective practice and the reflective practitioner (Moon, 1999).

In terms of the latter, it was Donald Schön's (1983; 1987) work based on the reflective practitioner, that firmly placed reflection within a professional context. This attempt to facilitate the integration of theory and practice has been embraced by a number of professions, including those of nursing, higher education and teaching, despite a dearth of empirical research (Atkins and Murphy, 1993; Eraut, 1994; Newell, 1994). Another profession, which endorses this approach, is that of counselling psychology. In the British Psychological Society's Qualification in Counselling Psychology Regulations and Syllabus, it is stated that the discipline takes a "reflective practitioner" approach (BPS, 2006). Whilst it seems to "make sense" that reflection is an implicit part of the process of therapy and professional and personal development within the profession, there is little elaboration of its meaning and process in the British counselling and counselling psychology journals and even less acknowledgement of the contributions made to the understanding of reflection found in the specific American counselling psychology and wider reflection literatures. Definitions of reflective practice that do exist tend to say very little about the actual process of reflection; although there is some acknowledgement that supervision may play some role in this (Carroll, 1997; Nelson-Jones, 2000). This lack of clarity does little to promote greater understanding of reflection within the discipline and to bolster the profession's scientist-practitioner status¹.

Therefore, this chapter aims to selectively review the existing reflection literature in order to begin to contemplate its role within counselling psychology and in particular its relevance to professional training. In doing so, this review aims to consider the philosophical background of reflection and the relevant general reflection theories and models, which inform our understanding of learning and professional development, including Schön's work on the Reflective Practitioner. The chapter will then focus on the literature relating to the concept of reflection within therapist/counsellor development before providing the rationale and hypotheses for the current study.

1.2 Philosophical Background

In order to contextualise the reflection literature, it is necessary to consider the history of education and learning which has been dominated by the debate between traditional and progressive learning philosophies. With the former steeped in the early dualism of Plato and Aristotle, there is an acceptance of a polarisation between mind and body, together with the superiority of the intellect over practice. As argued by Brockbank and McGill (1998), this differentiation remains intact within western academia with the continued stress on the importance of cognition at the expense of skills and practice. However, despite this domination, a number of challenges to this traditional rationalist stance have been made by those who have viewed education and learning in a more progressive way. A twentieth century example of this can be found in the work of John Dewey.

1.2.1 John Dewey

In his treatise, *Democracy and Education* (1916), John Dewey challenged traditional views of education and learning by offering a new pragmatism. Rejecting positivist methods of teaching, which focus on subject matter, the learner's weakness, and the omnipotence of the teacher, Dewey stressed the importance of experience and personal growth within a life-long process of education. With growth being defined in terms of "being" rather than goals and aims, Dewey argues that the traditional teaching setting suppresses and ignores natural growth and, therefore, is inappropriate. In his alternative system of education, the aim is to make growth a more conscious process, which he refers to as processes or procedures, rather than focusing on the content or task as in the more traditional approaches to learning (Brockbank and McGill, 1998).

Within Dewey's approach to learning, he identified four elements as being essential to the actual learning process; those of experience, ideas, fixing what has been learned and reflection. Opposing the traditional division between body and mind, Dewey argued that learning had to begin from personal experience, as it was interacting with the world that provides an individual with the data in which to generate thought and action. Therefore, in practice, learners should be provided with real situations and problems, as it is only then that reflection, real learning and change will occur (Dewey, 1916).

Viewed as central to the learning process, Dewey describes reflection as a form of thinking in which knowledge is reprocessed or manipulated towards a purpose. Initiated by being faced with perplexing problems, reflection in practice consists of turning information over in the mind and considering

additional evidence to find solutions to these problems. Taking a rationalist view, this information is based on past experience and prior knowledge, and to reflect on this requires an individual to critically evaluate his or her knowledge or beliefs, to ensure that any conclusions are based upon evidence and rationality. Dewey believed that the motivation to critically think around complex subject matter could be raised through formal education processes and therefore implicitly makes the assumption that everyone potentially has this ability (Dewey, 1933).

There have been a number of criticisms of Dewey's work, including his failure to explain the role of emotion in the reflective process (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985). However, his emphasis on perplexity, a sense of purpose or intention and the notion of testing or evaluation, has influenced numerous theorists concerned with experiential learning, problem solving and professional practice (Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983 etc).

1.2.2 Jürgen Habermas

Whilst Dewey discusses reflection in terms of interpreting and making sense of experience and how this relates to effective education, the work of Jürgen Habermas focuses on epistemology and the higher ideals of emancipation and political freedom (Moon, 1999).

Although like Dewey, Habermas views reflection as a tool in the development of knowledge, as a critical theorist he is more concerned with the nature of knowledge that man has been motivated to generate, or the “knowledge constitutive interests”. A number of processes are seen to underlie the generation

of these forms of knowledge, including the process of reflection (Habermas, 1971). It is interesting to note from a counselling psychology perspective that Habermas identified this process after studying Freudian psychoanalysis, which stresses the idea that therapy encourages self-reflection, potentially leading to self-understanding and freedom of the individual (Morrison, 1995).

In describing how human knowledge is shaped, Habermas describes the three "knowledge constitutive interests", their epistemologies and method. The technical or instrumental constitutive interests of the natural sciences aim to observe the environment and ultimately to objectify and control it using empirical-inductive methods. This is in contrast to the hermeneutic disciplines of the social sciences and humanities, where the practical constitutive interests are concerned with understanding meanings and actions related to human behaviour and communication. Due to the subject matter, knowledge in this area cannot be reduced to scientific explanation and relies instead on interpretative methods. The final critical constitutive interest also operates in some social sciences and is interested in emancipatory interests, which can contribute to the freedom of social groups and social science in general. At this level, knowledge is developed using critical tools such as reflection, in order to understand the self within a human context. It is through this knowledge about knowledge that can result in self-understanding, objectivity and potential transformation at the level of the individual, social or wider world. Habermas further argues that empirical-analytic and interpretative methods cannot form an adequate basis for the social sciences and that this basis can only be provided by embracing critical and evaluative tools. (Habermas, 1971).

Despite the reflexive reasoning of Habermas and the difficulty in disseminating the role of reflection at the instrumental level (Morrison, 1995); Habermasian theory has been very influential especially within the domain of teaching, where it has been applied to teacher training, critical thinking and curriculum development (Kemmis, 1985; Van Manen, 1991; Barnett, 1997 etc).

1.3 The Role of Reflection in the Learning Process

Despite criticism of both the work of Dewey and Habermas, their progressive philosophies have influenced a number of theories and models of learning which attempt to explain aspects of the learning process primarily within the areas of training and development and higher education. These models and theories stress to a greater or lesser extent the importance of the role of reflection.

1.3.1 Experiential Learning

An example of this influence can be found in the area of experiential learning. As discussed in a review of the literature by Moon (2004), although there is a lack of consensus regarding the precise nature of learning from experience, there is some agreement that either deliberate or undeliberate reflection is usually involved at some point during the experiential learning process. The work of Kolb provides an illustration of this. Drawing on the work of Dewey and influenced by Lewin (1951) and Piaget (1971), Kolb (1984) produced his cycle of experiential learning in the 1980s (based on that of Lewin's) which heralded a new chapter in the world of professional training and development. Kolb's (1984) cycle describes experiential learning, as learning based on observations made of practical experience that ultimately lead to action.

In this “learning by doing” approach (Gibbs, 1988), reflection plays a central role in analysing observations made from experience, leading to the abstraction of ideas and action. Whilst viewing learning as a form of adaptation to the world, Kolb also developed a theory of learning styles, which consists of the four basic convergent, divergent, assimilation and accommodative learning styles (Kolb, 1984). The individual who demonstrates a convergent learning style learns through the utilisation of concrete experience and reflective observation, which implies that some individuals find reflective ways of thinking easier than others and perhaps goes some way to explain the concept of “being reflective”. This concept of an intuitive reflective style or personality is also stressed by Honey and Mumford (1986), who suggest that particular programmes or exercises may have to be implemented in order to encourage reflection in those who have less natural ability. However, although Honey and Mumford’s work is viewed as a vital adjunct to Kolb’s work, the whole reliability of learning styles has been questioned (Ramsden, 1988).

1.3.2 Levels of Learning Theories

In another example of how reflection has been associated with the learning process, accepting that knowledge can be determined at a number of different levels, constructivist theorists argue that learning should be concentrated at the higher levels of knowledge, in which the learner takes a meta-view and questions existing assumptions and perceptions about knowledge (Brockbank and McGill, 1998). This whole process is facilitated by the use of reflection (Bateson, 1973; Argyris and Schon, 1974; Barnett, 1988). Bateson (1973), who developed a typology of three levels of learning, stresses that at Level III learning is reflective and that there is a realisation that truth is relative

and that knowledge is individually constructed. Argyris and Schon (1974) take a similar stance with their theory of Single and Double Loop learning. Although reflecting on experience is an important potential facet of single loop learning, reflecting during double loop learning provides potential for major change and shifts in the actual theory or paradigms leading to development and growth. Further to this, reflection develops out of conflict which arises out of a consideration of dilemmas from experience, which have predominantly arisen out of a perceived mismatch between “espoused theory” and actual “theory in use”, concepts which are discussed further by Schön in his later work (Schön, 1983).

This critical analysis found in double loop learning is also discussed in those theories relating to approaches to learning (Entwistle, 1988; Biggs, 1993; Marton and Saljö, 1997; Trigwell, Prosser and Ginns, 2005). Developed primarily from qualitative research studies in education, these theories discuss the utilisation of surface and deep approaches to the learning process. With deep learning approaches, the learner attempts to relate learning to previous experience and to critically examine any presented knowledge searching for common themes and reasoned evidence, leading to greater understanding and an ability to generalise what has been learned. This contrasts with the superficial surface approach, in which the learner uncritically accepts any information given as fact and focuses on memorising these for evaluation purposes, which does not promote real understanding. Therefore, it is only through taking a deep approach and reflecting on knowledge that results in effective learning (Marton and Saljö, 1997).

1.4 The Development of Reflective Thinking - Developmental Stage Theories of Reflection

Agreeing in part with the notion that there are different levels of knowledge and integrating the ideas of both Dewey and Habermas, a number of researchers have produced developmental stage theories of reflection. Defining reflection as a form of critical thinking, these theorists argue that this cognitive ability to interpret uncertain information and problems develops through a number of stages (Perry, 1970; Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule, 1986; Baxter Magolda, 1992; King and Kitchener, 1994).

It was through taking this developmental stance that the researchers King and Kitchener (1994) developed their Reflective Judgement Model within the domain of education. Informed by the work of Perry (1970), who indicated that the ability to make reflective judgements is an adult one, together with the cognitive developmental perspectives of Piaget (1971) and Kohlberg (1963), King and Kitchener's (1994) Reflective Judgement Model describes a developmental sequence of increasingly complex ways of understanding and resolving ill-structured problems. Consisting of seven stages and moving through pre-reflective and quasi-reflective levels, an individual at the end of his or her reflective development is viewed as having the ability to make reflective judgements. This ability enables individuals to manipulate uncertain information and to appreciate that knowledge is constructed and therefore must be understood in relation to its context and evidence. This advanced stage of reflective thinking is in stark contrast to the pre-reflective stage of development in which an individual accepts all knowledge at face value.

A number of empirical cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using the Reflective Judgement Inventory have supported the sequential development of reflective judgement. These studies suggest that a number of variables are responsible for differences between individuals, including those of age, educational attainment and supportive environmental factors (King and Kitchener, 1994; King, Kitchener and Wood, 1985; Kitchener, King, Wood and Davison, 1989; Sakalys, 1984 etc). For example, considering educational attainment, King and Kitchener (1994), supporting the work of Baxter Magolda (1992), found that post-graduates were more able to demonstrate reflective judgement compared with those who had only studied at first degree level. Overall, these studies imply that not everyone reaches a position in which they can manage unstructured knowledge and integrate ideas at the highest levels of reflective ability.

1.5 Schön's Reflective Practitioner

Whilst developmental theories of reflection have had a major impact on education and learning, Donald Schön's work, *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983), brought reflection into the domain of professional practice. Borne out of a general lack of confidence in the competence of professionals, post a number of well documented scandals and failures, Schön's concepts of knowledge-in-action or tacit knowledge, reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action provide an alternative model of professional practice to that defined by technical rationality (Schön, 1983). Again drawing on the work of Dewey, Schön argues that with the many uncertainties faced by professionals in their day to day work, there is a need to rely on "professional artistry" gained through personal experience, as well as technical competence (Schön, 1983).

It was Schön's earlier work with the researcher Argyris (Argyris and Schön, 1974), which began a debate on the contradictions apparent in professional practice between assumed and real practice. In this work, the authors argue that there are two types of theories that exist within the professions, those of espoused and theories-in-use. With the former, these are seen as formally guiding professional knowledge, providing the underlying philosophy of the profession and its external "public" face. However, the real behaviour of professionals is embedded within theories-in-use, which characterise the patterns learned and developed through every day experience. Private, as opposed to public, these theories tend to be used intuitively and without conscious thought and therefore, are best described as tacit (Argyris and Schön, 1974).

Later on in *The Reflective Practitioner*, Schön (1983) explains that the crisis in the professions developed out of a gap that emerged between espoused and real knowledge and a realisation that espoused knowledge cannot totally guide practice. In making this statement, Schön not only considered the general malaise apparent in the professional world but also the practice of so-called minor professions (Glazer, 1975), such as in social work and teaching. With "major" professions based in the natural sciences such as engineering, practice is guided by a strong body of knowledge and research, resulting in relatively straightforward decision making (although the engineers responsible for the Millennium Bridge in London may beg to differ!). However, "minor" professions are based on a hermeneutic epistemology, and as such, their practice is built on ambiguity and interpretation. Therefore, within these professions,

members have no choice but to use their experience to solve problems and issues. It is the use of experience that Schön refers to as “professional artistry” or the competence by which professionals handle uncertainty or the "indeterminate zones of practice" (Schön, 1983).

In practical terms, this artistry is viewed as a higher-powered version of more familiar competence, which we display in our everyday recognition, judgement and skills. Embracing Polyani’s (1967) concept of tacit knowledge, Schön refers to this general competence as “knowing-in-action”, where knowledge to a greater extent is unconscious and is revealed in intelligent action such as when driving a car or riding a bike. The knowing is in the action and although our knowledge is made explicit, we remain unable to explain our actions verbally (Schön, 1987).

However, on occasions knowing-in-action has its limitations. There are situations in our familiar routine in which errors and unusual outcomes occur. Whereas Dewey referred to these situations in terms of perplexity (Dewey, 1936), Schön describes these outcomes as either negative or positive surprise. When these surprises occur, we may decide to ignore the surprise or to evaluate what has happened using reflection (Schön, 1987). It is through reflection that a practitioner can understand and criticise the tacit understandings that exist of his or her practise. Not attending to situations, which do not fit categories of knowing-in-action, can lead to boredom, “burn out” and over-learning in the practitioner, resulting in inflexibility and narrowness (Schön, 1983).

With reflection playing an evaluative role, Schön discusses two types of reflection: reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action. Reflection-on-action appears straightforward, with the practitioner thinking back on what he or she has done to understand how knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected situation. Whereas reflection-in-action has been described as “thinking on your feet”, or when we think about something as we are doing it. Partly an unconscious process, a surprising incident leads us to critically analyse the assumptions behind our knowledge-in-action, potentially resulting in the restructuring of action theories or ways of re-framing the problem, which then are tested with on the spot experiments and leading to further analysis. It is through this process of reflection-in-action that ultimately leads the practitioner to professional artistry (Schön, 1987).

In *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1987), Schön discusses the practicalities of encouraging trainees to reflect in this way. In doing so he endorses the use of the practicum, “a virtual world” in which trainees can learn about their chosen profession by undertaking projects that simulate practice in a safe environment far removed from the real world. Accomplished by experiential learning, interacting with coaches and peers and publicly disclosing confusions or dilemmas, these projects ensure an understanding of reflection-in-action and professional competence (Schön, 1987).

However, despite Schön’s assertions regarding the training of the reflective practitioner and his model of professional practice, there is very little empirically based research surrounding Schön's ideas. This may be partly due to the difficulties of operationalising his ideas and choosing a suitable methodology

(Kirby and Teddlie, 1989; Eraut, 1994; Newell, 1994). Although, in terms of the concepts themselves, Schön does not fully explain the reflective process and there is some difficulty in discriminating between the types of reflection in terms of timing and the extent to which reflection-in-action is a deliberate or unconscious process (Greenwood, 1993; Eraut, 1994). Schön is also criticised for not recognising the importance of the concept of reflection-before-action (Greenwood, 1993), although his description of psychotherapy supervision in preparing for future sessions appears to hint at this (Schön, 1987).

1.6 Applying Reflective Practice to the Professions

Despite the obvious difficulties with Schön's ideas and the lack of consensus with regard to the meaning of reflection, the concept of reflective practice has been enthusiastically embraced by a number of professions including those relating to higher education, teaching, nursing, social work, occupational therapy, physiotherapy and management in the promotion of professional development and expertise. However, in applying reflection to professional development, these professions tend to do so in different ways. For instance, within the teaching profession, reflective practice appears to be focused on initial teacher training programmes, whereas in nursing and social work, it is considered more in the development of qualified professionals within the working environment (Moon, 1999). Despite these differences, the literature does highlight a number of common themes which include levels of reflection, the reflective process and individual and environmental factors in the development of reflective practice.

1.7 Levels of Reflective Practice

Continuing the theme of reflection as a developmental process, a way of attempting to apply reflective practice within professional training and development, has been to apply models based on different levels of reflection. Reviewing these models, many of them appear to follow the Habermasian concept of the knowledge constitutive interests and are influenced by the earlier work of Van Manen (1977), who proposed the three levels of technical, practical and critical reflection. With technical reflection concerned with the immediate behaviours or skills based upon research and theory, practical reflection examines goals and their assumptions, recognising that meanings are absolute and embedded in language. At the critical level, reflection uses moral and ethical criteria and focuses on socio-historical and political context. In his later work, Van Manen (1991) proposes four categories of reflection; thinking and acting in a common sense manner, reflecting on particular events, reflecting on personal experience and that of others, and reflecting on reflecting. In making a distinction between reflecting on experience and the conditions that shape the experience, Van Manen appears to mirror the knowledge constitutive interests of Habermas (1971), and the idea that reflection essentially revolves around taking a critical and political position.

This hierarchical model, which moves from describing events and incidents to a position of meta-cognition, seems to have been emulated by a number of other theorists mainly within the field of teaching and education (Mezirow, 1981; Goodman, 1984; Grimmett, McKinnon, Erikson and Riecken, 1990; James and Clarke, 1994; La Boskey, 1993; Valli, 1993; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Pultorak, 1996). These models, consisting of between three to seven

levels, suggest that as in the approaches to learning literature, there are different depths of reflection and that the initial descriptive levels are superficial. Further to this, it is suggested that although it is important to reflect at all levels of reflection, in order to develop as a reflective practitioner there is a requirement to reflect at the deeper critical levels (Hatton and Smith, 1995).

However, the researcher found that a number of these models, which attempt to bring more clarity to the concept of reflection and reflective practice, are often far from clear and sometimes rather confusing (unlike the original model of Van Manen). An example of this can be found in the model proposed by James and Clark (1994). Using Van Manen's earlier classification, the researchers introduced the additional category of reflection on the self and personal behaviour, which is difficult to separate from the category based on practical experience relating to the self or others.

Despite these difficulties, some attempts have been made to study a number of these models of levels of reflection empirically (Ross, 1989; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Wong, Kember, Chung and Yan, 1995; Richardson and Maltby, 1995; Kember, Jones, Loke, McKay, Sinclair, Tse, Webb, Wong, Wong and Yeung, 1999; Wood, 2003; Griffin, 2003). Predominantly utilising content analysis methodologies, these studies have focused on analysing reflective diaries and other forms of written material in order to provide evidence of the different categories of reflection and to provide a tool to evaluate the development of reflection within trainees. For example in the Wong et al study (1995), the researchers used a content analysis to analyse the reflective journals of post-registered nurses primarily to validate the model proposed by Mezirow

(1981). This attempt and others, provide some evidence to suggest that trainee professionals do have the potential to reflect at a number of different levels and that written exercises can be usefully employed to assess whether and at what level, reflection and reflective learning has taken place (Wong et al, 1995).

1.8 The Process of Reflection - Stages of the Reflective Process

Other stage type theories of reflection take a more individualistic stance and concentrate on the actual process of reflection which allows the learner to make sense of his or her own experience (Boyd and Fales, 1983; Goodman, 1984; Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985; Gibbs, 1988; Jaworski, 1993; Atkins and Murphy, 1993; Tripp, 1993; Johns, 2000; Lee and Loughran, 2000; Basile, Olson and Nathenson-Mejia, 2003). Influenced by both the work of Dewey and Schön, these theories argue that the process of reflection begins with the identification of a concern, problem, or confusion, which leads to a period of critical analysis and synthesis, resulting in new learning or transformation. Utilising the concept of reflection-on-action, a number of these models also stress that reflection cannot be seen simply as a cognitive endeavour and that the whole process is driven by emotion and feeling, which initially triggers the identification of the problem or concern (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985; Johns, 1994; Kember, 2001). After reviewing the literature on the reflective process, Atkins and Murphy (1993) describe a three stage model of the reflective process, which begins with an awareness of uncomfortable thoughts and feelings, leading to a critical analysis of feelings and knowledge and resulting in a new perspective. However, the researcher identified that only the model produced by Boyd and Fales (1983) had been derived from empirical research, with the researchers developing their

model from the analysis of structured and unstructured interviews, questionnaires and self-report measures, thus identifying an area requiring further research.

1.9 The Need for Structure - Encouraging the Reflective Process

In discussing the process of reflection, there also seems to be a general agreement that there is a need for reflection to be encouraged and nurtured through training and structured activities (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1987). As a result, various practical guidelines and methods are discussed that are said to encourage and promote this process (Miller and Watts, 1997; Wilkinson, 1998). A small number of studies have been conducted which review the efficacy of these, including those relating to clinical supervision (Fowler and Chevannes 1998; Maggs and Biley, 2000; Launer, 2005); student seminars (Goodman, 1984); reflective journals (Morrison, 1996; Bain, Mills, Ballantyne and Packer, 2002); group reflection (Mountford and Rogers, 1996; Hayes, 1998; Platzer, Blake and Ashford, 2000; Paget, 2001); the practicum (Miller, 2005); critical incident techniques (Rich and Parker, 1995; Griffin, 2003) and portfolio writing (Mathers, Challis, Howe and Field, 1999; Harris, Dolan and Fairbairn, 2001). Other studies have considered a number of these methods simultaneously within teacher training programmes (Zeichner and Liston, 1985; Hoover, 1994; Hatton and Smith, 1995), which have attempted to produce an intensive reflective training experience. However, despite the existence of these studies, there is a recognised paucity of research in this area, with existing studies tending to be based on small cohorts of students and their own perceptions of effectiveness. Further to this, these studies often lack clarity regarding methodology, resulting in a call for additional empirical research (Atkins and Murphy, 1993; Bulman, 2004; Fook, White and Gardner, 2006).

1.10 Developing Reflective Practice – Individual and Environmental Conditions

In addition to these methods of reflection, there is also some debate in the literature regarding the impact of individual and environmental conditions on the reflective process. As discussed by Moon (1999), a number of factors are discussed that may in practice affect or detract from the reflective process.

1.10.1 Individual Pre-requisites of Reflection

In terms of considering individual factors, it is argued that certain pre-requisites or pre-dispositions are required for an individual to be reflective. Dewey (1933) describes the necessary attitudes of a reflective individual as being those of “open-mindedness”, “responsibility” and “wholeheartedness”, indicating that reflection is an active and conscious process requiring a desire to make sense of experience and a certain amount of robustness. A number of studies have highlighted either one or all of these attitudes (Mamede and Schmidt, 2004; Wong, Loke and Wong, 2001; Durgahee, 1998; King and Kitchener, 1994). For example, in the study by Wong, Loke and Wong (2001), the researchers’ action research project conducted with first year degree students, suggests that all of the three attitudes were apparent in those students deemed to be reflective. From a theoretical standpoint Johns (2000) agrees that a practitioner needs to be “committed” to reflect in the first place, which is defined as being open to the self and his or her experience and practice, thereby encouraging a commitment to personal and professional development. Although there appears to be little reference made to individual differences based on cognitive ability and the developmental theories of reflection, in their study of a post-registration nursing course, Platzer, Blake and Ashford (2000) found that previous education and

training had a major impact on reflective practice, with those students with limited educational backgrounds finding it more difficult to think critically and to take responsibility for their own learning.

1.10.2 Environmental Conditions of Reflection

1.10.1.1 A question of time As discussed by several writers, there is agreement that learners need time to be able to reflect on their experience (Walker, 1985; McNamara, 1990; Richert, 1990; Pultorak, 1993; Thorpe, 1993; Barnett, 1994; Boud and Knights, 1994; Kuit, Reay and Freeman, 2001). Others stress that those new to the reflective process require both time and opportunity to be able to learn through reflection, as it is likely that they will initially find the process a very challenging one (Francis, 1985; Hatton and Smith, 1985; Wildman and Niles, 1987). With this in mind, there are various calls for learners and experienced professionals to set aside adequate time for reflective exercises and for workplaces and training course curricula to be organised to allow for this in order to encourage the reflective process (Meyers, 1986; Wildman and Niles, 1987).

1.10.1.2 Facilitating reflection There also seems to be some agreement in the literature that reflection requires external input and there is some scepticism that reflection can be totally promoted by the self (Pugach and Johnson, 1990; Johns, 1993; Jaworski, 1993; Brookfield, 1995, 1998). Both Habermas (1974) and Boud and Fales (1983) allude to the issue of self-deception and the need for input from other sources, whilst the developmental theories of reflection stress the importance of education and a supportive environment (Belenky et al, 1986; King and Kitchener, 1994).

Accepting a need for external input and agreement that reflection cannot be achieved alone, it is argued by some researchers particularly within the teaching profession, that reflection requires facilitation (Pugach and Johnson, 1990; Jaworski, 1993; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Taylor, 1997; Moon, 1999; Glazer, Abbott and Harris, 2004). Jaworski (1993) discusses the importance of the “other” in the reflective process and the trend in education for student teachers to be allocated mentors, who encourage their mentees to reflect upon their work by focusing on critical incidents. Similarly, in the study by Hatton and Smith (1995), student teachers found the role of the “critical friend” as essential to their ability to reflect upon their own experiences. In describing the role of a facilitator, suggestions are made that a facilitator should understand the importance of reflection and be able to provide a model of reflective practice, either by sharing their own personal reflections on experience and giving feedback or through advocating the use of a particular model of reflection (Loughran 1996). These types of suggestions have resulted in the nursing literature arguing that facilitated reflection is simply another way of describing clinical supervision, a process seen as vital to professional development and patient care (Johns, 1993).

Despite this, the process of facilitation is not just seen as being promoted by an individual facilitator or on isolated module within a course. In order for an individual to learn to become an effective reflective practitioner, the facilitation of a reflective stance must be the overall priority and driver of every aspect of a training curriculum and the culture of the learning organisation (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; King and Kitchener, 1994; Weiss and Weiss, 2001; Davies, 2003; Sparrow, Ashford and Heel, 2005). If such a reflective stance is not fully

embraced, then this may discourage trainees to openly reflect on their experiences (Platzer, Blake and Ashford, 2000).

1.10.2.3 Reflection and a supportive environment Considering other possible conditions of reflection that may encourage the process, there also appears to be an acknowledgment that a supportive environment plays an influential role in the development of reflective practice. In recognising that the reflective process can be perceived as very threatening to the neophyte professional due to the requirement for the individual learner to take risks and to disclose often difficult and personal information, it is argued that an individual feeling threatened by this requirement may become inhibited and defensive (Schön, 1983, 1987; Wildman and Niles, 1987; Rich and Parker, 1995). As a result, an obstruction of the reflective process may hamper learning and an individual's professional development (Knights, 1985; Newell, 1992; Cameron and Mitchell, 1993; Thorpe, 1993; Platzer, Blake and Ashford, 2000; Wong, Kember, Wong and Loke, 2001). Therefore, to encourage this process it is argued that there is a need to provide an emotionally supportive environment in which an individual feels safe to take risks in what they disclose (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Anning, 1988; Boud and Walker, 1993). A number of suggestions are made in order to provide this environment. Taylor (1997) stresses the need for the facilitator to be sensitive and supportive especially at the beginning of any relationship with the learner, although considering the work of Heron (1989) on facilitation, Taylor (1997) further argues that this support needs to be balanced with appropriate levels of challenge. Being more specific, other writers look to the counselling literature and urge facilitators to demonstrate the core conditions such as empathy and unconditional positive regard (Boud, Keogh and Walker,

1993; Francis, 1995; Glazer, Abbott and Harris, 2004; Walker, 2006). Knights (1995), stresses the counselling skill of active listening and suggests that the facilitator should take on the role of a co-counsellor in order to deal with the personal and emotional aspects of reflection. Taking a slightly different stance, Wildman and Niles (1997) discuss the necessary condition of a supportive environment in encouraging the reflective practice of qualified teachers, which includes other teachers and also the wider administration.

Within the literature it is also suggested that a trainee is more likely to feel defensive and less likely to disclose when the facilitator or mentor is also involved in the assessment and evaluation process. Therefore, to overcome this potential barrier a number of writers have stressed the importance of developing learning contracts between the learner and facilitator. In discussing and agreeing upon the responsibilities of both parties in terms of expectations and roles, this is seen as providing a firm foundation for reflection, helping to allay the anxiety of the trainee and encouraging disclosure and less defensiveness (Schön, 1987; Richert, 1990; Yeung, Jones and Webb, 2001; Cole, 2005).

However, despite the proposition that the reflective process requires facilitation and a supportive environment, much of this is based on theory or circumstantial evidence. In studies conducted on the use of reflective journals by Bain, Ballantyne, Packer and Mills (1999; 2002), the researchers found that individuals were able to reflect just as effectively in isolation as those who reflected with others. It is also suggested that a supportive environment is not a necessary factor in the encouragement of reflection, implying that this commonly held assumption demands further clarification.

1.11 Therapist/Counsellor Development – Developmental Models

In considering the question of how counsellors and therapists develop, much of the thinking around this has concentrated on the concept of a distinct sequential developmental path from novice to experienced practitioner. Influenced by existing psychological developmental theories (Piaget, 1972; Kohlberg, 1979; Perry, 1981) and those relating to the general development of expertise (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986; Glaser and Chi, 1988), various models of trainee development have been postulated.

Consisting of between three to seven developmental levels, the majority of these revolve around the learning environment and the supervisory relationship (Hogan, 1964; Blocher, 1983; Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth, 1982; Hess, 1987; Stoltenberg and Delworth, 1987; Skovholt and Ronnestad, 1995). For example, basing their work on previous developmental models, Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) conceptualised four levels of development, three of which are trainee levels (Level 1, 2 and 3) and one as the Integrated Counselor. Moving through these levels, it is argued that there is a shift across a number of domains initiated by Piaget's (1972) assimilation and accommodation and promoted by clinical supervision. However, despite some evidence to suggest that the supervisory relationship is crucial to trainee growth and that the supervisor-supervisee interaction changes during the various stages of development (Borders, 1989; Worthington, 1987), it remains unclear as to how the counsellor moves from one stage of development to the next (Holloway, 1987). However, more recently, it is argued that counsellor and therapist development is promoted by the process of reflection (Neufeldt, Iverson and Juntunen, 1995).

1.12 Reflection and Therapist/Counsellor Development

In making this assertion, a number of researchers have stressed the pivotal role of reflection in allowing therapists/counsellors to make sense of situations of uncertainty and uniqueness and so allowing learning and continuing professional development (Hoshmand & Polkinghorne, 1992; Skovholt and Rønnerstad, 1992a, 1992b; Neufeldt & Forsyth, 1993; Rønnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Shapiro & Reiff, 1993; Hoshmand 1994a, 1994b; Neufeldt, Iversen, & Juntunen, 1995; Binder, 1999; Milne and James, 2002; Pranata, 2005; Bennett-Levy, Lee, Travers, Polmand and Hamernik, 2003; Bennett-Levy, 2006). The majority of this work primarily argues that it is reflecting on aspects of client work that improves practice and encourages the development of expertise and clinical competence, leading to the ability to reflect-in-action (Hoshmand and Polkinghorne, 1992; Neufeldt et al, 1995; Bennett-Levy et al, 2003). Further to this, despite the acknowledgement that adults developmentally have the ability to reflect on their own knowledge and experience, it is accepted in the cognitive literature that errors of mature judgment can occur (Hoshmand and Polkinghorne, 1992). Therefore, to combat this possibility, it is accepted that effective reflective processing requires an element of structure and facilitation and with this in mind, a number of models of reflection have been developed, which attempt to promote reflective practice for both trainees and experienced practitioners. Bearing strong similarities to those models found in the general literature and influenced by Schön's cycle of reflection, the reflective process is described as being triggered by a problem situation or an unexpected outcome causing the therapist/counsellor to thinking critically about their work and resulting in new perspectives and the continual refining and testing of hypotheses (Neufeldt & Forsyth, 1993; Shapiro and Reiff, 1993; Neufeldt et al, 1995).

An example of this can be found in the work of Shapiro and Reiff (1993), who combining the idea of levels and process models of reflection, provide their own five level model. Interpreting reflection as essentially reflection-on-practice, the reflective process is viewed as being initiated by an event or incident of concern, leading to a process of critical thinking about the event at a number of different levels including that of the philosophical. Accepting the necessity of interpersonal or group involvement it is assumed that this process is encouraged by the existence of feedback or reinforcement loops at every level of reflection.

In another example, Bennett-Levy (2006) argues that therapists develop through three principal systems; the declarative, procedural and reflective (DPR). With the reflective system having an executive type function allowing the therapist to build on their conceptual knowledge and skills, this system is essential to therapist development. Stimulated by Boyd and Fales (1983) “inner discomfort” or some kind of confusion, the system enables the therapist to make sense of past, current and future experiences through matching these experiences with existing procedural and declarative memory and critically evaluating them using cognitive techniques such as problem solving and Socratic questioning. This evaluation can be undertaken within a number of contexts including those of supervision, reflective writing and self practice/self supervision.

1.12.1 Skovholt and Rønnestad Study

However, irrespective of this notion of the importance of reflection to therapist/counsellor development, much of what has been written is purely academic and has not been developed or tested empirically. The main exception

to this is the extensive qualitative study produced by Skovholt and Rønnestad (1992a, 1992b), in which one hundred counsellors and therapists were interviewed, who were at different stages of development and experience. In their findings, the researchers highlight seven stages of development from the conventional to the integrity stage. In terms of how individuals progress across these various stages, as in Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987), there is an emphasis on Piaget's (1972) concept of the assimilation-accommodation balance. When trainees are faced with a problem during their clinical work, a conflict emerges from the mismatch between existing cognitions and experience. Causing disequilibrium, this problem requires a change in thinking and a refinement of existing cognitive structures through accommodation, which if achieved, encourages the progression to new stages of development (Neufeldt et al, 1995). Skovholt and Rønnestad (1992a) go on to argue that this process is driven by Continuous Professional Reflection.

Seen as the central developmental process, continuous professional reflection is viewed as consisting of three essential components: ongoing professional and personal experience; searching within an open and supportive environment; and taking time to reflect alone and with others about individual experiences. It is through embracing these components in an atmosphere of "support and challenge" (pg. 125), that an individual reaches the ultimate goal of professional development and a position of individuation through the integration of the professional and personal self. Further to this, it is argued that without continuous professional development, individuals will fail to develop and will instead stagnate resulting in potential burn-out and early retirement from the profession (Skovholt and Rønnerstad, 1992a; Rønnestad and Skovholt, 1993).

1.12.2 Reflection and the Role of Supervision

By emphasising the various components of Continuous Professional Reflection and the stress on the need to reflect with others as well as individually, Skovholt and Rønnestad (1992a, 1992b) imply that supervision is an important method of reflection for both the trainee and the experienced practitioner. In considering this implication, it is useful to consider that the concept of reflective supervision is not a new one. Accepting that this is one of the important elements of the supervisory process, particular approaches to therapy and training have championed a reflective approach in supervision, including the use of reflective teams in family therapy (Anderson, 1991) and Interpersonal Process Recall or IPR, a humanistic model which aims to promote greater knowledge of counselling skills and process through the trainee reflecting upon taped experiences they choose to bring to discuss in supervision (Kagan and Kagan, 1990). Alternatively, in psychodynamic therapist development it is argued by Casement (2001) that a therapist throughout the training period and beyond develops his or her own internal supervisor. Encouraged by methods which include external supervision, the existence of the internal supervisor eventually enables the therapist to self-reflect during the actual process of therapy and thereby allowing reflection-in-action (Schon, 1983).

Others, basing their work on developmental theories and agreeing that supervision is key to reflective practice, have produced explicit models of reflection or reflectivity for the supervisory environment (Hoshmand, 1984; Neufeldt, Iverson and Juntunen, 1994; Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson, 1996; Ward and House, 1998). Viewing reflection in terms of a problem solving paradigm, supervision is seen as providing a space in which the supervisee is able to discuss

confusing or troubling events and to critically analyse these events utilising espoused theory and their practical professional experience (Hoshmand, 1994). To encourage this process a variety of strategies are discussed including those relating to methods of questioning, which are seen to encourage a reflective supervisory dialogue (Ward and House, 1998). An example of this can be found in the model produced by Hoshmand (1984), who argues that reflection can be facilitated in supervision by the supervisor allowing the supervisee to think aloud. Stressing the importance of reflection being self-directed, it is argued that the supervisee should be encouraged to identify critical points in sessions with clients, where decisions or alternatives could have been made. It is this reflective self-questioning on the rationale for choice that allows the supervisee to build-up a model of practice. Agreeing with Levine, Gallimore, Weisner and Turner (1980), it is further argued by Hoshmand (1994) that supervisors need to model reflective questioning, as this can facilitate similar reflective habits in the trainee.

1.12.3 Reflection and a Supportive Supervisory Relationship

However, before any type of reflective strategy can be implemented, it is recognised that reflective practice is contingent on the quality of the supervisory relationship (Neufeldt et al, 1996; Ward and House, 1998). In defining this quality, there is some discussion of the need for an empathic and supportive environment in which to reflect (Shapiro and Reiff, 1993; Hoshmand, 1994). Neufeldt et al (1995) stress that one of the roles of the supervisor is to encourage reflection through the creation of a supportive interpersonal environment and so allowing the supervisee to struggle with his or her own understanding and integration of clinical experience. Such an environment allows the supervisee to take risks regardless of the extreme anxiety that may be felt due to having to

grapple with confusion and uncertainty (Rønnestad and Skovholt, 1993; Skovholt and Rønnestad, 1992a, 1992b). Therefore, a supportive supervisory environment is seen as enhancing a supervisee's willingness to begin the reflective process by disclosing issues and concerns that have emerged during clinical practice (Ward and House, 1998).

This notion of the importance of a supportive supervisory relationship is well-grounded in the supervision literature in which a great deal of research has been conducted focusing on the perceived qualities of the supervisor and the supervisory relationship and how this is essential in promoting effective supervision and learning in general (Worthington and Roehlke, 1979; Holloway and Wampold, 1983; Holloway, 1995; Stoltenberg, McNeill and Delworth, 1998 etc), which may help to further illuminate the concept of a supportive supervisor in promoting reflective practice. Studies which have concentrated on the qualities of the supervisor have concluded that a good supervisor shows respect, genuineness, trustworthiness and empathy, thus paralleling the facilitative conditions required of an effective therapist (Rogers, 1957; Pierce and Shauble, 1970; Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth, 1982; Hutt, Scott and King, 1983; Carifio and Hess, 1987; Martin, Goodyear and Newton, 1987; Schacht, Howe and Berman, 1988; Worthington and MacNeill, 1996). There is also some evidence to suggest that effective supervisors are open to giving feedback and will self-disclose in terms of their own experiences (Black, 1988; Schacht, Howe and Berman, 1988).

Further to this, with clinical practice and supervision provoking a great deal of anxiety in the trainee therapist/counsellor (Mollon, 1989; Rønnestad and

Skovholt, 1993; Griffith and Frieden, 2000), the facilitative conditions of the supervisory relationship in providing a safe space for the supervisee, are seen as especially important for the neophyte therapist/counsellor (Heppner and Roehlke, 1984). It is also argued that these conditions are essential especially when taking into account the supervisor's evaluative role (Holloway and Wampold, 1983; Ward, Friedlander, Schoen and Klein, 1985). With this evaluative role in mind, Olk and Friedlander (1992) in their study of role ambiguity and conflict within supervision, found that supervisee perceptions of the existence of role difficulties in supervision, tended to result in work-related anxiety and major dissatisfaction with supervision and therapeutic work. To counter these difficulties and paralleling the general reflection literature, the researchers and others have argued that both perceived ambiguity and conflict can be minimised by the process of inducting or contracting for supervision. Clarifying the nature of supervision, the responsibilities of the supervisee and supervisor together with an agreement on how to deal with potential conflict, a verbal or written contract is viewed as providing a safe and less threatening and anxiety provoking environment where issues such as role difficulties can be openly discussed (Olk and Friedlander, 1992; Ladany and Friedlander, 1995; McCarthy, Sugden, Koker, Lomendola, Maurer and Renninger, 1995; Nelson and Friedlander, 2001).

1.12.4 Triggers of the Reflective Process in Supervision

Accepting that a supportive supervisory environment will encourage a supervisee to begin the reflective process, what does a trainee therapist/counsellor reflect on during supervision? Although there is agreement that reflection is triggered by a concern or issue raised by the supervisee, there is little discussion in the literature regarding the content of these triggers.

However, there is some acknowledgment of what potentially could begin the reflective process within a number of studies that have focused on the non-disclosure of sensitive issues within supervision (Ladany, Hill, Corbett and Nutt, 1996; Webb and Wheeler, 1998; Walsh, Gillespie, Greer and Eanes, 2002). Agreeing that there is an implicit assumption within the models of counsellor/therapist development that supervisee competence is promoted through the supervisee disclosing descriptive details regarding “the client, the therapeutic interaction, supervisory information and personal information” (Ladany, Hill, Corbett and Nutt, 1996, pg. 1), these studies, which predominantly focus on counselling and applied psychology trainees, have highlighted a variety of issues and concerns that supervisees choose not to disclose in supervision. In the qualitative study by Ladany et al, (1996), the researchers found that a number of concerns were kept by supervisees from their supervisors, which appear to relate either to client work or supervision. A variety of reasons for nondisclosure were given by the participants including those relating to perceptions of the unimportance of an issue, a poor working alliance and political suicide.

1.13 Consolidating the Reflection Literatures

Bringing together these themes from the general and more specific reflection literatures, Neufeldt et al (1996) conducted a qualitative study with recognised experts from the field of reflective practice, in which Schön, Skovholt and Rønnestad participated as subjects, in an attempt to integrate the reflective practice literature and those ideas relating to reflection and supervision. The results of the study indicate that despite the experts being unaware of each other’s research and work, there was broad agreement regarding the concept of reflective practice and the need for reflection or reflectivity within supervision, in

order to facilitate practitioner development. From these findings, Neufeldt et al propose a model of reflection (see Figure 1 below), which appears to encapsulate the various themes and conditions of reflection that are discussed in the literatures.

Similar to other models of reflexivity in supervision, reflective practice is described as a form of deliberate thinking triggered by a problem or event encountered by the supervisee, which encourages a feeling of stuckness or confusion and relates to therapist actions, thoughts and emotions, together with the interactions between the therapist and the client. Mediated by the intervening conditions of the personality and cognitive capacity of the supervisee as well as by the supervisory environment, the reflective process involves actively searching to make sense of the problem using theory and prior personal and professional experience. Describing reflectivity in sequential terms, problems or events occurring during client sessions are disclosed and reflected upon in supervision, promoting new actions in the counselling sessions, which in turn trigger further problems or events and reflectivity. Although the focus is on problems and issues occurring within client work, there is also an acknowledgement that issues also arise during supervisory sessions.

Further to this, it is argued that effective reflexivity requires the supervisee to take an active and open stance to the reflective process and for the supervisor to provide a “safe” supervisory environment. It is also suggested that any reflection must be profound as opposed to superficial, as it is the former that ultimately leads to changes in perception and practice and an increased capacity to make sense of experience. Whilst supporting these findings the researchers

accept that all aspects of their model, including the antecedents of reflectivity, require further clarification and empirical validation (Neufeldt et al, 1996).

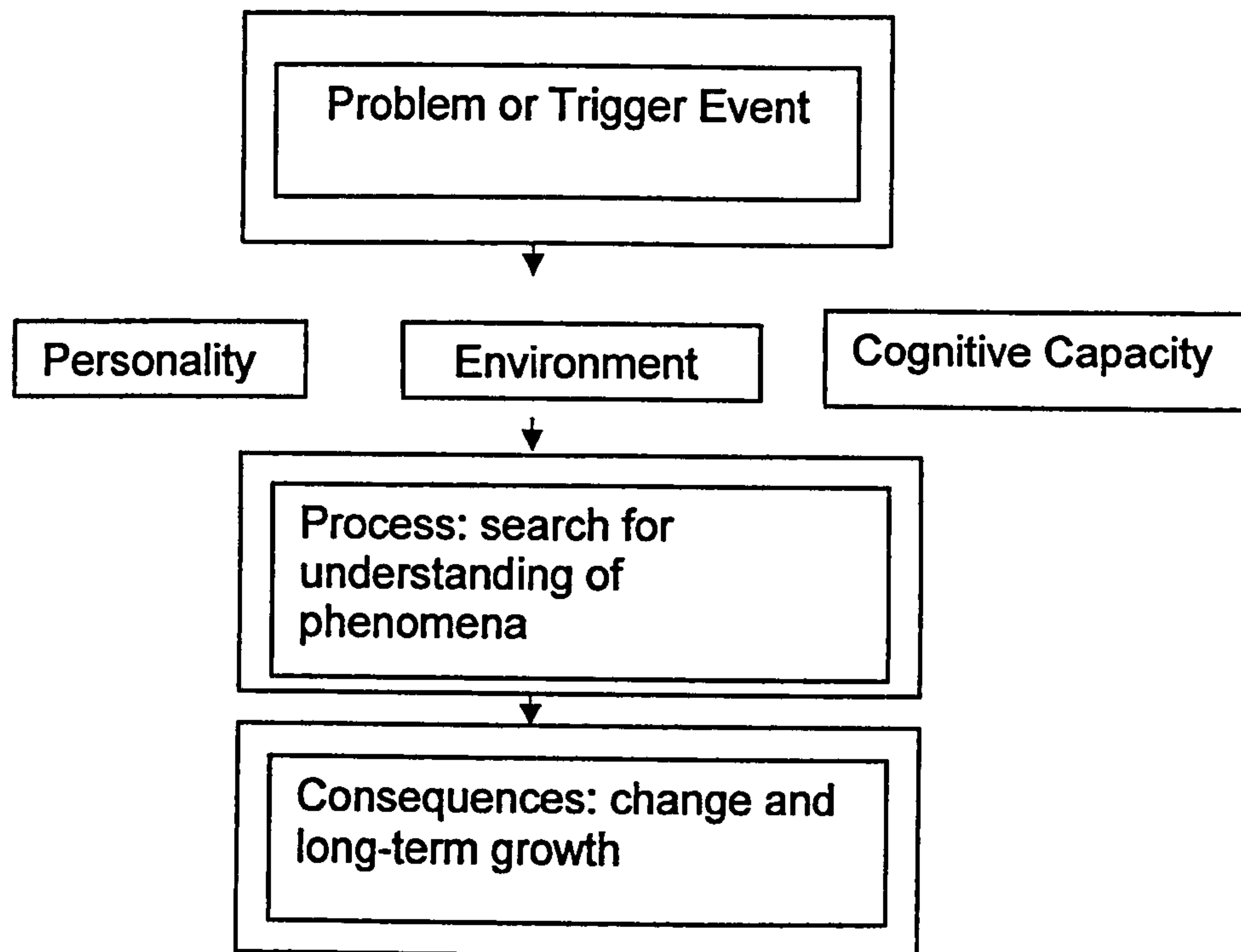


Figure 1 Neufeldt et al model (1996)

1.14 The Current Study

In considering the literature, there appears to be considerable overlap between the general reflection literature and that relating to the notion of reflection playing a key role in therapist/counsellor development. With both traditions describing a similar process of reflection and the necessity for this process to be facilitated by a supervisor or mentor, there is also agreement that a trainee requires a supportive environment in order to feel safe enough to begin the reflective process. In terms of defining this supportive environment, it is suggested that this support requires the presence of the facilitative or core conditions as described in the counselling literature (Rogers, 1957) together with

some kind of agreement or understanding between the trainee and facilitator regarding the responsibilities of both parties in terms of roles and expectations. However, despite these suppositions, it is evident that much of this has been developed theoretically as opposed to empirically.

In light of this and with Neufeldt et al (1996) providing an explicit model of the process of reflection during supervision, which seems to integrate elements of the reflection literature, the researcher felt that its categories provided a basis to begin to develop an empirical understanding of a method of reflection and the process of reflection within supervision. Further to this, as there has been much criticism of the theoretical nature of the literature, rather than developing new theory it was decided that any research would attempt to apply and test existing theory and ideas.

Therefore, this study aims to evaluate the influence of the supervisory environment, one of the intervening conditions described in the Neufeldt et al (1996) model. In considering the descriptions given under this category in the Neufeldt et al (1996) study and those found in the wider general and specific reflection literatures, the study will specifically consider the impact of a perceived supportive supervisory environment, defined in terms of the facilitative or core conditions and a clear understanding of the roles and expectations of supervision, on the initiation of the reflective process in which a supervisee discloses problems and issues that have been encountered during the course of clinical practice. Although research has been conducted with regard to the importance of the supervisory relationship and there has been some interest shown in the concept of non-disclosure and what is not disclosed in supervision,

which is relevant to this study, the researcher could not locate any research that explicitly focuses on the initiation of the reflective process in supervision and the impact on this of the supervisory environment.

In testing these assumptions regarding a supportive supervisory environment, which are found in both the general and specific reflection literatures, it is hoped that any research will encourage a greater integration of the literatures and provide greater clarity with regard to the process of reflective practice within the therapy/counsellor professions including that of counselling psychology.

1.15 The Research Objectives and Hypotheses

In considering the relevant literature, the study will attempt to answer the following exploratory objectives and hypotheses:

Objective 1

To consider the types of issues and concerns relating to clinical practice that counselling psychology trainees disclose in supervision in order to begin the reflective process.

Hypothesis 1

Counselling psychology trainees will be more willing to disclose in supervision and to begin the reflective process if they perceive that there is a facilitative supervisory relationship.

Hypothesis 2

Counselling psychology trainees will be less willing to disclose in supervision and to begin the reflective process if they perceive that the roles and expectations of supervision are ambiguous and/or conflictual.

Hypothesis 3

Trainee experience in terms of year of training and experience of client work and supervision interacts with a willingness to begin the reflective process and perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment.

Hypothesis 4

To what extent does the perception of a supportive supervisory environment predict the willingness of counselling psychology trainees to disclose in order to begin the reflective process?

1.16 Explanation of the Study Structure

In order to test the research objective and hypotheses, the study is divided into two parts. In Part 1, the study explores Objective 1 and in Part 2 there is an attempt to answer the four hypotheses. Results from both parts of the study are evaluated in the final Discussion chapter.

CHAPTER 2

Developing a Measure of Reflection – What do counselling psychology trainees reflect on in supervision?

2.1 Aim

The aim of Part 1 of the study is to explore what counselling psychology trainees actually reflect on in supervision and in the absence of any available measures, to develop a measure of reflection in supervision. Informed by the literature, this measure will focus on the initial stage of the reflective process during which a supervisee discloses a problem, issue or trigger event.

2.2 Methodology and Rationale

In producing such a measure, the current study utilises the themes developed in the Ladany et al (1996) non-disclosure study. Although these themes relate to issues and concerns that trainees decided *not* to disclose in supervision, the researchers suggest that it is logical to assume that the themes elicited in their study may be issues and concerns that trainees actually *do* disclose during supervision. However, the researchers cautiously state that this should not be presumed without further research being conducted. Therefore, in developing a questionnaire, the study began with the premise that the themes uncovered by Ladany et al (1996) would represent what trainees actually disclose in supervision in order to begin the reflective process. In testing this premise, a number of semi-structured interviews were conducted and analysed.

In terms of choosing an appropriate method to analyse the interview data, it was decided to use a content analysis methodology. Although initially developed for media research, content analysis is used across the social sciences

to analyze a wide variety of written sources from transcripts of interviews to diaries at latent and manifest levels in a systematic and objective way (Krippendorff, 1986; Nueundorf, 2002; Robson, 1993). Therefore, on determining that a relatively large amount of data would be collected through interviews in the first part of the study, it was deemed to be an appropriate methodology.

Other purely qualitative methodologies that can be applied to different types of written data were also considered, such as grounded theory, discourse analysis and IPA. However, the purpose of the exercise was not to develop new theories, but to consider existing theory and themes, which again indicates the appropriateness of using a content analysis. Further to this, content analysis is often seen as the favoured approach in questionnaire development (Gillham, 2000).

2.3 Design

2.3.1 Semi-structured Interviews

In order to gain a broad and clear understanding of the kinds of problems or issues that trainee counselling psychologists actually disclose in supervision, it was decided to interview existing trainees, recently qualified counselling psychologists reflecting on their experiences as a trainee, together with supervisors who are responsible for supervising counselling psychology trainees, using semi-structured interviews.

2.3.1 Participant Sample

In terms of the participant sample, 15 participants were interviewed, which included 5 experienced supervisors, 7 counselling psychology trainees and

3 recently qualified practitioners. The counselling psychology trainees who participated were from all three levels of training: Years 1, 2 and 3. Participants were selected on the basis of availability from a range of mental health settings. The researcher attempted to recruit participants with different levels of experience and supervisors from across the theoretical orientations.

The 5 Supervisors were 4 female and 1 male chartered counselling psychologists between the ages of 31 and over 40. In terms of ethnicity, 4 participants described themselves as White British and 1 participant described him/herself as White South African. All had between 5 and 8 years' experience of supervising trainees. In terms of their theoretical orientation, 3 stated that they were CBT/humanistic, 1 practised as a person-centred practitioner and 1 described his/her orientation as integrative. 2 of the Supervisors had doctorates and the other 3 were in the process of completing their doctoral awards.

The 7 trainees included two Year 1 trainees, two Year 2 trainees and three Year 3 trainees. All the trainees were female between the ages of 21 and over 40, with the majority being in the 26 to 30 age range. 5 described their ethnicity as White British, whilst the remaining trainees stated their ethnicity to be White European and Asian British. Further to this, the trainees reported a median of between 1 and 2 years' of prior counselling experience.

In terms of the three recently qualified practitioners, this group consisted of 1 male and 2 female between the ages of 26 and over 40. All practitioners had qualified over the last two years and described their ethnicity as Greek, White British and Asian British respectively.

2.4 Procedure

2.4.1 Ethical Approval

Before commencing the study, the researcher sought and was granted ethical approval from City University to conduct research with trainee and qualified counselling psychologists (see Appendix A).

2.4.2 Recruitment of Participant

Participants were contacted via e-mail and through personal contacts and were invited to participate in a study focusing on experiences of supervision. In recruiting these participants, the researcher attempted to recruit a cross-section of trainees from across the three years of professional training, recently qualified chartered psychologists together with a selection of supervisors from across the theoretical spectrum.

2.4.3 The Coding Frame and Codebook

Before collecting any data, the researcher developed an initial coding frame consisting of the thirteen categories and examples as provided by Ladany et al (1996). The emphasis was on an initial coding frame at this stage, as the categories were open to revision.

This coding frame was then translated into a Codebook, consisting of a list of the thirteen categories with examples given under each category. The Codebook together with a specially designed coding form was produced to aid the coding of the data and to be used as part of training of the independent coders (see appendix B).

2.4.4 Data Collection

A tape-recorded semi-structured interview lasting between 20 to 35 minutes was conducted with each participant by the researcher either face-to-face or over the phone. Before beginning the interview process, the researcher read out a script, which explained the nature of the study and gave a definition of reflection (see appendix C). As part of the script, participants were given examples from the Ladany et al study (1996) e.g. negative feelings towards the client and perceived clinical mistakes. After this introduction trainees and newly qualified practitioners were asked to describe in detail the kinds of issues and concerns that they had disclosed as trainees in supervision. Supervisors in the study were asked to provide examples of what trainees in the past had disclosed in their supervisory sessions. Prompts were given in terms of other examples when requested by a participant. Follow up questions were asked where appropriate. All participants were asked to read and sign an information and consent form (Appendix D) and to complete a demographics information sheet (Appendix E).

2.4.5 Data Analysis

Using a content analysis methodology, the following steps were followed in order to analyse the data from the fifteen interviews:

2.4.5.1 Data sampling plan In terms of the sample, it was decided to analyse all the examples of disclosure given during the interview by the participant. Any other data was excluded.

2.4.5.2 Units of analysis After transcribing the interviews and reviewing the layout of the data, it was determined that the interviews should be analysed at

the level of paragraphs. Although the literature suggests that the smaller the unit of analysis, the more accurate the study (Neuendorf, 2002), the data was very focused with participants providing and describing particular examples of disclosure. Therefore, it was more appropriate to analyse this data at the level of paragraph.

In terms of how the overall content of the units was defined, the researcher found this to be far from clear cut. Content analysis in the literature is discussed in terms of manifest and latent content, which relates to the depth and level of interpretation needed to analyse the data. However, the distinction has been shown to be rather simplistic and some researchers have argued that it is more appropriate to see latent and manifest data on a continuum from high to low latent and high to low manifest (Neuendorf, 2002). The data in this study is seen as occupying the middle ground. Although the coding requires some degree of interpretation, the clear description of each category meant that the process was relatively straightforward, as would be expected in the coding of manifest data.

2.4.5.3 Independent coders In order to test the reliability of the coding and the coding frame, an essential element of content analysis, two additional independent coders were recruited to analyse the data. As suggested by Krippendorff, both of these coders were social science graduates (Krippendorff, 1980).

2.4.5.4 Training Good independent coder preparation is a vital part of any content analysis (Krippendorff, 1980; Neuendorf, 2002). Therefore, the researcher spent time with each independent coder, explaining the rationale

behind the research and coding frame, ensuring that they understood the examples and the differences between the different codes. Further to this an instruction sheet was given to each coder, which could be referred to at any time (see appendix F).

2.4.5.5 Organisation of Data All participant interviews were transcribed and organized into data sheets which clearly indicated the examples of disclosure given by the participants. Each unit of data was given a reference number for identification purposes.

2.4.5.6 Pilot Study of Coding Frame In terms of piloting the coding frame, the researcher randomly selected four of the interviews for analysis. As a result of this, the Coding Frame was amended. From the initial interviews it appeared that a major theme was “Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee”, which was not discussed in terms of “Clinical Mistakes”. Therefore, it was decided to divide the theme of “Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee” into the two categories of “Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee” and “Clinical Mistakes”. Further to this, there seemed to be a distinction between problems or issues relating to therapist directed interventions and formulations etc and actual client behaviours. Due to this it was decided to divide “General Client Observations” into “Client Work Concerns” and “Client Behaviours”. “Placement Setting Concerns” was also introduced as a new category based on examples from the data, which seemed to be separate from issues relating to “Supervision Session Concerns”, reflecting the fact that supervision for counselling psychology trainees does not necessarily take place at the placement setting. These changes were discussed and the rationale agreed between the researcher and the independent coders. The Code

Book was also amended to reflect these alterations, increasing the categories from 13 to 16.

2.4.5.7 The Coding After the analysis of the pilot sample, the researcher then analysed the complete data set. In terms of the process, each data sheet was read in its entirety and the various units were allocated to one code as described in the codebook, using the coding form.

2.4.5.8 Final Reliability Sample There are no set rules in deciding how many units should be used in a final reliability assessment, with guidelines varying anything from 10 to 100% (Neuendorf, 2002). Due to this and the specific nature of the data, the researcher decided to require the independent coders to code 100% of the examples of disclosure given by the participants.

2.4.5.9 Procedure for Independent Coders Data was analysed by the independent coders using the coding form and the transcribed interview data. On completion all forms and data were returned to the researcher.

2.5 Results

This section focuses on reporting the results of the interview content analysis and considering the first of the Study's research objectives/hypotheses (Objective 1). Further to this, the section describes the background to the initial development of the DISQ.

2.5.1 Objective 1

To consider the types of issues and concerns relating to clinical practice that counselling psychology trainees disclose in supervision in order to begin the reflective process.

On analyzing the interviews, 15 themes were recognized most of which correspond with those found in the Ladany et al (1996) study. Commentary and a number of quotes from the interviews are given below to give a sense of the types of examples given under each theme.

2.5.1.1 Negative reactions to the supervisor – unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts, feelings or characterizations relating to the supervisor

Examples of negative reactions to the supervisor tend to relate to the perceived quality of the relationship and criticisms of the competency/experience of the supervisor. In terms of the former, Participant 8 discusses the issue of a poor supervisory relationship promoted by the inappropriate behaviours of the supervisor:

“And the third (problem) which occurred early on in my counselling psychology career was actually in the relationship with the supervisor, the relationship wasn't there and I needed to address that.....it was about her bringing into the

supervision things that had come up between us before....and another thing was her asking what I felt were inappropriate questions...” (Participant 8)

Similarly, Participant 10 discusses the perception of a lack of trust in the relationship and its impact on the supervisory process:

“...there have been issues relating to trust I think. Erm, and I’ve felt that it’s been difficult to, erm really to get out of supervision what I wanted. Now, when that was reviewed with the supervisor I was told that it was my responsibility to get out of supervision what I wanted. It had nothing to do with the supervisor...which I thought was a little bit harsh, bearing in mind that some of the sessions didn’t seem to be managed very well.” (Participant 10)

Other examples given, focus on specific criticisms of the skills or knowledge of the supervisor. Participant 13 gives an example of a problem with a supervisor, who failed to normalize and give constructive feedback:

“...when I had at times discussed some difficulty erm, I did not feel that it was....that the response was one that I expected, like normalizing (or) explaining to me...I didn’t have the constructive feedback that I wanted to here...”
(Participant 13)

Whereas Participant 11 describes the issue with a supervisor’s lack of knowledge:

“So I felt that it was quite difficult to implement these techniques.....with my supervisor not being able to help me with that...on some level I knew a little bit more than my supervisor did...” (Participant 11)

Giving two examples under this category, Participant 5 talks about a poor supervisory relationship and again a lack of feedback:

“...I sometimes find that she does not give me a great deal of feedback and I don't feel that I have a good relationship with her at the moment.....in the last session I had to actually say to her erm, am I actually bringing the right stuff to supervision because she would sit there quite blankly and she said “you are doing OK”...” (Participant 5)

2.5.1.2 Personal issues - Thoughts about the self, experiences or problems in the context of the individual's life that may or not be known in public contexts

Issues relating to the private life of the counselling psychology trainee revolve around past and present personal experiences and the impact these have on therapeutic work. For example, Participant 5 describes discussing the emotion she felt after working with a traumatized client for the first time:

“Yes.....the first client that I ever came across brought up quite a lot of emotion for me because until that point I had been seeing people who had their worries and things, but hadn't had any trauma in their life as such.....(with) this particular woman that I saw brought about quite a bit of emotion for me so I found those sessions quite difficult, so I took that to supervision and said you know about the way that I was feeling” (Participant 5)

In another example, Participant 8 talks of the problem of counsellor exhaustion:

“I’ve taken you know...the fact to supervision that I had felt burnt out”
(Participant 8)

Other descriptions discuss specific past experiences, such as those relating to former losses:

“(A supervisee).....the one who is going to run a bereavement group...has had some losses quite close to her, such as her father, erm, which she reflected on during supervision” (Participant 15)

Whilst, Participant 3 talks of a more current concern:

“...once when I was getting married, erm, and I felt that I was under a lot of stress and I was worried that I wasn’t focusing on clients at the time” (Participant 3)

2.5.1.3 Clinical mistakes – Thoughts relating to perceived errors

The majority of participants gave examples of problems relating to perceived clinical mistakes that arose during the course of therapy, ranging from errors relating to ethics to those regarding over-identifying. Participant 15 describes the former:

“I am thinking of this particular therapeutic relationship with this particular trainee has with the client who has been abused and she has worked very hard on

creating a trusting relationship. But one issue came up when she thought she's made a mistake...it was an ethical issue about confidentiality" (Participant 15)

Another example talks of forgetting to provide essential information to a client:

"And I felt kind of settled in the fact that she had said well he's not going to and I'm not going to, you know, harm myself. But what I hadn't done is I hadn't given her contact details like Relate and the Samaritans just in case. So, I felt bad about this and I took that to supervision..." (Participant 12)

Whilst Participant 3 discusses the perceived mistakes made from over-identifying with a client:

".....with one client, I think at the end of the session, I felt that I had made loads of mistakes, erm and I felt that it was because I was over identifying with her children, with her daughters. And I was becoming quite defensive of them and not really hearing her feelings, you know her own...and I made quite a few mistakes where I posed interventions with regards to the girls and not sticking with her feelings and I took that to supervision...." (Participant 3)

2.5.1.4 Feeling inadequate as a trainee – Thoughts relating to a perceived lack of ability to work with a particular client or client group

Another major theme described by the participants, centres on the issue of feeling inadequate when working with clients. Participant 13 talks of feeling anxious about providing effective therapy and wonders whether a more experienced practitioner may have been more appropriate:

“There are different things that over time I have taken to supervision....one aspect had to do with...my fears and anxieties of being a trainee and if I am providing the best, you know for my patient....perhaps someone with more experience would have been able to deal with issues that arise better or in a different way” (Participant 13)

Similarly, in an example given by Participant 1, the supervisor again talks of this issue of trainees feeling incompetent due to a lack of knowledge:

“...a common one with trainees is just feeling incompetent, not experienced enough and being scared of clients....not....not scared because clients are scary, but I mean very anxious with the client, not knowing what to do, wanting to make sure that they do the right thing. You know, just really inexperienced.” (Participant 1)

This insecurity about performance is also highlighted by Participant 11, who discusses the issue being raised by trainees often for purposes of reassurance:

“.....a big part of what trainees have looked to me for is reassurance. You know, that erm, they (need) to be reassured that what they’re doing is, er, okay. Erm, I think that they can have a feeling that there’s some....someone out there, there are other people out there, there’s er, experienced professionals that are, er, doing a much better job and they’ve got so much more to offer”. (Participant 11)

In a more specific example, Participant 2 describes talks of questioning her ability on the basis of having DNA’s:

“...another thing is probably to do with me feeling confident with things like DNA’s and is that normal. Did you get DNA’s and does it mean that I am rubbish and that kind of confidence (and) insecurity. This is what we talked about...” (Participant 2)

2.5.1.5 Evaluation concerns - Uncertainty or uneasiness about the supervisor’s assessment

Some examples were given focusing on issues relating to the evaluation of the supervisor. In one of these, Participant 15, who discusses a supervisee’s fear of being evaluated by the supervisor and the impact this may have on her position:

“...one of the trainees who I’ve worked with for several years has sometimes brought up issues such as she’s worried that she might be in trouble with me at work....and it’s taken a lot of time to build up....that kind of relationship that....and for her to believe me that if I have any issues with her work or conduct or anything like that that I will bring it up directly with her...she’s worried all the time that her job’s on the line” (Participant 15)

2.5.1.6 Client work concerns - Comments about interventions, formulations, interpretations or the counselling process

Perhaps unsurprisingly, all participants gave examples of issues and problems focusing on client work concerns. A number of these are concerned with being unclear on how to proceed and the feeling of “stuckness”. This is clearly described by Participants 6, 5 and 15:

“Another one would be if I’m very confused about a client. I mean if I feel in the session, erm, that I’m very.....If I feel stuck in the session or if I feel that, erm, I don’t know where the client is going.” (Participant 6)

“...I think the one that sort of stands out at the moment is erm, a situation with a client where I am just feeling very stuck with her, I feel as though I am going round in circles with her...” (Participant 5)

“....one of the trainees who’s in her first year, she came saying she just didn’t know what to do with this client...” (Participant 15)

In another example, Participant 14 talks of both of issues relating to keeping the client safe and feeling stuck with clients:

“well the first ones I suppose were issues concerning...clients safety...reports of self harm or suicidal ideation also...feelings of being stuck in that I’d had some ideas of where I was going but the, erm tools of techniques I was using or the approach I was taking did not seem to be shifting anything” (Participant 14)

In terms of other counselling issues, a number of different problems are given by participants. In one example, Participant 1 talks of the problem of boundary setting:

“..... just thinking of (the) most recent person I supervised, there was an issue about boundaries.....where a client (wanted) to be seen at home rather than coming in to the centre..” (Participant 1)

Whilst participant 15 discusses concerns about ending with a particular group of clients:

“....and because the trainees that work with me work with older people, we get a lot of issues...about how to end” (Participant 15)

Some examples describe particular aspects of therapy such as the formulation:

“Another is about um when I am working in particular with this team...is about getting the formulation right about the client” (Participant 8)

Whilst others focus on interventions and the therapeutic models, with Participant 4 and 13 questioning the use of particular interventions and Participant 4, again struggling with the application of a particular theoretical model:

“I think the most usual difficulties that trainees bring to supervision....is not feeling sure how to put a model into clinical practice.” (Participant 4)

“...some of them (relate) to.....if my interventions are the right ones, especially when.....I couldn’t see my patient progressing as I expected them to...”
(Participant 13)

“....another problem for trainees is keeping a conversation going. Trainees find it very difficult to keep the flow in the room and are very fearful of silences.”
(Participant 4)

2.5.1.7 Negative reactions to the client - Unpleasant, disapproving/critical thoughts or feelings relating to the client

Examples of negative feelings towards a client are also given by participants, which describe particular clients and the strong negative emotions that the trainee counselling psychologists feel towards them. In one example, Participant 2 discusses a client who provoked feelings of dislike:

“...I have quite disliked clients to start with erm, we talked about that and that has been really helpful.....I work in a primary care setting and this client came and the hospital I work in is quite shabby and ropey, and she, she was like really well educated, well off woman and she came in and said erm, I asked her how she felt about coming and stuff and she just said erm, you know this place is a dump, I shouldn't be here, it is really appalling, I don't think, you know, that the service can do anything for me blah blah blah. I kind of took that as you know, you are not going to be able to do anything, you are not really good enough to be seeing someone like me, so I didn't like her (and) I talked about that (in supervision)” (Participant 2)

Another participant describes an issue in dealing with a client perceived as tedious:

“I had a client who bored me to tears....I just couldn't perceive staying with him for 24 sessions, seeing as that's what the service provided. It was after the fifth session, I just thought, I can't, I just can't do this anymore. Erm, and I feel, felt quite guilty about those feelings as well, but I have a good relationship with my supervisor and I feel safe about being upfront about my feelings with my clients...” (Participant 3)

Whilst Participant 12 talks of being irritated with a client who is viewed as having relatively minor problems:

“And part of me felt really quite irritated with her, for goodness sake...people manage difficult things all of the time and you blush occasionally and it’s like...it’s completely out of proportion and I do feel somewhat irritated with her and I took it back to my supervisor...” (Participant 12)

In a slightly different type of example Participant 14 discusses feeling emotionally drained by working with depressed clients:

“...I found more problems particularly when I was training (with) some of the clients I saw who were, maybe, very depressed, I found them emotionally draining.....I would come out feeling as though I’d been sucked dry of everything I possessed almost...sort of emotional vampires...” (Participant 14)

Another feeling, that of fear, is described by Participant 3, which is triggered by a potentially violent client:

“...another negative experience was ...feeling very scared with a client, er, you know, I felt very anxious, very nervous, very afraid that he was going to be violent towards me in the session...” (Participant 3)

2.5.1.8 Supervisor-supervisee attraction issues - Thoughts or feelings about the supervisee or supervisor being drawn to the other either physically or sexually

Only one example of supervisor-supervisee attraction was given, which related to a perceived supervisor's attraction to male supervisee:

“I did wonder sometimes whether she...how can I put it...whether she sort of enjoyed having, erm....male supervisees. Not necessarily for a sexual purpose, but because it was easier for her to communicate or talk to them.... (but) I never addressed that.” (Participant 14)

2.5.1.9 Client behaviours - Comments about particular client behaviours

Various examples of client behaviours were given that initiated the reflective process. In the first example, Participant 1 describes supervisees discussing feeling uncomfortable with unusual physical behaviours of clients:

“Client behaviours would be another. The way clients behave in a session. Erm, if you need to talk to clients with weird body language, perhaps sprawl about, or spread about or put their legs up on the desk or something like that” (Participant 1)

Similarly, Participant 6 gave another example of physical client behaviours in describing being troubled by a client who wanted to physically be closer to her:

“I had a client...who was suffocating me in terms of moving closer to me or wanting to touch me. This was something about having no boundaries and I was very disturbed” (Participant 6)

Whilst Participant 9 discusses the difficulty of being faced with a client who could not stop talking:

“And I had one of my clients who was just like talking for ever, and the (supervisor) helped me with that...” (Participant 9)

2.5.1.10 Counter-transferences - Counsellor's identification with the client or statement that a reaction to a client is Countertransference

Several examples were given of problems relating to over-identifying with clients and those of counter-transference. In the problem described by Participant 3, the trainee confuses her own experiences with those of the client, as both came from similar backgrounds:

“.....I think another client I felt very attached to, was someone who was of the same culture as me....and my initial feelings were, oh, I totally got her. You know, I really understand what she's going through and I became very attached to her, erm and I got this feeling that I could be her sister, erm, because I think culturally we're very family orientated as well...” (Participant 3)

Similarly, Participant 5 also talks of identifying with a client who was going through relationship difficulties:

“...I have had a situation where I have identified with a client (who) was a girl and she had problems with her boyfriend and it sounded like a similar situation I have been in and I mentioned this to my supervisor...” (Participant 5)

Other examples appear to focus on aspects of counter-transference, with issues of feeling responsible or nurturing towards a client as expressed by Participant 6:

“...sometimes you get the mother figure feeling, or you get a nurturing role and I was getting this in the session with some of my clients” (Participant 6)

Participant 12 reports a similar concern when working with a young person:

“I do have one young girl that I was working with....and I’d been completely hooked in. And I’d almost....in a way I had stopped feeling like her therapist and I’d lost that sense of objectivity and I was beginning to feel more like her mother...” (Participant 12)

2.5.1.11 Client/counsellor attraction issues - Thoughts or feelings about the counsellor or client being drawn to the other either physically or sexually

A number of comments were categorized under client/counsellor attraction issues, with all examples describing perceived client attraction to the trainee counselling psychologist as opposed to attraction shown by the client trainee counselling psychologist towards the client. Participant 13 talks of such a problem when a client misconstrues the nature of the therapeutic relationship between himself and the client:

“...there was one client I had that was awkward in that, erm, that she seemed to.....it was a mum, who had a child that I was seeing, that she seemed to have formed some kind of unhelpful attachment to me. And, erm, the supervisor in that case was consulted on how to...ensure that there were effective and firm boundaries and how to enforce those” (Participant 14)

In another example, Participant 2 discusses a similar issue with feeling uncomfortable with the attention a male client:

“.....my first client in forensics I talked about erm, a lot about our relationship because I felt uncomfortable about how he would look at me and stuff like that, I talked about that quite a lot.” (Participant 2)

Whilst Participant 13 describes attraction issues that are more overt, with a client making obvious sexual advances to her:

“I have had a patient making sexual advances towards me, you know commenting about me being a young female and attractive and actually shifting the focus of the therapy and the therapeutic work too, you know, to a different kind of relationship and how uncomfortable I felt initially that, you know, I was thinking that it may have to do with me and I used supervision to look into this...” (Participant 13)

2.5.1.12 Positive reactions to the supervisor - Pleasant, approving, or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the supervisor

Some examples were given by the participants relating to positive reactions to the supervisor, with Participant 2 discussing how much she enjoyed meeting the supervisor and her concerns about ending the relationship:

“...the only other thing that I can think of, I don’t know if this is relevant, is that I kind of worry about finishing with the supervisor because I really, really enjoyed it, so I don’t know what it will be like...I think indirectly we have talked about it and I have made jokes about it saying.....”I hope I don’t get an awful supervisor”...” (Participant 2)

2.5.1.13 Supervision session concerns - Thoughts, feelings or reactions regarding the supervisory sessions

A number of problems relating to the actual supervision sessions were classified under this category. Many of these concerns revolved around the quality of the supervisory sessions or difficulties relating to a mismatch of theoretical orientations of the trainee and supervisor. Participant 5 describes the issue of having not enough time during supervision:

“Yeah, I mean we have limited time as well because I only see him half an hour a week and for most of the time I am talking about you know maybe two clients that I have got, but you know I just find that this time goes so quickly that by the time I have given him feedback about what has happened in the session and this kind of thing...by the time I come to the questions the time has gone anyway” (Participant 5)

Similarly, Participant 12 complains of the paucity of supervision and a resultant feeling of not being contained because of this:

“...I had a supervisor that I got on really well with and everyone really liked him, but I didn’t feel at all contained. He felt, you know, that supervision could be done in about 10 minutes or so....that you don’t really need...to book a time and you can just go and knock on his door. The reality is he was often very busy and we were working with very complicated clients and I really needed that time to kind of sit down and go through exactly what was going on, because sometimes my head would be spinning with it...” (Participant 12)

Whereas, Participant 11 describes the issue of working with a supervisor when there is a disparity of theoretical outlook:

“I’ve got a commitment to a client centred or person centred approach to therapy and a lot of the trainees that come to me are on a training programme which has, erm, openness to that approach, but you know, primarily being trained in CBT. So there is an issue there is terms of....working together in a compatible way...” (Participant 11)

Similarly Participant 13 talks of the difficulty of working with a supervisor who has a different theoretical outlook:

“...there were times that I felt that, you know, that I was trying to reflect on my difficulties, but the supervisor was focusing...on how they were experiencing things from their own model of work, which was not helpful in terms of how I wanted to reflect, so I felt that I was not progressing...” (Participant 13)

2.5.1.14 Placement Setting Concerns - Thoughts, feelings or reactions relating to activities or services at the placement setting

Several comments were classified under placement setting concerns, which primarily appears to describe trainees feeling overwhelmed with their client load. Participant 14 gives an example of this:

“...client load has been discussed and if I felt that there was too many I’ve been able to say that I’m a bit overwhelmed at the moment and the supervisor has taken steps to reduce the load or at least to stop new ones coming in” (Participant 14)

In another example, Participant 7 describes a trainee feeling very angry about the inequitable caseloads given to counselling psychology trainees in comparison to clinical trainees:

“There’s been a problem, where a student counselling psychology student has been in an NHS environment with a clinical psychology student and what was happening is the clinical psychology students only takes away two clients a week, whereas this counselling psychology student was given ten because somebody had to get the waiting lists down...so she was very angry about her workload...” (Participant 7)

And again, Participant 12 talks of seeing numerous patients and not having the time to reflect on her client work:

“And I think that in my placements I’ve been really pretty busy, you know. When I was at the hospital I saw six people per day. You don’t get much time to

sit back and think. Yeah, you're just trying to do the best you can in the limited amount of (time) that you have. And I did try to address the issue without being horrendous and that completely blew up in my face...." (Participant 12)

Participant 8 illustrates a different type of issue regarding the placement expecting a particular way of working which differs from what has been learned during training:

"I think where I am at the moment, erm, we are expected to work in quite a unusual way, which....doesn't run easily with the way that we are trained...we are expected to work very briefly and that is another pressure, we are expected to have no waiting lists.." (Participant 8)

Whereas Participant 13 discusses an inappropriate environment for counselling at the placement setting:

"....one of the issues that I had to bring to supervision was that.....confidentiality was not really as it should have been because other teachers could see who was coming in and out of the counselling room, so it was not actually, you know, as confidential as it claimed..." (Participant 13)

2.5.1.15 Positive Feelings about the Client - Pleasant, approving, or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to a client

Descriptions of positive feelings about the client were also made by some of the participants in the study. These seem to relate to feeling positive about the work with a client, as described by Participant 14:

“I’ve commented on things if things have gone really well, possibly because I wanted to feel good about myself and I wanted the supervisor to know that actually I was doing quite a good job” (Participant 14)

Similarly, Participant 2 talks of discussing the same issue in supervision:

“Yeah, I talked about....feeling really positive about clients” (Participant 2)

As explained by Participant 6, these feelings were often taken to supervision as there was concern that any positive feelings may in fact be impeding on the progress of the client:

“Or I have positive feelings about them, like being proud of them....my client moving on....and these were things that I went to supervision with because it may be impacting on the therapy”(Participant 6)

Again, this concern is described in some detail by Participant 3, whose positive feelings clouded her view of what was actually happening during therapy:

“...well there was one client who I felt a really good rapport with and I liked her, I liked her as a person. And I imagined myself, I suppose, being friends with her, outside of therapy, if I’d ever come across her, you know, outside of therapy, erm and then I happened to notice in supervision when I went through my weekly schedule of clients that she’d actually missed quite a few sessions, erm and I was a bit taken aback by that. So although I was sitting in supervision telling my supervisor how nice she was, how I thought I had a great client, erm there was

almost a contradiction with the fact that she wasn't actually attending regular sessions....." (Participant 3)

2.6 Reliability of Coding Frame

On completion of the independent coding, the researcher considered the reliability of the coding frame by conducting a Cohen's kappa test. Although there are a number of reliability coefficients, studies indicate that kappa, which reports the level of agreement or correspondence between coders assessments, is one of the most widely used amongst researchers (Zwick, 1988). Further to this, it seems to be accepted that values above .80 for Cohen's kappa, suggest a high reliability which is beyond chance (Banarjee, Capozzoli, McSweeney, Sinha, 1999).

Table 1 shows the Cohen's kappa statistic produced from the coding of the interview examples. As both kappa scores are above .80, this indicates acceptable reliability.

Table 1
Cohen's kappa Statistic for the Independent Coding of Interview Data

Data Coder B	Researcher and Coder A	Researcher and
Interview Examples	0.86	0.87

2.7 Questionnaire Development

2.7.1 Item Construction

All themes which were discussed during the interviews and were coded in the Final Coding Frame were included as items in the final questionnaire. As the whole purpose of the exercise was to confirm existing themes in the literature, a

theme only had to be discussed once by a participant to be included as an item in the questionnaire.

The category of “Supervisory Appearance” was omitted due to the fact that it was not discussed in any context by the participants and regardless of this, it was also felt that there was some overlap between this and the category of “Negative Feelings towards your Supervisor” making the category redundant. Further to this, it was decided to include “Supervisory-Supervisee Attraction Issues”, which was discussed by one participant as a concern and was disclosed, but not within supervision. In terms of the rationale for this inclusion, the example given did validate one of the Ladany et al (1996) themes and therefore provided a possible issue or concern that could be disclosed in supervision, which was seen to fit with the overall design of the final instrument.

In terms of this design and the wording of the questionnaire, as it was recognized that trainees may not have had the opportunity to experience all of the highlighted issues and concerns, it was decided that instead of simply asking trainees to state which of the fifteen themes they had actually experience of disclosing in supervision, participants were asked instead to rate how comfortable they would feel in disclosing the various issues and concerns with their current supervisor.

Therefore, 15 of the 16 items described in the Final Coding Frame (Appendix B) were retained and produced as questionnaire items (Appendix G).

2.7.2 Questionnaire Instructions

In the instructions it is explained to participants that “the following statements describe issues and concerns that trainee counselling psychologists may experience during the course of their client work and supervision”. Participants are then asked to read each of the fifteen statements and then to rate how comfortable they would feel in disclosing the various issues/concerns to their current supervisor using a five-point Likert scale from 1 Not At All to 5 Very Much So.

2.7.3 Pilot

In order to ensure that the questionnaire made sense and had face validity, the questionnaire was sent to five trainees and supervisors for completion and comment. Highlighting a small number of typographical errors, these amendments were then made before the questionnaire was ready to be distributed in Part 2 of the Study.

2.7.4 Reliability and Validity Testing

Due to the small potential population involved in the study and the likelihood of a small sample, it was decided that any further reliability and validity testing should be conducted post-hoc once the data had been collected in Part 2 of the Study.

However, initial testing based on the first 30 questionnaires returned to the researcher indicated a split-half reliability of around 0.93. Further to this, item discrimination analysis produced correlations from 0.54 to 0.82, which suggests acceptable item discrimination.

CHAPTER 3

How important is the perception of a supportive supervisory environment to the initiation of the reflective process?

3.1 Aim

The aim of Part 2 is to test the hypotheses based on the literature that there is a possible relationship between a supportive supervisory environment and a willingness of counselling psychology trainees to initiate the reflective process through the disclosure of problems and issues of concern. The study also considers the influence of factors such as year of training and levels of counselling experience.

3.2 Methodology and Rationale

With the research aiming to test existing theory and particular hypotheses it was decided to take a quantitative approach using a number of questionnaires. In doing so, the study focuses on an environmental condition of reflection identified in a number of models of supervision and in the general reflection literature. Although personal or individual factors of reflection have also been identified by theorists including the conditions of cognitive ability and personal disposition, which are discussed in the Neufeldt et al (1996) model, it is argued by the researcher that these individual variables are controlled for by recruiting participants from accredited counselling psychology courses. Using a variety of selection procedures including personal statements, group exercises and interviews, these courses purport to select candidates on the basis of them providing evidence of having a mature outlook, being open to their experiences and learning and having some ability to reflect on their experiences. Further to this, all counselling psychology training courses are for post-graduates in

psychology with the majority of courses requiring previous direct counselling experience and/or basic counselling skills training. Therefore, the assumption is made by the study based on the available research regarding cognitive reflective ability and the personal attributes necessary for reflection (Baxter Magolda, 1992; King and Kitchener, 1994; Wong, Loke and Wong, 2001 etc.), that trainees entering professional training will already have some capacity for reflection.

3.3 Design

3.3.1 Power Analysis

A priori power analysis for sample size was based on recommendations for both Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Multiple Regression. Although guidelines suggest that samples of over 300 are desirable for any type of factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996), it is argued that both samples of at least 5 participants per variable or those samples ranging between 75 and 100 are entirely adequate for conducting this type of analysis (Kass and Tinsley, 1979; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong, 1999; Sapnas and Zeller, 2002).

In terms of considering sample size for the purpose of multiple regression, calculations were based on the conventions of Cohen (1988). Therefore, with power set at .80, where $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = .20$ and assuming a medium sized relationship between dependent and five independent variables ($r^2 = 0.13$), it was calculated that any multiple regression study required at least 104 participants.

Therefore, taking these recommendations and conventions into account it was deemed necessary to aim to recruit at least 104 participants.

3.3.2 Actual Sample

Data was collected from a cross-section of one hundred and twenty three students currently enrolled on a number of accredited British Psychological Society (BPS) counselling psychology programmes. Consisting of three years of professional training (Years 1, 2 and 3), successful completion of these programmes lead to chartered counselling psychologist status with the BPS. All participants from Years 1, 2 and 3 were considered for the study.

Seven counselling psychology programmes agreed to take part in the research, out of the nine programmes that were originally invited to participate. Given such a small potential population it was felt appropriate that all available trainees should be given the opportunity to participate from across the three years of training. Therefore, 340 trainees received research packets. With 123 trainees completing and returning the questionnaires, the response rate was approximately 37%.

3.3.3 Sample Demographics

In terms of participant background, ages ranged from 21 to over 40 ($M = 30$ to 35 range, $SD = 1.86$), with 37.4% of participants falling in the 26 to 30 category (see Table 2 below).

Table 2
Age Range of Participant

Age	N	Percent %
21-25	23	18.7
26-30	46	37.4
31-35	13	10.6
36-40	13	10.6
40+	28	22.8
Total	123	100.0

In considering participants by their year of training, numbers were roughly evenly spread across the three years with over a third of participants in Year 1 of their training (see Table 3 below).

Table 3
Participants by Year of Training

Year of Training	N	Percent %
Year 1	45	36.6
Year 2	42	33.3
Year 3	37	30.1
Total	123	100.0

The gender breakdown of the sample was 88.6% female and 11.4% male (see Table 4 below).

Table 4
Participants by Gender

Gender	N	Percent %
Male	14	11.4
Female	109	88.6
Total	123	100.0

There was an even distribution of participants across the highest qualification categories of undergraduate and postgraduate (see Table 5 below).

Table 5
Highest Qualification of Participant

Highest Qualification	N	Percent %
Undergraduate	62	51.2
Postgraduate	61	48.8
Total	123	100.0

Similarly participants were spread more or less evenly across the category of counselling experience, although just over a third of all participants described themselves as having 3 or more years of experience (see Table 6 below).

Table 6
Counselling Experience of Participant

Counselling Experience	N	Percent %
0 to 1	26	21.1
1 to 2	31	25.2
2 to 3	27	22.0
3+	39	31.7
Total	123	100.0

Again, participants were also spread relatively equally across the different levels of supervision experience, with the 29.3% having 3 or more years of supervision (see Table 7 below).

Table 7
Supervision Experience of Participant

Supervision Experience	N	Percent %
0 to 1	29	23.6
1 to 2	30	24.4
2 to 3	28	22.7
3+	36	29.3
Total	123	100.0

The majority of participants described the theoretical orientation of their supervisor as being CBT, Eclectic/Integrative or Psychodynamic (30.9%, 26.8% and 22% respectively), (see Table 8 below).

Table 8
Theoretical Orientation of Supervisor

Theoretical Orientation	N	Percent %
CBT	38	30.9
Psychodynamic	27	22.0
Humanistic/Person Centred	18	14.6
Eclectic/Integrative	33	26.8
Other	7	5.7
Total	123	100.0

In terms of participant ethnicity, over two-thirds of all participants described themselves as British (see Table 9).

Table 9
Ethnicity of Participant

Ethnicity	N	Percent %
British	81	65.9
Other	42	34.1
Total	123	100.0

3.4 Instruments

Three questionnaires were administered, including the Revised Relationship Inventory (RRI; Schacht et al., 1988), the Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI; Olk and Friedlander, 1988) and the DISQ produced in Study 1 of the research project. Both the RRI and the RCRAI measured different aspects of the supervisory environment as described in the literature. Permission was sought and granted to administer the RRI from both Dr Barrett-Lennard and Dr Anita Schacht (Appendix H). As part of this permission, the researcher was able to fully describe the RRI in the study; however, this did not extend to including a full copy of the inventory in the appendices.

3.4.1 Demographics Information Sheet

Participants were also asked to complete a demographics information sheet, which required responses relating to participant age, gender and year of training, experience of counselling and supervision and the theoretical orientation of the supervisor (see Appendix E).

3.4.2 The Revised Relationship Inventory (RRI)

Developed in 1988 by Schacht, Howe and Berman, the RRI assesses the perceived facilitative quality of the relationship within supervision. The RRI is

one of many adaptations of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory or BLRI (Barrett-Lennard, 1962), which was initially produced to measure the facilitative conditions of Rogers (Rogers, 1957) within the counselling relationship. As such, the inventory samples the perception of the presence of empathic understanding, congruence, level of regard and unconditionality of regard within a dyadic relationship (Barrett-Lennard, 1978). Since the introduction of the original BLRI, numerous revisions of the inventory have been produced to measure the facilitative conditions within many different types of relationships and also to reduce the number of items from 92 to 85 and then to 64 items. Used in hundreds of studies, the BLRI as an instrument has been shown to be reliable and valid in all forms (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, 1969, 1978; Lin, 1973; Gurman, 1977).

Despite this, the 64-item BLRI has been viewed as being too lengthy for use in research studies. As a result, a number of shorter forms have been produced, particularly for use in the field of marital counselling, many of which it has argued have been poorly executed (Schacht et al, 1988). However, there are some exceptions, including an inventory produced by Wiebe and Pearce (1973), in which the original 92-item BLRI was reduced to provide a shorter robust inventory consisting of 32 items and four scales. This example was then further refined by Dalton (1983), who as part of a larger study focusing on supervisory relationships, added a further three items from the original BLRI empathy scale to construct a 35-item inventory.

For the RRI, Schacht et al (1988) utilized the Dalton (1983) revision and included five items from the Willingness to be Known subscale, which was a

fifth subscale included in the original 94-item BLRI. Schacht et al (1988) argue that Willingness to be Known subscale should be included as a separate factor as opposed to being seen as part of the Congruence subscale as this factor has theoretical support and is an important element of the supervision process. Consisting of 40 items, the RRI consists of the following subscales:

3.4.2.1 Regard Barrett-Lennard describes regard as a person's affective response to another (Barrett-Lennard, 1961). Seen on a positive-to-negative continuum, high regard is described in terms of warmth, caring and respect. This is in contrast to low regard, which promotes feelings such as aversion, anger and dislike (Barrett-Lennard, 1986).

3.4.2.2 Empathic Understanding This term describes the degree to which the person empathizing is conscious of the immediate awareness of the other. Through this active and involved process, the empathizer attempts to understand another's perspective and sense of their world through communicating their understanding and interpretation of the other's experience or feelings. Empathic understanding implies a deeper understanding of what is communicated and it is argued that high levels of empathy tend to accompany high levels of regard (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

3.4.2.3 Unconditionality Unconditionality is defined as the consistency of regard felt by one person for another. Therefore, with high unconditionality, an individual's affective response to another would remain constant despite any changes in the other's attitudes, emotions or experiences. (Barrett-Lennard, 1986).

3.4.2.4 Congruence Congruence describes the extent to which one person is fully integrated in terms of his/her experience, awareness and communication whilst being in a relationship with another. High congruence results in honest and direct communication where there is no inconsistency in what is said and what is felt by an individual (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

3.4.2.5 Willingness to be Known This term is defined as a person's willingness to reveal or disclose him/herself to another. High levels of willingness to be known involve exchanging and sharing experiences and feelings regarding the self, other and also about the relational context (Barrett-Lennard, 1962).

Schacht et al (1988) found that the five scales correlated significantly with each other, at the 0.5 level or greater, with inter-correlations ranging from .72 to .17. These results are consistent with Barrett-Lennard's (1986) contention that theoretically the scales should be at least moderately correlated but not so highly correlated that they appear to be measuring the same construct. Schacht et al's (1988) results also illustrated that unlike in previous studies, the congruence and willingness to be known scales were not highly correlated, indicating that two separate constructs were being measured.

Further to this, a principal factor analysis with iterations was produced by Schacht et al (1988) for the five scales, which resulted in only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Accounting for most of the variance, congruence loaded most strongly on to this factor. This is consistent with Barrett-Lennard's (1962) contention that congruence is the precondition and limiting variable for

all of the other facilitative conditions. The second highest loading was the empathic understanding scale followed by the scales for regard, unconditionality and willingness to be known. These findings again are consistent with other research findings, which have found one principal factor onto which regard, empathy and congruence load most heavily (Miles and Zytowski, 1967; Lanning and Lemons, 1974; Lin, 1973).

3.4.2.6 Inventory Instructions For this present study, instructions for the inventory were as follows “Please rate using the following scales your current supervisor (referred to as S). Circle the number to the right of each item which corresponds to how strongly you feel each statement is true or not true according to the key below”. The instructions of the RRI were changed from those used in the original wider Schacht et al (1988) study as the researcher was interested in current as opposed to past supervisory experiences. As discussed by Schacht et al (1988), it was felt that the inventory could be easily reworded to pertain to current supervisors. Therefore, the wording of the items was also altered from the past to the present tense. For example, Item 1 became “S respects me” as opposed to “S/he respected me”. Also for simplicity in referring to the supervisor, the use of “S/he” was replaced with “S” for supervisor. In another recent study conducted by Gomez (2003) which used the RRI to consider the current supervisory environment, the researcher reworded the instructions, but not the items. However, on considering this approach, it was felt that participants may have found this confusing when attempting to focus on the current supervisory relationship.

In terms of completing and scoring the inventory, using a 6-point Likert scale, participants are asked to select one of the following responses for each of the 40 statements : “I strongly feel it is not true” (1); “I feel that it is not true” (2); “I feel that it is probably untrue; more untrue than true” (3); “I feel that it is true; more true than untrue” (4); “I feel that it is true” (5); “I strongly feel that it is true” (6). Items are worded both positively and negatively and on completion of the inventory the negative items are recoded to ensure that a high score corresponded to a perception of high levels of facilitative conditions, with the highest possible overall score being 240 (Schacht et al, 1988).

3.4.3 Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory

The Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory or RCRAI (1992) is a 29-item instrument which assesses a trainee’s experience of role difficulties within supervision (appendix I). Developed by Olk and Friedlander (1992), the RCRAI is seen as predictive of work-related anxiety and dissatisfaction with client work and supervision through measuring the perception of Role Conflict (RC) and Role Ambiguity (RA) within the supervisory environment. Producing the two subscales for the RCRAI, these concepts are described as follows:

3.4.3.1 Role Conflict With supervisees being forced to operate in a number of different roles including those of student, colleague and client, role conflict is viewed as a potential problem for the trainee in supervision. Therefore, role conflict is defined as occurring when a supervisee is forced to take on a number of different roles within supervision which require contradictory behaviours or when a supervisee is expected to behave in a manner

which is incongruent with their own views or opinion (Ladany and Friedlander, 1995).

3.4.3.2 Role Ambiguity Closely allied to role conflict, role ambiguity transpires when a supervisee is uncertain about the role expectations required of him or her by either the supervisor or counselling agency.

It is argued that the presence of role conflict and ambiguity is minimized by a role induction or contracting process in which the supervisee and supervisor discuss and negotiate their expectations and responsibilities regarding the supervisory process and could include an open discussion about the conflict inherent in supervision and how any future potential conflict will be addressed. Any discussions may be agreed verbally or formally documented to form a supervisory contract, to ensure that the supervisee is clear about the nature and expectations of the supervisory process (Nelson and Friedlander, 2001).

In developing the RCRAI, a principal components factor with the varimax rotation was generated to provide more information about the underlying dimensions of the scale. 6 items emerged which had eigenvalues greater than 1. However, on the basis of conventional criteria, 2 factors were retained which were easily interpretable. All items loaded more highly onto one factor and none loaded more than .40 on both. The two factors that emerged reflected the concepts of role ambiguity and role conflict. Three items that were originally coded as role ambiguity items and loaded more highly on to the role conflict scale were recoded to reflect this. Both orthogonal and oblique rotations produced similar results. Further to this, in order to ascertain construct validity a

canonical analysis was conducted which indicated that the full model, when using the role conflict and role ambiguity scores as predictors and scores of other questionnaires as criterion variables, was highly significant (Pillai's trace = .55, $F(8,432) = 20.39$, $p < .0001$) (Olk and Friedlander, 1992).

3.4.3.3 Inventory Instructions In terms of the inventory instructions and scoring, for this current study, participants are asked to read a number of statements that describe a variety of issues that trainee counselling psychologists may experience during the course of supervision. For purposes of clarity, the instructions were slightly altered from the original inventory, with "therapist-in-training" being replaced with the more relevant "trainee counselling psychologist". On reading the twenty-nine negatively worded items, participants are required to rate their response to each statement using a five-point Likert scale, which ranges from 1 Not At All to 5 Very Much So. The subtotals of the 16 RA items and the 13 RC items are then combined to arrive at an overall score. With a highest possible score of 145, a high score indicates conflict and/or ambiguity within the supervisory relationship/environment and an overall dissatisfaction with supervision.

3.5 Procedure

The researcher contacted all counselling psychology course directors by e-mail requesting their permission to visit their respective training sites to administer the questionnaires (Appendix J). If granted permission to attend the sites in person, the researcher discussed the purpose of the study at the end of lectures and distributed the instruments to interested participants. If this was not

possible, course directors distributed the questionnaires at the end of a teaching period or tutorial.

Due to the very busy scheduling of counselling psychology training programmes, it was decided that participants would be given the questionnaires to complete in their own time. Full instructions were given to each participant in the form of an information sheet and consent form, which discussed the purpose of the study and the expectations of participation. It was clearly stated that the questionnaires should be completed with their current supervisor in mind. Further to this, as it is not uncommon for a trainee to have more than one supervisor, participants were required to focus on only one of their current supervisors. Stamped addressed envelopes were included in the research packets to allow the questionnaires to be posted back to the researcher for collation and analysis.

3.5.1 Confidentiality

All the participants were informed that their participation in the study was completely voluntary and that they had the option of withdrawing at any time. It was also stated that data from the questionnaires would be kept confidential and that names or any identifying characteristics would not be included. When collating the data, participants were given an identifying number from between 1 and 123. To ensure that individuals had read the contents of the information and consent form in agreeing to participate, they were asked to sign the bottom of one of the consent forms, which was returned with the questionnaires.

3.6 Statistical Testing

3.6.1 Suitability of Data

Prior to statistical analysis, the data was explored through a variety of SPSS programmes to ascertain accuracy of data entry, distribution fit and the assumptions necessary for parametric testing. This initial exploration indicated non-normal distributions and the presence of a number of outliers, together with associated unacceptably high levels of skewness and kurtosis. There was no missing data.

On considering improving the normality of individual variables, it was ascertained, by comparing the mean and 5% trimmed mean, that transforming individual univariate outliers would have a limited impact on normality (Pallant, 2005). Further to this, as it could not be established that any outliers were obvious mistakes and also that the data could only have been provided by counselling psychology trainees, then it was decided that these outliers should be viewed as properly part of the sample population and could not be legitimately deleted. Therefore, due to this, all the variable data was transformed to improve normality, linearity, skewness and kurtosis.

Initially, the data was transformed in preparation for the various principal components analyses. Although it is not always necessary for factor analyses data to meet the assumptions required for parametric testing, as the research aimed to determine the number of factors as opposed to simply summarizing the relationships between any observed variables, normality was assumed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). Therefore, all individual

questionnaire/inventory items were transformed dependent on whether the data was positively or negatively skewed and the level of skew.

Based on the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), negatively skewed data with moderate levels of skew was transformed using Reflect and Logarithm (LG10) and negatively skewed data with high levels of skew were transformed using Reflect and Square Root (SQRT) transformations. Positively skewed data with high levels of skew was transformed using the Base 10 Logarithm transformation (LG10) and positively skewed data with moderate levels of skew was transformed using the Square Root transformation (SQRT). Those variables indicating extreme levels of skew were transformed using the Inverse transformation function. Also where necessary, variables were re-reflected to indicate the original direction of the variable. As a result of these operations, the impact of any outliers was reduced and the data produced normal or near normal distributions and more satisfactory levels of skewness and kurtosis. Therefore, $N = 123$ for the initial analysis of the variables and the principal components analyses.

In preparation for correlation, Anova and regression analyses, further appropriate transformations were conducted on both scale totals and scale subtotals, which again produced normal or near normal distributions. To consider multivariate outliers, a regression analysis was generated, which identified three cases (case 24, 76 and 117) with standardized residuals above 3. Reviewing SPSS influence statistics, none of the cases had a Cook's distance greater than 1 and all were within the boundary of three times the average leverage value. Also following the Mahalanobis distance guidelines for outliers,

none of the cases came close to exceeding the criterion of 13.816 (based on two predictors). However, on reviewing the calculated lower and upper limits of the covariance ratio (CVR), which measures whether a case influences the variance of the parameters in a regression model, all three cases produced CVR values that were considerably less than the lower limit of acceptable values (minimum of .926). Therefore, to improve the parameters of any regression model it was decided to delete all three outliers for the correlation and regression analyses (N = 120).

Also as part of the initial statistical testing, the scales were tested for adequate internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha and also were explored using split-half reliability testing. Exploratory Principal Components Analyses (PCA) were also conducted to ensure the factor structure for each of the scale's items. It was expected that the structures of the instruments from previous studies would be replicated for the trainee counselling psychologist sample.

3.6.2 Analysis of Research Hypotheses

3.6.2.1 Hypothesis 1 A Pearson-product moment correlation was computed between a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process (measured by the DISQ) and perceptions of a facilitative supervisory relationship (measured by the RRI).

3.6.2.2 Hypothesis 2 A Pearson-product moment correlation was computed between a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process (measured by the DISQ) and the perceptions of a conflictual/ambiguous supervisory relationship/environment (measured by the RCRAI).

3.6.2.3 Hypothesis 3 A number of exploratory one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to test this hypothesis. The independent variables included year of training, experience of counselling and experience of supervision, while the dependent variables were a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process (measured by the DISQ) and the perceptions of a supportive environment (measured by the RRI and RCRAI).

3.6.2.4 Hypothesis 4 A number of standard multiple regressions were conducted to ascertain the extent to which perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment (measured by the RRI and the RCRAI) predict a willingness to begin the reflective process (measured by the DISQ).

3.7 Results

There are three parts to this results section. The first of these continues the development of the DISQ by attempting to consider the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, using principal components analysis and reliability measures. Following this, the section considers the reliabilities and principal components analyses for the both the RRI and RCRAI. The section then concentrates on producing the findings for each of the study's hypotheses.

3.8 Further Development of DISQ

3.8.1 Overall Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ

Tables 10 and 11 show the means and standard deviations for the DISQ total, sub-scales and items using untransformed data.

Table 10
Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for DISQ

Score	Mean	Std. Deviation	Range of Scores	N
DISQ Total	55.4	9.6	18-75	123
Subscale C	40.8	7.2	10-50	123
Subscale S	14.7	3.9	5-25	123

Table 11
Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for DISQ Items

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1	2.4	1.1	123
2	3.6	1.1	123
3	4.1	.93	123
4	4.2	.87	123
5	3.2	1.0	123
6	4.3	.85	123
7	4.2	.91	123
8	4.6	.85	123
9	4.2	.89	123
10	3.3	1.1	123
11	3.6	1.1	123
12	3.4	1.0	123
13	4.0	.99	123
14	2.2	1.2	123
15	4.2	.94	123

Table 10 indicates that there is more variability in the Counsellor/Counselling Issues Subscale than the Supervisor/Supervisory Issues Subscale. In terms of individual items, Table 11 suggests that item 8 is the most highly rated item with the highest mean (client behaviours) and item 1 (negative reactions to the supervisor) and item 14 (supervisor-supervisee attraction issues) are the lowest rated items.

3.8.2 Principal Components Analysis of DISQ

In order to understand the underlying structure of the questionnaire and to validate the presence of two components relating to counsellor/counselling concerns and supervisor/supervisory concerns, the 15 items of the DISQ were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA). PCA also corresponded with the exploratory nature of the study and the assumption that any results would only apply to the study’s sample (Field, 2005).

Prior to performing a full PCA the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. Further to this, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .86, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (6.1, 2.0 and 1.0), explaining 41.0%, 13.5%, 6.9% of the variance respectively. However, on the basis of the conventional criteria of scree test, parsimony and interpretability it was decided to retain a two-factor solution. This was further supported by the results of Parallel Analysis (see Table 12 below), which showed only two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated matrix of the same size (15 variables x 123 respondents) (Pallant, 2004).

In order to aid the interpretation of these two components, an oblique (Direct Oblimin) rotation was performed (see Table 13 and 14 below), with the criteria for interpreting factor loadings set at .45, which indicates an acceptable 20% overlapping variance (Comrey and Lee, 1992).

An oblique rotation was chosen as it was suspected that there would be some correlation between the components. The results of the rotation confirmed this suspicion, with the component correlation matrix showing a positive correlation of .31. Therefore, due to these findings independence between the components could not be assumed, deeming it appropriate to interpret the oblique rotation (Field, 2005).

On interpreting the Pattern Matrix (see Table 13 below) the components are clearly interpretable with all items loading more heavily on to one of the two components and with no items loading over .45 on both components. The Structure Matrix supports these findings, with again all items loading more strongly on to one of the two components (see Table 14 below).

The two-component solution explained a total of 54.5% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 41.0% and Component 2 contributing 13.5%. In interpreting the two components, Component 1 relates to Counsellor and Counselling issues and concerns and Component 2 relates to Supervisor and Supervision issues and concerns. The results of the analysis support the tentative use of these two scales. All subsequent analysis was conducted with this final version of the questionnaire. Estimated factor scores were produced by summing the scores on the variables which load most highly on each factor. Although this is a very simple method of estimation, this method correlates with more complex procedures of developing factor scores (Kline, 1994) and is recommended for scales which are untested or exploratory (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1992; Grice, 2001).

Table 12
Comparison of PCA Eigenvalues with Corresponding Parallel Analysis
Criterion Values

Component number	Actual PCA eigenvalue	Criterion Value parallel analysis	Decision
1	6.114	1.658	Accept
2	2.024	1.503	Accept
3	1.027	1.376	Reject
4	.850	1.285	Reject
5	.747	1.190	Reject

Table 13
Direct Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solution for DISQ items – Pattern Matrix

Item	Factor Loadings	
	Component 1	Component 2
Counselling/Counsellor Issues and Concerns Scale		
2. Personal Issues	.46	.30
3. Clinical Mistakes	.76	.01
4. Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee	.76	-.01
6. Client Work Concerns	.73	-.06
7. Negative Reactions to Client	.84	-.03
8. Client Behaviours	.86	-.20
9. Countertransference	.83	-.02
10. Client-Counsellor Attraction Issues	.45	.35
13. Placement Setting Concerns	.58	.33
15. Positive Reactions to a Client	.70	.02
Supervision/Supervisory Issues and Concerns Scale		
1. Negative Reactions to Supervisor	-.12	.79
5. Evaluation Concerns	.23	.46
11. Positive Reactions to Supervisor	.35	.49
12. Supervision Session Concerns	.26	.68
14. Supervisee-Supervisor Attraction Issues	-.24	.82

Table 14
 Direct Oblimin Rotation of Two Factor Solution for DISQ items – Structure Matrix

Item	Factor Loadings	
	Component 1	Component 2
Counselling/Counsellor Issues and Concerns Scale		
2. Personal Issues	.55	.44
3. Clinical Mistakes	.76	.24
4. Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee	.76	.23
6. Client Work Concerns	.71	.16
7. Negative Reactions to Client	.83	.23
8. Client Behaviours	.80	.07
9. Countertransference	.82	.22
10. Client-Counsellor Attraction Issues	.56	.49
13. Placement Setting Concerns	.68	.51
15. Positive Reactions to a Client	.70	.23
Supervision/Supervisory Issues and Concerns Scale		
1. Negative Reactions to Supervisor	.12	.75
5. Evaluation Concerns	.37	.53
11. Positive Reactions to Supervisor	.50	.59
12. Supervision Session Concerns	.47	.76
14. Supervisee-Supervisor Attraction Issues	.02	.76

3.8.3 Reliability of DISQ

Cronbach alphas were produced to determine the internal reliabilities of the DISQ subtotals and total (see Table 15 below).

Table 15
Cronbach Alpha Reliability of DISQ Total and Subscales

DISQ	Alpha
C Subscale	.89
S Subscale	.74
DISQ Total	.87

Due to the impracticality of producing test-retest reliability statistics with such a small sample, it was decided to produce a split-half statistic, which estimates reliability from splitting a test in half and then correlating the two halves (Kline, 2000). This split-half statistic produced an alpha of .84.

All the reliability statistics indicate acceptable levels of reliability. The S Subscale produced the lowest alpha, however, alphas over the .7 range for this type of attitude test are deemed to be acceptable (Pallant, 2000). Further to this, the two scales were found to be positively correlated ($r = .40 > 0.01$).

3.9 Reliability and Correlations of RRI and RCRAI

Descriptive statistics and Cronbach alphas were produced to determine the internal reliabilities of the RRI and RCRAI scales for the current study. These reliabilities (Table 16 and 17 below) give an indication of how well the items within each particular scale relate to each other. Overall, reliabilities across the

instruments and scales ranged from .74 to .95, comparing favourably with findings from other studies.

Table 16
Cronbach Alpha Reliability of RRI Total and Subscales

Scales of RRI	40a	40b	35c	64d	85e	Current Study
Regards	.85	.88	.87	.91	.83	.89
Empathic Understanding	.77	.86	.84	.88	.64	.83
Congruence	.79	.87	.91	.92	.80	.81
Unconditionality	.82	.87	.83	.76	.73	.85
Willingness to be Known	.72	.70			.76	.74
Total	.92		.95		.93	.95

a Schacht el al (1988) N = 152; b Gomez (2003) N = 213; c Dalton (1983) N = 61; d Lin (1983) N = 48; e Wiebe & Pearce (1973) N= 57.

Table 17
Cronbach Alpha Reliability of RCRAI Total and Subscales

Scales of RCRAI	Olk and Friedlander	Current Study
Role Conflict	.89	.81
Role Ambiguity	.91	.92
Total Score	-	.93

Also to further consider the reliability of the inventories, split-half reliability statistics were produced for the RRI and RCRAI. Again these indicated acceptable levels of reliability (see Table 18 below), which suggest that the instruments can be reliable for trainee counselling psychologists.

Table 18
Split-half Reliability Statistics for RRI and RCRAI

Instrument	Split-half Statistic
RRI	.93
RCRAI	.90

3.10 Principal Components Analyses of RRI and RCRAI

3.10.1 PCA of RRI

A series of principal components analyses using orthogonal varimax rotation, were conducted to determine if the structure for the RRI would replicate for the current sample. Five components were initially extracted for the RRI in an attempt to reproduce the Schacht et al (1988) study. This five-component solution explained 59.4% of the variance. Component 1 explained 40.9%, Component 2 6.2%, Component 3 4.8%, Component 4 4.1% and Component 5 3.4%. In the literature, the first factor was reported as Congruence and the second as Empathic Regard followed by Regard, Willingness to be Known and Unconditionality occurring in any order. For the trainee counselling psychology sample (see Table 19 below) Component 1 consisted of a mixture of Empathic Understanding, Congruence and Unconditionality of Regard items whereas Component 2 was distinctly defined by those items relating to Unconditionality of Regard, with some overlap with Empathic Understanding and Congruence items. Component 3 consists mainly of the Willingness to be Known items mixed with a few items belonging to Congruence and Unconditionality of Regard. The remaining two components, which accounted for around 7.5% of the variance, did not reveal a clear pattern for the items.

Therefore, for the current sample, it appears that the RRI factors are only moderately comparable to the factors found in Schacht et al (1988) study, with only around two-thirds of the items loading onto factors that corresponded with the various RRI subscales. Paralleling the results of the study produced by Gomez (2003), who employed the RRI in studying the quality of the supervisory relationship in relation to cross-cultural issues, these findings agree with Ellis and Ladany (1997) in their review of the supervision research literature, who suggest that due to replication difficulties, only the overall RRI total score should be used in any statistical analysis.

3.10.2 PCA of RCRAI

As with the RRI, a number of varimax orthogonal rotations were conducted to attempt to replicate the component structure found in the original RCRAI study (Olk and Friedlander, 1992). In the original, the two-factor solution accounted for 45% of the variance and the results were highly interpretable reflecting trainees' experience of both. With the current sample of trainee counselling psychologists, the two-factor solution explained 50.7% of the variance, with Component 1 accounting for 43.5% and Component 2 forming 7.2% of the variance. Fifteen out of the fourteen Role Ambiguity items loaded highly onto Component 1 and eleven out of the thirteen Role Conflict items loaded onto Component 2 (see Table 20 below). Three of the variables did not load as expected and on reviewing these items (items 14, 15 and 23) two of these (items 14 and 23) were complex variables in that they produced similar significant loadings on both components (over .4). The Role Conflict Item 15 loaded highly onto Component 1 with the Role Conflict items, which may be as a result of it's rather ambiguous two-part statement (When using a new technique,

I was unclear about the specific steps involved. As a result I wasn't sure about how my supervisor would evaluate my work). However, removing these items made little difference to the overall reliability of the scales indicating that the scale totals as well as the RCRAI total scores could be used in further analyses, but with some caution.

Therefore, approximately 90% of the items loaded onto factors corresponding to the RCRAI subscales of Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict, indicating that the factors found in the current study are highly comparable to those found in the original study.

Table 19
Component Structure of RRI Items for Current Sample

Subscale	Components				
	1	2	3	4	5
Empathic Understanding					
Item 2	.59	.13	.32	-.00	.19
Item 6	.44	.56	.08	.02	.09
Item 10	.64	-.04	.01	.15	.03
Item 14	.75	.18	.23	.13	.08
Item 18	.60	.45	.06	.00	.25
Item 22	.63	.323	.16	.23	.19
Item 26	.61	.26	.37	.22	.15
Item 30	.42	.39	.01	-.05	.49
Item 34	.29	.27	.10	.11	.52
Item 40	.18	.04	.02	.11	.75
Regard					
Item 1	.47	.63	.07	.11	.14
Item 5	.10	.71	.25	.14	.03
Item 9	.26	.76	.10	.20	.00
Item 13	.16	.72	.29	.21	.12
Item 17	.15	.64	.02	.30	.16
Item 21	.44	.51	.32	.19	.09
Item 25	.42	.73	.12	.17	.15
Item 29	.04	-.65	-.19	.14	-.16
Item 33	.29	.16	.48	.44	.12
Item 37	.25	.30	.21	.54	.13
Willingness To Be Known					
Item 4	.32	-.06	.61	-.11	-.12
Item 12	.17	.43	.51	.11	.35
Item 20	.18	.25	.70	.21	.02
Item 28	.23	.13	.75	.08	.06
Item 36	.49	.46	.09	.17	.28
Congruence					
Item 3	.63	.28	.10	.18	.20
Item 7	.64	.20	.38	.14	.16
Item 11	-.02	.23	.45	.22	.21
Item 15	.02	.17	.40	.05	.53
Item 19	.58	.33	.05	.14	.35
Item 23	.43	.32	.37	.23	.02
Item 27	.65	.25	.40	.13	.09
Item 31	.46	.12	.55	.20	.22
Item 35	.40	.40	-.16	-.01	.40
Item 39	.03	-.14	.04	.63	.48
Unconditionality of Regard					
Item 8	.70	.12	.28	.17	.13
Item 16	.62	.22	.33	.43	.00
Item 24	.46	.25	.07	.60	-.02
Item 32	.56	.21	.38	.50	.05
Item 38	.29	.34	.24	.64	.10

Table 20
Component Structure of RCRAI Items for Current Sample

Subscale	Components	
	1	2
Role Ambiguity		
Item 1	.73	.06
Item 4	.64	.38
Item 8	.73	-.03
Item 9	.68	.02
Item 11	.53	.39
Item 12	.57	.40
Item 13	.62	.36
Item 18	.58	.51
Item 20	.78	.18
Item 21	.65	.25
Item 23	.54	.59
Item 24	.55	.39
Item 26	.61	.25
Item 27	.55	.51
Item 28	.75	.37
Item 29	.74	.28
Role Conflict		
Item 2	.03	.48
Item 3	.40	.59
Item 5	.10	.51
Item 6	.28	.62
Item 7	.28	.69
Item 10	-.03	.43
Item 14	.55	.52
Item 15	.73	.37
Item 16	.25	.74
Item 17	.39	.61
Item 19	.40	.48
Item 22	.35	.68
Item 25	.19	.67

3.11 Hypothesis Testing

3.11.1 Hypothesis 1

Counselling psychology trainees will be more willing to disclose in supervision to begin the reflective process if they perceive that there is a facilitative supervisory relationship.

3.11.1.1 Descriptive statistics Table 21 reports the overall mean score and standard deviation of the RRI, based on both the transformed and untransformed data.

Table 21
Mean, Standard Deviation and Score Range for RRI

Scale	Mean	Std. Deviation	Score Range	N
RRI	180.48	30.23	84-228	123
RRI sqrt	6.62	2.18	1-12	123

3.11.1.2 Inferential statistics Pearson Correlation Coefficients in Table 22 indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between perceiving that there is a facilitative supervisory relationship and a willingness to disclose to and begin the reflective process.

Table 22
Pearson Correlation Coefficients for DISQ and RRI

Pearson Correlation	1.	2.	3.	4.
1. DISQ sqrt	1.00	.91**	.73**	.55**
2. DISQ C sqrt	.91**	1.00	.40**	.48**
3. DISQ S sqrt	.73**	.40**	1.00	.40**
4. RRI sqrt	.55**	.48**	.40**	1.00
Sig (1-tailed)	1.	2.	3.	4.
1. DISQ sqrt		.00	.00	.00
2. DISQ C sqrt	.00		.00	.00
3. DISQ S sqrt	.00	.00		.00
4. RRI sqrt	.00	.00	.00	
**p<0.01 (1-tailed)				

3.11.2 Hypothesis 2

Counselling psychology trainees will be less willing to disclose in supervision to begin the reflective process if they perceive that the roles and expectations of supervision are ambiguous and/or conflictual.

3.11.2.1 Descriptive Statistics Table 23 reports the overall mean score and standard deviation of the RCRAI, based on both the transformed and untransformed data.

Table 23
Mean, Standard Deviation and Score Range for RCRAI

Scale	Mean	Std. Deviation	Score Range	N
RCRAI	57.5	20.9	29-109	123
RCRAI log	-1.7	-2.0	-2.0-1.5	123

3.11.2.2 Inferential Statistics Pearson Correlation Coefficients in Table

24 below indicates that there is a negative relationship between perceiving that the roles and expectations in supervision are ambiguous and/or conflictual and a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process.

Table 24
Pearson Correlation Coefficients for DISQ and RCRAI

Pearson Correlation	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. DISQ sqrt	1.00	.91**	.73**	-.47**	-.44**	-.45**
2. DISQ C sqrt	.91**	1.00	.41**	-.39**	-.36**	-.36**
3. DISQ S sqrt	.73**	.40**	1.00	-.41**	-.36**	-.41**
4. RCRAI log	-.47**	-.38**	-.41**	1.00	.90**	.97**
5. RC log	-.44**	-.36**	-.36**	.90**	1.00	.76**
6. RA log	-.45**	-.36**	-.40**	.97**	.76**	1.00

Sig (1-tailed)	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. DISQ sqrt		.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
2. DISQ C sqrt	.00		.00	.00	.00	.00
3. DISQ S sqrt	.00	.00		.00	.00	.00
4. RCRAI log	.00	.00	.00		.00	.00
5. RC log	.00	.00	.00	.00		.00
6. RA log	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	

**p<0.01 (1-tailed)

3.11.3 Hypothesis 3

Does trainee experience in terms of year of training and experience of client work and supervision interact with perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment and a willingness to disclose to begin the process of reflection?

A number of one-way analyses of variance were conducted to explore the impact of year of training, experience of counselling and supervision on a willingness to disclose (DISQ total and subtotals) and a supportive supervisory environment (RRI and RCRAI totals).

3.11.3.1 Year of Training - Descriptive Statistics Tables 25 and 26 report the percentage mean scores and standard deviations for the DISQ total, DISQ subscales, RRI and RCRAI totals, by year of training.

Table 25
Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Year of Training

Year of Training		DISQ sqrt	DISQ C sqrt	DISQ S sqrt
Year 1	Mean	4.5	3.0	3.2
	N	45	45	45
	SD	1.0	1.0	.52
Year 2	Mean	4.4	3.1	3.1
	N	41	41	41
	SD	.91	.98	.50
Year 3	Mean	4.2	2.8	3.0
	N	34	34	34
	SD	.52	.78	.56

Table 26
Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Year of Training

Year of Training		RRI sqrt	RCRAI log
Year 1	Mean	6.7	-1.7
	N	45	45
	SD	2.2	.13
Year 2	Mean	6.7	-1.7
	N	41	41
	SD	2.1	.16
Year 3	Mean	6.3	-1.7
	N	34	34
	SD	2.3	.17

3.11.3.2 *Year of Training – Inferential Statistics* Table 27 below indicates that no significant variance was found between Year of Training and a willingness to disclose [$F(2,117) = 1.2, p=.31$], [$F(2,117) = .57, p=.57$], [$F(2,117) = 1.6, p=.20$]. Further to this, as highlighted in Table 28 below, no significant variance was found between Year of Training and perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment defined by the RRI and RCRAI [$F(2,117) = .43, p = .65$], [$F(2,117) = .06, p=.94$].

Table 27
Analyses of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Year of Training

DISQ sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	2.22	2	1.08	1.19	.31
Within Groups	105.7	117	.904		
Total	126.2	119			

DISQ C sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	1.05	2	.523	.572	.57
Within Groups	107.1	117	.904		
Total	108.1	119			

DISQ S sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	.886	2	.443	1.61	.20
Within Groups	32.1	117	.275		
Total	33.0	119			

Table 28
Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Year of Training

RRI sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	4.1	2	1.08	.43	.65
Within Groups	561.7	117	4.8		
Total	565.8	119			

RCRAI log	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	.003	2	.002	.06	.94
Within Groups	2.9	117	.03		
Total	2.9	119			

3.11.3.3 Counselling Experience of Trainee – Descriptive Statistics

Tables 29 and 30 below reports the mean scores and standard deviations for the DISQ total, DISQ Subscales, RRI and RCRAI totals, by counselling experience of trainee.

Table 29
Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Counselling Experience of Trainee

Counselling Experience (Years)		DISQ sqrt	DISQ C sqrt	DISQ S sqrt
0 - 1	Mean	4.5	3.0	4.5
	N	26	26	26
	SD	.86	.87	.87
1 - 2	Mean	4.5	3.0	4.5
	N	31	31	31
	SD	1.13	1.21	1.14
2 - 3	Mean	4.3	2.9	4.4
	N	27	27	27
	SD	.86	.86	.89
3+	Mean	4.3	3.0	4.2
	N	36	36	36
	SD	.94	.86	.87

Table 30
Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Counselling Experience of Trainee

Counselling Experience (Years)		RRI sqrt	RCRAI log
0 - 1	Mean	7.1	-1.7
	N	26	26
	SD	2.1	.14
1 - 2	Mean	6.4	-1.7
	N	31	31
	SD	2.3	.16
2 - 3	Mean	6.3	-1.7
	N	27	27
	SD	2.5	.16
3+	Mean	6.6	-1.7
	N	34	36
	SD	1.9	.16

3.11.3.4 Counselling Experience – Inferential Statistics Table 31

indicates that no significant variance was found between Counselling Experience and a willingness to disclose [$F(3,116) = .52, p = .67$], [$F(3,116) = .09, p = .97$], [$F(3,116) = 1.61, p = .20$]. Also no significant variance was found between Counselling Experience and perceptions of a supportive environment defined by the RRI and RCRAI [$F(3,116) = .72, p = .54$], [$F(3,116) = .87, p = .46$]

Table 31
Analysis of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Counselling Experience of Trainee

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
DISQ sqrt					
Between Groups	1.42	3	.47	.52	.67
Within Groups	106.46	117	.92		
Total	107.88	119			
DISQ C sqrt					
Between Groups	.25	3	.08	.09	.97
Within Groups	107.86	117	.93		
Total	108.11	119			
DISQ S sqrt					
Between Groups	.89	2	.44	1.61	.20
Within Groups	32.14	117	.28		
Total	33.03	119			

Table 32
Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Counselling Experience of Trainee

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
RRI sqrt					
Between Groups	10.3	3	3.4	.72	.54
Within Groups	105.7	116	4.8		
Total	126.2	119			
RCRAI log					
Between Groups	.063	3	.021	.87	.46
Within Groups	2.8	116	.024		
Total	2.8	119			

3.11.3.5 Supervision Experience of Trainee – Descriptive Statistics

Tables 33 and 34 report the mean scores and standard deviations for the DISQ total, DISQ Subscales, RRI and RCRAI totals, by supervision experience of the trainee.

Table 33
Means and Standard Deviations for DISQ total, DISQ Subscale C and DISQ Subscale S by Supervision Experience of Trainee

Supervision Experience (Years)		DISQ sqrt	DISQ C sqrt	DISQ S sqrt
0 - 1	Mean	3.3	3.0	3.3
	N	45	45	45
	SD	.48	.90	.48
1 - 2	Mean	3.1	3.1	3.1
	N	41	41	41
	SD	.59	1.22	.60
2 - 3	Mean	4.4	3.0	3.2
	N	34	34	34
	SD	.89	.87	.44
3+	Mean	4.2	3.0	2.9
	N	34	34	34
	SD	.87	.81	.29

Table 34
Means and Standard Deviations for RRI and RCRAI totals by Supervision Experience of Trainee

Supervision Experience (Years)		RRI sqrt	RCRAI log
0 - 1	Mean	7.1	-1.7
	N	29	29
	SD	2.0	.13
1 - 2	Mean	6.2	-1.7
	N	30	30
	SD	2.4	.16
2 - 3	Mean	6.5	-1.8
	N	28	28
	SD	2.5	.15
3+	Mean	6.6	-1.7
	N	33	33
	SD	1.9	.16

3.11.3.6 Supervision Experience of Trainee – Inferential Statistics Table 35 indicates that no significant variance was found between supervision experience and a willingness to disclose (DISQ total and DISQ Subscale C total) [F (3,120) = 1.1, p=.32), F (3,120) =.22, p=.87). However, on exploring the influence of these factors on the DISQ Subscales, a one-way analysis of variance exploring the impact of experience of supervision on the willingness to disclose supervisor/supervision issues/concerns (measured by DISQ Subscale S) indicates that there is a significant difference at the p<0.05 level in DISQ Subscale S scores for the four levels of supervision experience (F (3, 120) =2.7, p=.04). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, of .07 indicates a medium effect (Cohen, 1988). Post-hoc comparisons using the Bonferonni test suggests that the mean score for those with over 3 years’ experience of supervision was significantly different from those with between 0 to 1 years’ experience.

Table 35
 Analysis of Variance of Willingness to Disclose by Supervision Experience of Trainee

DISQ sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	3.20	3	1.07	1.18	.32
Within Groups	104.69	116	1.18		
Total	107.88	119			

DISQ C sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	3.20	3	1.07	1.18	.32
Within Groups	104.69	116	1.18		
Total	107.88	119			

DISQ S sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	2.17	3	.73	2.7	.04
Within Groups	30.86	116	.26		
Total	33.0	119			

Table 36 below indicates that no significant variance was found between supervisor experience and perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment defined by the RRI and RCRAI [F (3,116) = .88, p=.45), F (3,116) = 1.1, p=.34)

Table 36
 Analyses of Variance of a Supportive Supervisory Environment by Supervision Experience of Trainee

RRI sqrt	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	12.7	3	4.2	.88	.45
Within Groups	553.1	116	4.8		
Total	565.8	119			

RCRAI log	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	.08	3	.03	1.14	.34
Within Groups	2.8	116	.02		
Total	2.9	119			

3.11.4 Hypothesis 4

To what extent does the perception of a supportive supervisory relationship (as measured by the RRI and RCRAI) predict a willingness to disclose in order to begin the reflective process?

A number of standard multiple regressions were performed between a willingness to disclose (DISQ total square root, Subscale C square root and Subscale S square root) as the dependent variable with perceptions of a facilitative supervisory relationship (RRI total square root) and perceptions of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/or conflictual (RCRAI total log, RA log and RC log) as the independent variables. The Multiple Regression Results tables below display the correlation between variables, the unstandardised regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardised regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2), R^2 , adjusted R^2 and 95% confidence limits.

3.11.4.1 Multiple Regression 1

Table 37
Multiple Regression Analysis 1 - Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose

	DISQ (sqrt) (DV)	RRI (sqrt)	RCRAI (log)	B	β	sr^2 (unique)
Constant				1.04		
RRI (Sqrt)	.55			.19	.43	.11
RCRAI (log)	-.47	-.63		-1.2	-.20	-0.3
Mean	4.4	6.6	-1.7			
SD	.95	2.2	.16			
					Intercept = 0.14	
					$R^2 = .33^a$	
					Adjusted $R^2 = .32$	
					$R = .57^{**}$	

**** p < .01** ^aUnique variability = 0.13; shared variability = 0.20 95% confidence limits from 0.19 to 0.46

In Table 37, R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(2, 117) = 28.77, p < .001$, with R^2 at .33 and 95% confidence limits from 0.19 to 0.46. The adjusted R^2 value of .32 indicates that just over a third of the variability in a willingness to disclose is predicted by the perception of a facilitative supervisory relationship together with the perception of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/conflictual. 95% confidence limits were calculated both coefficients. The confidence limits for RRI were .10 to .27 and those for RCRAI were -2.4 to -0.4.

In combination, the two independent variables contributed another 0.14 in shared variability. In total 33% (32% adjusted) of the willingness to disclose and to begin the reflective process in supervision was predicted by the scores provided by these variables. It appears that the more a trainee perceives the supervisory relationship to be a facilitative one, then the more likely the trainee will be willing to disclose in supervisory sessions, whilst the perception of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/or conflictual results in a trainee being less likely to disclose issues and concerns within supervision. However, it appears that between the two variables, a facilitative relationship is much more important in this process, as indicated by the squared part correlations.

3.11.4.2 Multiple Regression 2

Table 38
Multiple Regression Analysis 2 - Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Counsellor/Counselling Issues/Concerns

	DISQ C(sqrt) (DV)	RRI (sqrt)	RCRAI (log)	B	β	sr ² (unique)
Constant				.50		
RRI	.48			.18	.40	.096
(sqrt)						
RCRAI	-.38	-.63		-.77	-.13	-0.009
(log)						
Mean	3.0	6.6	-1.7			
SD	.95	2.2	.16			
					Intercept = 0.23	
					R ² = .24 ^a	
					Adjusted R ² = .23	
					R = .49**	

** p < .01 ^aUnique variability = 0.11; shared variability = 0.13 95% confidence limits from 0.12 to 0.37

In Table 38, R for regressions was again significantly different from zero, $F(2, 117) = 18.46, p < .001$, with R^2 at .24 and 95% confidence limits from 0.12 to 0.37. The adjusted R^2 value of .23 indicates that around a quarter of the variability is predicted by the two variables. With the 95% confidence limits, the RRI had confidence limits of .09 to .27 and the RCRAI had limits of between -2.0 and .50.

In combination, the two independent variables contributed another 0.23 in shared variance. In total 24% (23% adjusted) of a willingness to disclose was predicted by the scores provided by these variables. It appears that the more a trainee perceives the supervisory relationship to be a positive one, then the more likely the trainee will be willing to disclose counselling issues and concerns, with the opposite being the case if the roles and expectations of supervision are perceived as ambiguous and/or conflictual. However, it seems that the

perception of a facilitative relationship is more predictive of this process, as indicated by the squared part correlations.

3.11.4.3 Multiple Regression 3

Table 39
Multiple Regression Analysis 3 - Effects of a Perceived Facilitative and Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Supervisory Issues/Concerns

	DISQ S(sqrt) (DV)	RRI (sqrt)	RCRAI (log)	B	β	sr ² (unique)
Constant				1.19		
RRI (sqrt)	.40			.06	.23	.03
RCRAI (log)	-.41	.63		-.89	-.25	.04
Mean	3.1	6.6	-1.7			
SD	.52	2.2	.16			
					Intercept = 0.13	
					R ² = .20 ^a	
					Adjusted R ² = .18	
					R = .44**	

** p < .01 ^aUnique variability = 0.07; shared variability = 0.13 95% confidence limits from 0.17 to 0.34

In Table 39, R for regressions was again significantly different from zero, F (2, 117) = 14.40, p < .001, with R² at .20 and 95% confidence limits from 0.17 to 0.34. The adjusted R² value of .18 indicates that around a fifth of the variability is predicted by the two variables. With the 95% confidence limits, the RRI had confidence limits of .004 to .11 and the RCRAI had limits of between -1.6 and -.17.

In combination, the two independent variables contributed another 0.13 in shared variance. In total 20% (18% adjusted) of a willingness to disclose was predicted by the scores provided by these variables. It appears that the more a trainee perceives the supervisory relationship to be a positive one, then the more

likely the trainee will be willing to disclose supervisory issues and concerns, with the opposite being the case if the roles and expectations of supervision are perceived as ambiguous and/or conflictual. However, it seems that the perception of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/or conflictual is more predictive of this process, as indicated by the squared part correlations.

3.11.4.4 Multiple Regression 4

Table 40
Multiple Regression Analysis 4 - Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose

	DISQ (sqrt) (DV)	RA (log)	RC (log)	B	β	sr ² (unique)
Constant				.22		
RA (Log)	-.45	.76		-1.51	-.27	.03
RC (Log)	-.44			-1.42	-.24	.02
Mean	4.4	-1.5	-1.3			
SD	.95	.17	.16			
					Intercept = 0.16	
					R ² = .22 ^a	
					Adjusted R ² = .21	
					R = .47**	

** p < .01 ^aUnique variability = 0.05; shared variability = 0.17 95% confidence limits from 0.18 to 0.35

In Table 40, R for regressions was again significantly different from zero, F (2, 117) = 10.13, p < .001, with R² at .15 and 95% confidence limits from 0.18 to .35. The adjusted R² value of .13 indicates that relatively small amount of the variability is predicted by the two variables. With the 95% confidence limits, the RA total log has confidence limits of -.2.5 to -.39 and RC total log of between - 3.0 and -.26.

In combination, the two independent variables contributed another 0.16 in shared variance. In total 15% (13% adjusted) of a willingness to disclose was predicted by the scores provided by these variables. It appears that the more a trainee perceives the roles and expectations of supervision to be ambiguous and/or conflictual the less likely they are to be willing to disclose. Although it appears that the perception of roles and expectations in supervision as ambiguous is more predictive of this process, as indicated by the squared part correlations.

3.11.4.5 Multiple Regression 5

Table 41
Multiple Regression Analysis 5 - Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Counsellor/Counselling Concerns and Issues

	DISQ C (sqrt) (DV)	RA (log)	RC (log)	B	β	sr ² (unique)
Constant				-.39		
RA (log)	-.36			-1.07	-.19	.03
RC (log)	-.36	.76		-1.32	-.22	.04
Mean	3.0	-1.5	-1.3			
SD	.95	.17	.16			
					Intercept = 0.08	
					R ² = .15 ^a	
					Adjusted R ² = .13	
					R = .38**	

** p < .01 ^aUnique variability = 0.04; shared variability = 0.11 95% confidence limits from 0.04 to 0.27

In Table 41, R for regressions was again significantly different from zero, F (2, 117) = 10.12, p < .001, with R² at .15 and 95% confidence limits from 0.04 to 0.27. The adjusted R² value of .13 indicates that relatively small amount of the variability is predicted by the two variables. With the 95% confidence limits,

the RA total log has confidence limits of -.25 to -.39 and RC total log of between -3.0 and -.26.

In combination, the two independent variables contributed another 0.08 in shared variance. In total 17% (15% adjusted) of a willingness to disclose was predicted by the scores provided by these variables. It appears that the more a trainee perceives the supervisory relationship to be ambiguous and/or conflictual the less likely they are to be willing to disclose counsellor/counselling issues and concerns. Although it appears that the perception of an conflictual supervisory relationship is more predictive of this process, as indicated by the squared part correlations.

3.11.4.6 Multiple Regression 6

Table 42
Multiple Regression Analysis 6 - Effects of a Perceived Conflictual/Ambiguous Supervisory Environment on a Willingness to Disclose Supervisor/Supervision Concerns and Issues

	DISQ S (sqrt) (DV)	RA (log)	RC (log)	B	β	sr ² (unique)
Constant				1.11		
RA (log)	-.40			-.98	-.31	.09
RC (log)	-.36	.76		-.39	-.12	.01
Mean	3.1	-1.5	-1.3			
SD	.52	.17	.16			
					Intercept = .08	
					R ² = .15 ^a	
					Adjusted R ² = .17	
					R = .41**	

** p < .01 ^aUnique variability = 0.05; shared variability = 0.10 95% confidence limits from 0.04 to 0.27

In Table 42, R for regressions was again significantly different from zero, F (2, 117) = 11.82, p < .001, with R² at .17 and 95% confidence limits from 0.04

**PAGE
MISSING
IN
ORIGINAL**

the roles and expectations of supervision are ambiguous and/or conflictual and a willingness to disclose (Hypothesis 2).

In considering the experience of the trainee counselling psychologist in terms of Year of Training, Counselling and Supervisory experience, it was found that these variables had no impact on a willingness to disclose and a supportive supervisory environment, although those in the sample with up to one years' experience of supervision were apparently more willing to disclose issues related to supervisor/supervision issues/concerns than those with over three years of supervisory experience (Hypothesis 3).

On examining the extent to which the measures of a supportive supervisory relationship predict a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process, it was found that the RRI and RCRAI explained a third of the variance found in the willingness to disclose. The strongest predictor of the overall willingness to disclose was the RRI in measuring perceptions of a facilitative relationship. However, when considering the various subscales used in the study, the strongest predictor of the supervisor/supervision DISQ sub-scale was the RCRAI in measuring perceptions roles and expectations of supervision being conflictual and/ambiguous. Further to this, it appears that the RA sub-scale measuring perceptions of role ambiguity in supervision, was more predictive of a willingness to disclose than perceptions of role conflict (Hypothesis 4).

Chapter 4 – Discussion

4.1 Introduction

Considering one of the intervening conditions of reflection described in the Neufeldt et al (1996) model of reflectivity in supervision, the overall purpose of this research was to examine to what extent perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment impacts on the initiation of the reflective process, in which a trainee discloses a problem or issue that has arisen during the course of client work or supervision. Utilising both the general and specific reflection literatures, the supportive supervisory environment is described in terms of the facilitative conditions and supervision in which roles and expectations are clearly defined for the supervisee. These concepts were measured by the RRI (Schacht et al., 1988) and the RCRAI (Olk, and Friedlander, 1992) respectively. In this final chapter, there will be a consideration of the results and implications of the research. As part of this, an overview of the research findings will be provided followed by an interpretation of the individual research findings and their research implications. The chapter will then focus on describing the limitations of the study and the implications for professional practice before concluding the study.

4.2 Overview of Research Findings

Despite a general acknowledgement that the reflective process is encouraged by the presence of a supportive environment (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Anning, 1988; Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1993; Shapiro and Reiff, 1993; Hoshmand, 1994; Neufeldt, Iverson and Juntunen, 1994; Neufeldt, Karno and Nelson, 1996 etc.), this assumption is to a greater extent theoretical and untested, highlighting an important area for further research. Therefore, defining a

supportive supervisory environment in terms of the perception of the facilitative core conditions and supervision in which roles and expectations are clearly defined, the research sought to explore the impact of this on a willingness to disclose to begin the reflection process within a sample of counselling psychology trainees. In investigating this assumption the results of the research found that a supportive supervisory environment did impact on the reflective process. More specifically, there was a positive relationship between the perception of a supervisor demonstrating the facilitative conditions and a willingness to disclose. Further to this, it was found that there was a significant negative relationship between the perception of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/or conflictual and a willingness to begin the reflective process. The experience of the trainee counselling psychologist in terms of year of training, counselling and supervisory experienced had little impact on the reflective process. Also in considering the predictive nature of the measures used in the study, the perception of the facilitative conditions was the strongest predictor of a trainee being willing to begin the reflective process within supervision.

4.3 Interpretation of Findings and Research Implications

In this section, each research finding will be discussed in terms of their implications relating to existing theory and possibilities for future research.

4.3.1 The counselling psychology trainee sample began the reflective process by disclosing issues and concerns relating both to client and supervision sessions.

The analysis of the interview data based on the themes of the Ladany et al (1996) study, proved to be an effective method in identifying potential triggers of the reflective process. Producing fifteen categories describing examples of disclosure made by supervisees during the course of supervision in order to begin the reflective process, these categories cover a variety of issues or concerns relating specifically to either therapy or supervision sessions. With the majority of categories relating to therapy sessions, these issues/concerns ranged from positive reactions to the client to negative reactions to the supervisor, with most examples given by participants being defined under the category of client work concerns. Unsurprisingly, these problems/issues corresponded to those discussed by Ladany et al (1996), and other studies that have focused on the problems and issues that trainees choose not to disclose with their supervisor during supervision (Webb and Wheeler, 1998; Walsh et al, 2002), thereby offering new insights into the supervisory process. Also, in highlighting the two categories of client and supervisor issues/concerns this endorses the acknowledgement of Neufeldt et al (1996), who accept that although their model focuses on reflecting upon problems that occur during the course of client work, triggers of reflection probably also arise during supervision. Therefore, the findings from this study indicate that the Neufeldt et al (1996) model could be enhanced by explicitly discussing both types of potential triggers of the reflective process.

Despite the similarities, some qualitative difference and emphasis was found between the themes described by the current research and those found in the findings of the Ladany et al (1996) study. Partly these differences were due to practical issues, for example, UK counselling trainees often have supervisors who are independent from their placements, which resulted in the separation of the placement and supervision theme into two categories. Other interpretations of any difference are purely speculative and include the possibility that any disparity may partly be as a result of the different emphasis and methods of the two studies, with perhaps the participants of the Ladany et al (1996) study being more candid about the issues/concerns they chose not to reflect due to being asked to provide examples via an anonymous questionnaire as opposed to being interviewed. This may account for the emphasis on clinical mistakes and also the discussion of sensitive themes such as supervisor appearance. The background of the participants may have had an impact on the themes discussed, with the Ladany et al study (1996) consisting mainly of advanced counselling (63%) and clinical trainees (21%), whilst the current much smaller sample only included counselling psychology practitioners and was comprised of supervisors and newly qualified counselling psychologists together with all levels of trainee. Associated with this possibility is that any dissimilarities may also relate to the different training models used in the US and UK in the development of counselling psychologists. With courses in the US based on the practicum model with gradual exposure to client work, (Murdock, Alcorn, Heesacker and Stoltenberg, 1998), courses in the UK follow more of what is described as an applied learning model (Browne and Corne, 2004), with trainees starting their practical internships from the very beginning of the training programme and

courses often requiring some previous client experience. As a result of this, the median client experience of the advanced trainees in the Ladany et al (1996) study is 1 year, compared to the median of 1 to 2 years in the current sample, despite consisting of both beginners and more experienced trainees. This increased overall level of experience may again have led to a different emphasis on the issues/concerns discussed by the current participants?

Regardless of any differences, the final fifteen categories provided the basis of the Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire (DISQ), which in turn proved to be a useful measure of the initiation of the reflective process, producing good reliability and validity. In order to provide further evidence of this, it would be beneficial for the questionnaire to be used in future research studies. For example, in considering the effect of reflective practice, although the literature implies that the reflection process promotes competence in the practitioner few studies in the general reflection literature have focused on the impact of reflective practice on the patient or client. Therefore, the DISQ could be utilized in a study exploring the impact of a willingness to disclose in supervision and therapy outcome. Does a practitioner who is more willing to disclose to begin the reflective process provide more effective therapy than those who are less willing to disclose?

With the first research objective and development of the DISQ providing evidence for the initiation of the reflective process as described by Neufeldt et al (1996) and others, the findings stress the need for supervisors to be aware of the process of reflection and that the disclosure of a problem or issue by the supervisee is an attempt to begin the reflective process. According to Neufeldt et

al (1996), after this initiation of the reflective sequence supervisors should not try to simply inform a supervisee what to do next, but instead should encourage the supervisee to attempt to clarify and solve the problem by utilising different strategies including modelling a reflective stance themselves. Therefore, further research is warranted to consider the development of the reflective process within supervision.

4.3.2 Counselling psychology trainees were more willing to disclose in supervision and to begin the reflective process if they perceived that there was a facilitative supervisory relationship.

The research reported here indicates that the counselling psychology trainees were more willing to begin the reflective process if they perceived that there was a facilitative supervisory relationship. In reviewing the significance of the relationship between the RRI and DISQ totals scores this suggests a large statistical effect (Cohen, 1988). The relationship between the RRI total and the subscales DISQ C and DISQ S indicate that there is a slightly stronger relationship between the perception of a facilitative relationship and a willingness to disclose issues and concerns relating to the counsellor/counselling sessions. Overall, these findings stress the necessity for supervisors to demonstrate the facilitative conditions in order to encourage the trainee to begin the reflective process by disclosing problems and concerns that have arisen during the course of therapy and supervision.

With the RRI defining a facilitative supervisory relationship in terms of the core conditions of regard, unconditional positive regard, congruence, empathic understanding and a willingness to be known, the findings support the

concept of a supportive relationship. Discussed both in the general and more specific counsellor/therapist literature it is through this relationship providing a safe environment that encourages the trainee to reflect (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1993; Shapiro and Reiff, 1993; Hoshmand, 1994; Neufeldt, Iverson and Juntunen 1994; Francis, 1995; Knights, 1995; Ward and House, 1998; Glazer, Abbott and Harris, 2004). Although despite this finding, the results do not specify which, if any, of the core conditions as described by the RRI are differentially significant in the promotion of reflective practice. This limitation arose from the study only being able to utilise the overall scores of the RRI, as the structure of the original RRI could not be fully replicated with the current sample of counselling psychology trainees. Therefore, there is a clear need to conduct further research with the aim of enhancing the structure of the RRI subscales in order to clarify the relative importance of the individual core conditions on the initiation of the reflective process.

In addition to confirming the need for a supportive relationship, the findings also serve to further define the supervisory environment discussed by Neufeldt et al (1996), which although discusses the need for a “good supervisory relationship” and a supervisory environment which provides a safe place to reflect, as part of the category of the supervisory environment, does not specifically define this concept. A facilitative relationship, which provides a supportive supervisory environment through the core conditions and a willingness to be known, helps to clarify the concept of a good/safe supervisory environment described in the model and in the wider reflection literature. Further to this, the findings validate the existing supervision literature which equates effective supervision with the provision of the facilitative conditions

within supervision (Pierce and Shauble, 1970; Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth, 1982; Hutt, Scott and King, 1983; Carifio and Hess, 1987; Martin, Goodyear and Newton, 1987; Schacht, Howe and Berman, 1988; Worthington and MacNeill, 1996).

4.3.3 Counselling psychology trainees were less willing to disclose in supervision and to begin the reflective process if they perceived the roles and expectations of supervision to be ambiguous and/or conflictual.

Counselling psychology trainees were less willing to disclose problems/issues in order to begin the reflective process if they perceived the roles and expectations of supervision to be ambiguous and/or conflictual. In common with the first research hypothesis the relationship between the RCRAI and DISQ highlights a large statistical effect (Cohen, 1988). In considering the relationships between the RCRAI and the sub-scales DISQ C and DISQ S, the findings indicate that there is a stronger negative relationship between perceptions of the roles and expectations of supervision being ambiguous and/or conflictual and a willingness to disclose problems/issues relating to the supervisor/supervision. Similarly, when considering the relationships between the various sub-scales of the RCRAI and the DISQ, all indicate similar significant negative associations, although there appears to be a slightly larger significant negative relationship between the DISQ S sub-scale and the RA sub-scale compared to the relationship between the DISQ S and the RC subscale, stressing that the perceptions of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous, potentially have more of an impact on a willingness to disclose.

Again, these findings appear to correspond with the ideas found in the literature and imply that clearly defined roles and expectations can positively encourage the reflective process and vice versa (Schön, 1987; Richert, 1990; Yeung, Jones and Webb, 2001; Cole, 2005). Further to this, as in the previous research objective, the RCRAI helps to clarify another possible aspect of Neufeldt et al's (1996) supervisory environment with the absence of ambiguity and/or conflict in supervision allowing the trainee to feel safe and more willing to disclose issues and concerns in order to begin the reflective process. In considering the implications of these findings, this suggests that to encourage the reflective process, supervisors need to contract for supervision either formally or informally to ensure that the roles and expectations of supervision are discussed and clearly defined for both the supervisor and supervisee.

4.3.4 Experience in terms of year of training and years' of client and supervision experience had little impact on the extent to which counselling psychology trainees were willing to disclose to begin the reflective process.

In attempting to ascertain whether or not the experience of the counselling psychology trainee interacted with a willingness to disclose and the perception of a supportive supervisory environment, the study considered the impact of the experience of the counselling psychology trainee as defined by the variables of Year of Training, Counselling and Supervisory Experience. On initially focusing on the extent to which experience impacts on a willingness to disclose, it was found that the variables pertaining to experience had a negligible impact on a willingness to disclose. For instance, in considering Year of Training, no differences were found between the different levels of trainee and their willingness to disclose both issues and concerns relating to the

counsellor/counselling or supervisor/supervision. The results also indicated that there were no differences when considering the relationship between the variables of experience and those relating to a supportive supervisory environment as measured by the RRI and RCRAI. According to the literature, it is argued that a trainee faces a great deal of anxiety during the period of professional training (Rønnestad and Skovholt, 1993; Skovholt and Rønnestad, 1992a, 1992b), which requires the presence of a supportive supervisory environment, especially for the less experienced trainee (Heppner and Roehlke, 1984). Conversely, this implies that the more experienced a trainee, the more willing they may be to begin the process of reflection regardless of their perceptions of the supervisory environment, which is also the argument made by Taylor when discussing trainee teacher development (Taylor, 1997). However, the findings of this study seem to suggest that this is not necessarily the case and even experienced third year trainees within the sample seem to have required a perception of a supportive supervisory environment in order to feel safe enough to disclose in order to begin the reflective process.

One unexpected difference was found in that those who had three or more years' experience of supervision, appeared to be less willing to disclose issues relating to the supervisor/supervision than those who had only up to one years' experience of the supervisory process. It is unclear why this may be the case, although perhaps the findings reflect an element of a good participant effect (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991), in that the less experienced trainees may have scored the questionnaire items relating to the supervisor/supervision in a way they felt that the researcher wanted them to score the items? Another possibility is that these findings could also indicate that more experienced trainees may have

felt more cautious in disclosing these types of issues and concerns due perhaps to previous unsatisfactory experiences of disclosure or as a result of concerns about the political ramifications of disclosing such issues or concerns due to the fact that they perhaps were more likely to be employed and their supervisor may also have been their line manager?

These results seem to support the premise of the study that variables relating to individual conditions of reflection are controlled for in the research, by recruiting counselling psychology trainees from accredited courses, who are selected for their capacity and willingness to reflect upon their experiences. Therefore, in considering the finding for this research objective, it is unsurprising that no relationship was found in the counselling psychology sample between experience and a willingness to disclose in order to begin the reflective process. As expected, all trainees in the sample showed some willingness to reflect on their experiences.

In terms of future research, as no significant relationships were found between the experience of the counselling psychology trainees, their perceptions of a supportive supervisory environment and a willingness to disclose, it would seem prudent to extend the study in the future to include more experienced practitioners. What do experienced counselling psychologists disclose in order to reflect in supervision? Are there differences in the issues and problems disclosed by trainees and experienced practitioners? As with trainee counselling psychologists, does a supportive supervisory environment also influence chartered counselling psychologists in their willingness to begin the reflective process? In considering these questions, a similar approach to the current study

could be taken using a post-qualified sample, or alternatively, a longitudinal study could be conducted in which individuals are followed through their professional training and as post-qualified practitioners, in order to clarify any differences between the two groups.

4.3.5 The perception of a facilitative supervisory relationship as measured by the RRI was most predictive of a willingness of counselling psychology trainees to disclose in order to begin the reflective process.

The facilitative conditions as measured by the RRI, was the strongest predictor of an overall willingness to disclose issues and concerns in supervision. Although perceptions of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and /or conflictual as measured by the RCRAI, also predicted a negative impact on being willing to disclose, the findings indicate that it is not as predictive as the facilitative conditions as discussed by Barrett-Lennard (1962) and Schacht, (1988).

Focusing on the DISQ subscales, the facilitative conditions were again the strongest predictor of a willingness to disclose issues and concerns relating to the counsellor/counselling. However, the perception of the roles and expectations of supervision as ambiguous and/or conflictual was slightly more predictive than the facilitative conditions of a willingness to disclose supervisor/supervision issues and concerns. Further to this, in reviewing the predictive nature of the RCRAI sub-scales, the Role Ambiguity subscale was slightly more predictive than the Role Conflict sub-scale in an overall willingness to disclose and was clearly more predictive of a willingness to disclose supervisory/supervision issues and concerns. These findings equate

with those in the literature, in that the items included in the Role Ambiguity subscale closely associate with the concept of having a clear supervisory contract in which the roles and expectations of supervision are clearly defined (Olk and Friedlander, 1992; Ladany and Friedlander, 1995; Nelson and Friedlander, 2001).

Despite the predictive nature of the RRI and RCRAI in measuring a willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process, the model including these measures accounted for just over one-third of the variance, suggesting that other variables impact on the initiation of the reflective process. If it is accepted that the individual conditions of the Neufeldt et al (1996) model are controlled for, are there any other variables which may impact on the initiation of the reflective process that should be considered as part of the supervisory environment? For instance, perhaps the actual duration of the supervisory relationship may also influence a readiness to begin the reflective process with the trainee needing time to build a relationship with the supervisor before feeling safe enough to begin to reflect. However, in considering this possibility, the majority of the data was collected from 1st Year trainees at the beginning of their first year of training in which they would have had little time to build develop a supportive supervisory relationship, yet there was no difference in their willingness to disclose problems and issues compared to others who may have had longer to develop such a relationship.

It seems more relevant to reflect on the fact that the concept of supportive supervision is only one suggestion made under the description of Neufeldt et al's (1996) supervisory environment condition. Therefore, what impact do other examples given under this category have on a willingness to begin the reflective

process? For instance, it is suggested that the institutional learning environment has an important role to play in facilitating a reflective approach perhaps by allowing adequate time for reflection within the curriculum and setting course work that encourages the process. Whilst in another example a suggestion is made for the supervisor to actively encourage the reflective process, through teaching the trainee how to reflect during supervision. In terms of other possible supervisory strategies, other models of reflection stress the need for supervisors to promote the reflection through activities such as modelling the reflective process, educating the supervisee to use a specific reflective model and the use of Socratic questioning (Shapiro and Reiff 1993; Hoshmand 1994; Ward and House, 1998; Bennett-Levy 2006). Further research to consider the types of supervisory strategies used by supervisors and the impact of these on the initiation of the reflective process could include methods such as the recording of actual supervisory sessions or interviewing supervisees on their experiences of these strategies during supervision.

4.4 Limitations of the Study

The results of the study highlight a number of limitations relating to the sample and methodological considerations, which could potentially impact on the study's validity and the extent to which any findings from the research can be generalised. These issues are discussed below.

4.4.1 The Sample

Despite all nine counselling psychology courses being approached to take part in the study, two of the nine courses declined to participate in the study. Considering the small potential population, this limitation may have impacted on

the results of the study, with the perceptions of a relatively large number of counselling psychology trainees not being taken into account. This omission limits the extent to which the results of the study can be applied in general to counselling psychology trainees. Therefore, a wider study is needed to potentially include all the available counselling psychology training courses.

4.4.2 Methodological Considerations

Another limitation of the study relates to the voluntary nature of both parts of the study and the sampling strategy used in recruiting the participants. In Part 2 of the study, having identified the target population and after permission was granted to recruit participants; the sample was selected using a non-probability convenience sampling technique, with trainees given the option to participate. There are obvious drawbacks in using such a sampling strategy in terms of being able to generalise the results to a wider population. For instance, in allowing participants to self-select, the subject matter of reflection may have appealed to those students who have the most capacity and willingness to disclose to begin the reflective process, which may have possibly distorted the findings of the research. However, as the researcher views this initial piece of work as a potential springboard to further research, this was deemed an acceptable use of a convenience sample (Bryman, 2000).

The design of the DISQ measure used as part of the study may also have provided some methodological difficulties in requiring participants to hypothetically respond to items in terms of how willing they were to disclose problems and issues with their current supervisor, as opposed to whether they had in practice disclosed in supervision. As a result of these instructions, the

design may have encouraged a good participant effect (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991), with participants answering in a way they felt the researcher wanted them to be answered?

4.5 Implications for Professional Practice

A number of practical implications for professional practice are suggested by the results of the study and which are supported by the literature. Firstly, there is a need for the professional training of supervisors and trainees to include an awareness of the process of reflection with its initiation being triggered by the disclosure of a problem or issue by the trainee. As the process is encouraged by the perception of a supportive supervisor environment it is vital that supervisors recognize the importance of providing an environment in which a trainee feels safe enough to begin the reflective process by disclosing problems and issues encountered both during therapy and supervisory sessions. More specifically, supervisors should attempt to convey the core conditions of empathy, regard, unconditionality, congruence and a willingness to be known. Further to this, as clearly contracted supervision also promotes the supportive supervisory environment there should be a requirement for placements and supervisors to provide formal contracts defining the roles and expectations of supervision for both the supervisor and the supervisee.

In considering the importance of a supportive environment in encouraging reflection, the study also begs the question what should happen if this support is absent? If a trainee is not willing to disclose issues and problems due to a perception that the supervisory environment is unsupportive, then it is implied that this will potentially have a major impact in terms of the trainee's

learning to be a counselling psychologist. Therefore, course providers themselves should ensure that they actively promote what should be expected from supervision and should carefully monitor the placements of their trainees to ensure that effective learning and development is taking place.

The various measures used in this study including the DISQ could be useful tools in developing reflective practice and evaluating the willingness to begin the reflective process and the presence of a supportive supervisory environment. All the questionnaires can provide useful monitoring information for the supervisor in terms of how supportive the supervisee perceives the supervisory relationship and his or her willingness to begin the reflective process. This knowledge could aid the supervisor in addressing any problems or difficulties within the relationship that could hinder the development of the trainee. From the perspective of the trainee, the questionnaires could help to educate trainees as to what to expect from the supervisor and more specifically, the use of the DISQ could encourage the reflective process due to the measure defining reflection for the trainee counselling psychologist and the types of issues and concerns that could be disclosed in supervision to begin this process, bringing some transparency to the concept of reflective practice.

4.6 Conclusion

Applying one aspect of the complex reflection literature, this research study provides evidence of the initial stage of the reflective process as described in the literature and the influence upon this process of a supportive supervisory environment. However, describing this environment in terms of the facilitative conditions and supervision in which roles and expectations are clearly defined

only partly explained the environment category of the Neufeldt et al (1996) model and further research is required to ascertain the impact of other potential environmental issues that may explain the conditions required to encourage reflection within counselling psychology trainees. Nevertheless, the study provides a constructive attempt at consolidating the general and specific reflection literatures and helps clarify the role of reflective practice in the development of trainee counselling psychologists. It is only through continuing this application and development of the reflection theory that will bring greater understanding and transparency to the reflective process. In turn this may allow counselling psychology trainees and qualified practitioners, greater confidence in discussing the term reflective practice and referring to themselves as reflective practitioners.

References

- Anderson, T. (1991). *The Reflecting Team: Dialogs and dialogs about dialogs*. New York: Norton.
- Allan, G. J., Szollos, S. J. and Williams, B. E. (1986). Doctoral student's comparative evaluations of best and worst psychotherapy supervision. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 17, 91-99.
- Anning, A. (1988). Teachers' theory about children's learning. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Teachers' Professional Learning*. Lewes: Falmer Press.
- Argyris, C and Schön, D. (1974). *Theory into Practice*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.
- Atkins, S. and Murphy, K. (1993). Reflection: a review of the literature. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18, 1188-1192.
- Bain J. D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C. (1999). Using journal writing to enhance student teachers' reflectivity during field experience placements. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 5 (1), 51-73.
- Bain J. D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C. (2002). Developing reflective practice through journal writing: impacts of variations in the focus and level of feedback. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 8 (2), 171-196.
- Banarjee, M., Capozzoli, M., McSweeney, L. and Sinha, D. (1999). Beyond kappa: A review of interrater agreement measures. *Canadian Journal of Statistics*, 27 (1), 3-23.
- Barnett, R. (1994). *The Limits of Competence*. Buckinghamshire: SRHE/OUP
- Barrett-Lennard, G. T. (1962). Dimensions of therapist response as causal factors in therapeutic change. *Psychological Monographs*, 76 (43).

- Barrett-Lennard, G. T. (1969). *Technical Note on the 64-item Revision of the Relationship Inventory*. University of Waterloo: Canada.
- Barrett-Lennard, G. T. (1978). The relationship inventory: Later development and adaptations. *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 8(68), (Ms: No. 1732).
- Barrett-Lennard, G. T. (1986). The Relationship Inventory: Issues and advances in theory and research. In L. S. Greenberg and W. M. Pinsof (Eds.), *The Psychotherapeutic Process: a research handbook*. New York: Guilford.
- Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 16 (Series B), 296-298.
- Basile, C., Olson, F. and Nathenson-Mejia, S. (2003). Problem-based learning: reflective coaching for teacher educators. *Reflective Practice*, 4 (3), 291-302.
- Bateson, G. (1973). *Steps to an Ecology of Mind*. Frogmore, USA: Paladin.
- Baxter Magolda, M. B. (1992). Students' epistemologies and academic experiences: implications for pedagogy. *Review of Higher Education*, 15 (3), 265-287.
- Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, R. and Tarule, J. (1986). *Women's Ways of Knowing*. New York: Basic Books.
- Bennett-Levy, J. (2006). Therapists Skills: A cognitive model of their acquisition and refinement. *Behavioural Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 34, 57-78.
- Bennett-Levy, J., Lee, N., Travers, K., Polmand, S. and Hamernik, E. (2003). Cognitive therapy from the inside: enhancing therapist skills through practicing what we preach. *Behavioural Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 31, 143-158.

- Biggs, J. (1993). From theory to practice: A cognitive systems approach. *HE Research and Development*, 12, 73-85.
- Binder, J. L. (1999). Issues in teaching and learning time-limited psychodynamic psychotherapy. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 19, 705-719.
- Black, B. (1988). Comparison of effective and ineffective psychotherapy supervision as perceived by supervisees with different levels of clinical experience. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 48, 3105B.
- Blocher, D. H. (1983). Toward a cognitive developmental approach to counsellor supervision. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 11 (1), 27-34.
- Borders, L. D. (1989). Developmental cognitions of first practicum supervisees. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 36, 163-169.
- Boud, D., Keogh, R. and Walker, D. (1985). *Reflection: Turning experience into learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Boud, D. and Knights, S. (1994). Designing courses to promote reflective practice. *Research and Development in Higher Education*, 16, 229-234.
- Boyd, E. and Fales, A. (1983). Reflective learning: key to learning from experience. *Journal of Human Psychology*, 23 (2), 61-80.
- British Psychological Society. (2006). *Qualification in Counselling Psychology: Regulations and Syllabus*. Leicester: BPS Press.
- Brockbank, A. and McGill, I. (1998). *Facilitating Reflective Learning in Higher Education (Society for Research into Higher Education)*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

- Brookfield, S. D. (1998). *Developing Critical Thinkers*. Oxford: OUP.
- Browne, J. and Corne, L. (2004). Counselling psychology in Australia. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 17 (3), 287-299.
- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bulman, C. (2004). An introduction to reflection. In C. Bulman and S. Schutz, *Reflective Practice in Nursing*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Cameron, B. L. and Mitchell, A. M. (1993). Reflective peer journals: Developing authentic nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18, 290-297.
- Carifio, M. S. and Hess, A. K. (1987). Who is the ideal supervisor? *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 18, 244-250.
- Carroll, M. (1997). Clinical Supervision: Luxury or Necessity? In I. Horton and V. Varma (Eds.), *The Needs of Counsellors and Psychotherapists*. London: Sage.
- Casement, P. (2001). *On Learning from the Patient*. Hove: Bruner Routledge.
- Challis, M., Mathers, N. J., Howe, A. C. and Field, N. J. (1999). Portfolio-based learning: continuing medical education for general practitioners – a mid-point education. *Medical Education*, 31, 22-26.
- Chi, M. T. H., Glaser, R. and Farr, M. J. (1988). *The Nature of Expertise*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences*. Hillsdale: NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cole, M. (2005). Reflection in healthcare practice: Why is it useful and how might it be done? *Work Based Learning in Primary Care*, 3 (1), 13-22.

Comrey, A. L. and Lee, H. B. (1992). *A First Course in Factor Analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dalton, J. E. (1983). Sex differences in communication skills as measured by a modified Relationship Inventory. *Sex Roles*, 9, 195-204.

Davis, M. (2003). Barriers to reflective practice. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 4 (3), 243-255.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education*. New York: The Free Press.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think*. Boston, MA: D C Heath and Co.

Dreyfus, H. L. and Dreyfus, S. E. (1986). *Mind over machine: the power of human intuition and expertise in the era of the computer*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Durgahee, T. (1998). Facilitating reflection: from sage on stage to guide on the side. *Nurse Education Today*, 18, 158-164.

Ellis, M. V. and Ladany, N. (1997). Inferences concerning supervisees and clients in clinical supervision: An Integrative Review. In C. E. Watkins, Jr. (Ed.), *Handbook of Psychotherapy*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Entwistle, N. J. (1988). *Styles of Learning and Teaching*. London: David Fulton.

Eraut, M. (1994). *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence*. London: Falmer Press.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. London: Sage.

Francis, D. (1985). Reflective journal: a window to pre-service teachers' practical knowledge. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11 (3), 229-241.

Fook, J., White, S. and Gardner, F. (2006). Critical reflection: a review of contemporary literature and understanding. In S. White, J. Fook and F. Gardner (Eds.), *Critical Reflection in Health and Social Care*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Fowler, J. and Chevannes, M. (1998). Evaluating the efficacy of reflective practice on clinical supervision. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 27, 379-382.

Gibbs, G. (1988). *Learning by Doing: A guide to teaching and learning methods*. Birmingham: SCED.

Gillham, W. E. C. (2000). *Developing a Questionnaire (Real World Research)*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Glazer, N. (1974). The schools of the minor professions. *Minerva*, 12 (3), 346-363.

Glazer, C., Abbott, L. and Harris, J. (2004). A teacher – developed process for collaborative professional reflection. *Reflective Practice*, 5 (1), 33-46.

Goodman, J. (1994). Reflection and teacher education: A case study and theoretical analysis. *Interchanges*, 15, 9-26.

Goodman, J. (1993). The seminar's role in the education of student teachers: A case study. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 34 (3), 44 – 49.

Gomez, S. P. (2003). Racial/ethnic minority and white students' perceptions of their supervision environment experiences. *Unpublished doctoral study*.

Greenwood, J. (1993). Reflective practice: a critique of the work of Argyris and Schon. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18, 1183-87.

- Grice, J. W. (2001). Computing and evaluating factor scores. *Psychological Methods*, 6, 4, 430-450.
- Griffin, M. L. (2003). Using critical incidents to promote and assess reflective thinking in pre-service teachers. *Reflective Practice*, 4 (2), 207-220.
- Griffith, B. A. and Frieden, G. (2000). Facilitating reflective thinking in counselor education. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 40, 82-93.
- Grimmett, P., McKinnon, A., Erikson, G. and Riecken, T. (1990). Reflective practice in teacher education. In R. Clift, W Houston and M Pugach (Eds.), *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education: An Analysis of Issues and Programs*. New York; Teachers College Press.
- Gurman, A. S. (1977). The patient's perception of the therapeutic relationship. In A. S. Gurman and A. M. Razin (Eds.), *Effective Psychotherapy: A handbook of research*. New York: Pergamon.
- Habermas, J. (1971). *Knowledge and Human Interests*. London: Heineman.
- Habermas, J. (1974). *Theory and Practice*. London: Heineman.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R., Tatham, R. and Black, W. C. (1992). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New York: Macmillan.
- Harris, S., Dolan, G. and Fairbairn, G. (2001). Reflecting on the use of student portfolios. *Nurse Education Today*, 21, 278-286.
- Hatton, N and Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11 (1), 33-49.
- Hayes, D. (1998). A matter of being willing? Mentors' expectations of student primary teachers. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 13, 67-79.

Heppner, P. P. and Roehlke, H. J. (1984). Differences among supervisees at different levels of training: Implications for developmental model of supervision. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 31, 76-90.

Heron, J. (1989). *The Facilitators' Handbook*. London: Kogan Page.

Hess, A. K. (1987). Growth in supervision: Stages of supervisee and supervisor development. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 4, 51-67.

Hogan, R. A. (1964). Issues and approaches in supervision. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 1, 139-141.

Holloway, E. (1987). Developmental models supervision: Is it development? *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 18, 209-216.

Holloway, E. (1992). Supervision: A way of teaching and learning. In S. D. Brown and R. W. Lent, (Eds.), *Handbook of Counseling Psychology*. New York: Wilig.

Holloway, E. L. and Wampold, B.E. (1986). Relation between conceptual level and counseling-related tasks: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 33, 310-319.

Honey, P and Mumford, A. (1986). *Using Our Learning Styles*. London: Honey Publications.

Hoover, L. (1994). Reflective writing as a window on pre-service teachers' thought processes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10, 83-93.

Hoshmand, L. T. and Polkinghorne, D. E. (1992). Redefining the science-practice relationship and professional training. *American Psychologist*, 47, 264-270.

Hoshmand, L. T. (1994). *Orientation to Inquiry in a Reflective Professional Psychology*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Hutt, D. H., Scott, J. and King, M. (1983). A phenomenological study of supervisees' positive and negative experiences in supervision. *Psychotherapy Theory, Research and Practice*, 20, 118-123.

James, C. and Clarke, B. (1993). Reflective practice in nursing: issues and implications for nurse education. *Nurse Education Today*, 14, 82-90.

Jaworski, B. (1993). Professional development of teachers – the potential of critical reflection. *British Journal of Inservice Education*, 19, 37-42.

Johns, C. (1993). Professional supervision. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 1, 9-18.

Johns, C. (2000). *Becoming a Reflective Practitioner*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Limited.

Kagan, N. I. and Kagan, H. (1990). IPR – a validated model for the 1990s and beyond. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 18(3), 436-440.

Kass, R. and Tinsley, H. (1979). Factor Analysis. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 11, 120-138.

Kember, D., Jones, A., Loke, A., McKay, J., Sinclair, K., Tse, H., Webb, C., Wong, F., Wong, M. and Yeung, E. (1999). Determining and level of reflective thinking from students' written journals using a coding scheme based on the work of Mezirow. *International Journal of Lifelong Learning*, 18 (1), 18-30.

Kember, D. (2001). Triggers for reflection. In D. Kember, *Reflective Teaching and Learning in the Health Professions*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Kemmis, S. (1985). Action research and the politics of reflection. In D. Boud, R. Keogh and D. Walker, *Reflection: turning experience into learning*. Kogan Page: London.

King, P. and Kitchener, K. (1994). *Developing Reflective Judgement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

King, P., Kitchener, K., and Wood, P.K. (1985). The development of intellect and character: A longitudinal study of intellectual and moral development in young adults. *Moral Education Forum*, 10 (1), 1-13.

Kirby, P and Teddlie, P. (1989). Development of the reflective teaching instrument. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 22 (4), 45-51.

Kitchener, K.S., King, P.M., Wood, P.K. and Davison, M.L. (1989). Consistency and sequentiality in the development of reflective judgement: A six-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 10, 73-95.

Kline, P. (2000). *An Easy Guide to Factor Analysis*. London: Routledge.

Knights, S. (1985). Reflection and learning: the importance of the listener. In D. Boud, R. Keogh and D. Walker, (Eds.), *Reflection: turning experience into learning*. Kogan Page: London.

Knowles, M. (1984). *Andragogy in Action*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Kohlberg, L. (1963). The development of children's' orientations towards moral order: One sequence in the development of moral thought. *Vita Humana*, 6 (11), 333-93.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential Learning as the Science of Learning and Development*. Eaglewoods Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Krippendorff, K. (1980). *Content Analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. California: Sage Publications.

Kuit, J., Reay, G. and Freeman, R. (2001). Experiences of reflective teaching. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 2, 128-142.

LaBoskey, V. (1993). A conceptual framework for reflection in pre-service teacher education. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press

Ladany, N. and Friedlander, M. L. (1995). The relationship between the supervisory working alliance and trainees' experience of role conflict and role ambiguity. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 34, 220-231.

Ladany, N., Hill, C. E., Corbett, M. M. and Nutt, E. A. (1996). Nature, extent and importance of what psychotherapy trainees do not disclose to their supervisors. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 43, 10-24.

Lanning, W. L. and Lemons, S. L. (1974). Another look at the factor structure of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory. *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance*, 6, 228-231.

Launer, J. (2005). Reflective practice and clinical supervision: to delve or not to delve. *Work Based Learning in Primary Care*, 1 (2), 147-149.

Lavine, H. G., Gallimore, R., Weisner, T. S. and Turner, J. L. (1980). Teaching participants observation research methods: A skills building approach. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 11, 38-54.

Lee, S. K. F. and Loughran, J. (2000). Facilitating pre-service teachers' reflection through a school based teaching programme. *Reflective Practice*, 1 (1), 69-89.

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field Theory in the Social Sciences*. New York: Harper and Row.

Lin, T. T. (1973). Counseling relationship as a function of a counselor's self-confidence. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 20, 293-297.

Loganbill, C., Hardy, E., and Delworth, U. (1982). Supervision: A conceptual model. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 10 (1), 3-42.

Loughran, J. J. (1996). *Developing Reflective Practice: Learning about Teaching and Learning through Modelling*. London: Falmer Press.

MacCallum, R. C., Widamon, K. F., Zhang, S. and Hong, S. (1999). Sample size in factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 4, 84-99.

Maggs, C. and Biley, A. (2000). Reflections in the role of nursing development facilitator in clinical supervision and reflective practice. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, 6 (4), 192-195.

Mamede, S. and Schmidt, H. G. (2004). The structure of reflective practice in medicine. *Medical Education*, 38, 1302-1308.

Martin, J. S., Goodyear, R. K. and Newton, F. B. (1987). Clinical supervision: An intensive case study. *Professional Psychology*, 18, 225-235.

Marton, F. and Saljo, R. (1992). Approaches to learning. In F. Marton, D. Hansell and N. Entwistle, (Eds.), *The Experience of Learning*. Edinburgh: South Academic Press.

McCarthy, P., Sugden, S., Koker, M., Lamendola, F., Maurer, S. and Renninger, S. (1995). A practical guide to informed consent in clinical supervision. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 35, 130-138.

McNamara, D. (1990). Reflection on teachers' thinking. Its contribution to educating student teachers to think critically. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 16, 147-160.

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education*, 32 (1), 3-24.

Meyers, C. (1986). *Teaching students to think critically*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, O. H. and Zytowski, D. G. (1967). Helping relationship: a structural analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 14, 193-197.

Miller, A. (2005). Reflection on the preparation and implementation of a practicum designed for a junior physiotherapist in primary care. *Reflective Practice*, 6 (1), 15-32.

Miller, M and Watts, M. (1997). Reflection on reflections. *Counselling Psychology Review*, 12 (1), 75-80.

Milne, D. L. and James, I. A. (2002). The observed impact of training on competence in clinical supervision. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 41, 55-72.

Mollon, P. (1989). Anxiety supervision and a space for thinking: some narcissistic perils for clinical psychologists in learning psychotherapy. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 62, 113-122.

Moon, J.A. (1999). *Reflection in Learning and Professional Development: Theory and Practice*. London: Kogan Page.

Moon, J.A. (2004). *A Handbook of Reflective and Experiential Learning: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge Farmer.

Morrison, K. (1995). Dewey, Habermas and reflective practice. *Curriculum*, 16, 82-94.

Morrison, K. (1996). Developing reflective practice in higher degree students through a critical journal. *Studies in HE*, 21 (3), 317-332.

Mountford, B. and Rogers, L. (1996). Using individual and group reflection in and on assessment as a tool for effective learning. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 24, 1127-1134.

Murdock, N. L., Alcorn, J., Heesacker, M. and Stoltenberg, C. 1998. Model training program in counseling psychology. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 20, 658-672.

Nelson, G. L. (1978). Psychotherapy supervision from the trainee's point of view: a survey of preferences. *Professional Psychology*, 539-550.

Nelson, M. L. and Friedlander, M. L. (2001). A close look at conflictual supervisory relationships: the trainee's perspective. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 48, 384-395.

Nelson-Jones, R. (2000). *Introduction to Counselling Skills: Text and Activities*. London: Sage Publications

Neufeldt, S. A., Inverson, J. N. and Juntunen, C. L. (1995). *Supervision strategies for the first practicum*. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Neufeldt, S. A., Karno, M. P. and Nelson, M. L. (1996). A qualitative study of experts' conceptualisation of supervisee reflectivity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 43 (1), 3-9.

Neuendorf, K.A. (2002). *The Content Analysis Guidebook*. California: Sage Publications.

Newell, R. (1994). Reflection: art, science or pseudo-science. *Nurse Education Today*, 14, 49-81.

Newell, R. (1992). Anxiety, accuracy and reflection: the limits of professional development. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 17, 1326-1333.

Olk, M. E. and Friedlander M. L. (1992). Trainees' experiences of role conflict and role ambiguity in supervisory relationships. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 39, 389-397.

Paget, T. (2001). Reflective practice and clinical outcomes: practitioners' views on how reflective practice has influenced their clinical practice. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 10, 204-214.

Pallant, T. (2004). *SPSS Survival Manual: Version 12*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Palmer, A. Burns, S. and Bulman, C. (1994). *Reflective Practice in Nursing*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Perry, W. (1970). *Forms of Intellectual and Academic Developments in the College Years*. New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.

Piaget, J. (1972). *Biology and Knowledge*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Pierce, R. M. and Shauble, P. G. (1970). Graduate training of facilitative counsellors: the effect of individual supervision. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 17, 210-215.

Platzer, H., Blake, D. and Ashford, D. (2000). An evaluation of process and outcomes from learning through reflective practice groups on a post-registration nursing course. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 14, 824-832.

Polyani, M. (1967). *The Tacit Dimension*. New York: Doubleday.

Pranata, H. (2005). Facilitating reflective practice in clinical supervision. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*.

Pugach, M. C. and Johnson, L. J. (1990). In R. Clift, W Houston and M Pugach (Eds.), *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education: An Analysis of Issues and Programs*. New York; Teachers College Press.

Pultorak, E. G. (1993). Facilitating reflective thought in novice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 44 (4), 288-295.

Ramsden, P. (1988). *Improving Learning: New Perspectives*. London: Kogan Page.

Rich, A. and Parker, D. L. (1995). Reflection and critical incident analysis: ethical and moral implications of their use within nursing and midwifery education. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 1050-1057.

Richardson, V. (1990). The evolution of reflective teaching and teacher education. In R. Clift, W Houston and M Pugach (Eds.), *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education*. New York; Teachers College Press.

Richardson, G. and Maltby, H. (1995). Reflection on practice: enhancing student learning. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 235–242.

Robson, C. (2001). *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Richert, A. (1990). Teaching teachers to reflect: a consideration of programme structure. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 22 (6), 509–527.

Rogers, C. R. (1957). The necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 21, 95–103.

Rønnestad, M. E. and Skovholt, T. M. (1993). Supervision of beginning and advanced graduate students of counseling and psychotherapy. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 71, 396–405.

Rosenthal, R. and Rosnow, R. L. (1991). *Essentials of Behaviour Research: Methods and data research*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ross, D. D. (1989). First steps in developing a reflective approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40 (2), 22–30.

Sakalys, J. (1984). Effects of an undergraduate research course on cognitive development. *Nursing Research*, 33 (5), 290–95.

Sapnas, R. G. and Zellner, R. A. (2002). Minimising sample size when using exploratory factor analysis for measurement. *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, 10 (2), 135–153.

Schacht, A. J., Howe, H. E. and Berman, J. J. (1988). A short form of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory for Supervisory Relationships. *Psychological Reports*, 63, 699–706.

Schon, D. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Shapiro, S. B. and Reiff, J. (1993). A framework for reflective inquiry on practice: beyond intuition and experience. *Psychological Reports*, 73, 1379–1394.

Skovholt, T.M. and Rønnestad, M.H. (1992a). *The Evolving Professional Self: Stages and Themes in Therapist and Counselor Development*. West Sussex: John Wiley and Sons.

Skovholt, T.M. and Rønnestad, M.H. (1992b). Themes in therapist and counselor development. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 70, 505–515.

Sparrow, J., R., Ashford and Heel, D. (2005). A methodology to identify workplace features that can facilitate or impede reflective practice: a National Health Service UK Study. *Reflective Practice*, 6 (2), 189–197.

Stoltenberg, C. D. and Delworth, U. (1987). *Supervising counsellors and therapists: A developmental approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tabachnick, B. G. and Fidell, L.S. (1996). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Boston: Pearson.

Tabachnick, B. R. and Zeichner, K. (1984). The impact of student teaching and learning on the development of teacher perspectives. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 35, 28–42.

Taylor, I. (1997). *Developing Learning in Professional Education: Partnership for practice*. Buckingham: SRHE/OUP.

Thorpe, M. (1993). Experiential learning at a distance. In D. Boud, R. Cohen and D. Walker (eds.), *Using Experience for Learning*. Buckingham; SRHE/OUP.

Trigwell, K., Prosser, M. and Ginns, P. (2005). Phenomenological pedagogy and a revised approach to the Teaching Inventory. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 24 (4), 349–360.

Tripp, D. (1993). *Critical Incidents in Teaching – Developing Professional Judgement*. London: Routledge.

Valli, L. (1993). Reflection in teacher education programmes. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press.

Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing ways of being. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6, 205-208.

Van Manen, M. (1991). *The Tact of Teaching*. New York: The State of New York Press.

Walker, D. (1985). Writing and reflection. In R. Keogh and D. Walker (eds.), *Reflection; Turning experience into learning*. London: Kogan Page.

Walker, S. E. (2006). Journal writing as a teaching technique to promote reflection. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 41 (2), 216-221.

Walsh, B. B., Gillespie, C. K., Greer, J. M. and Eanes, B. E. (2002). Influence of dyadic mutuality on counselor trainee willingness to self-disclose clinical mistakes to supervisors. *The Clinical Supervisor*, 21 (2), 252-262.

Ward, L. G., Friedlander, M. L., Schoen, L. G. and Klein, J. G. (1985). Strategic self-presentation in supervision. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 132 (1), 111-118.

Ward, C. C. and House, R. M. (1998). Counseling supervision: A reflective model. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 38 (1), 23-34.

Webb, A. and Wheeler, S. (1998). How honest do counsellors dare to be in the supervisory relationship: An exploratory study. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 26 (4), 509-524.

Weiss, E. M. and Weiss S. (2001). Doing reflective supervision with student teachers in a professional development student culture. *Reflective Practice*, 2 (2), 125–154.

Wiebe, B. and Pearce, W. B. (1973). An item-analysis and revision of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 29, 495–497.

Wildman, T. M. and Niles, J. A. (1987). Reflective teachers: tensions between abstractions and realities. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 28 (4), 25–31.

Wilkinson, J. (1999). Implementing reflective practice. *Nursing Standard*, 13, 36-40.

Wong, F.K.Y., Kember, D., Chung, L.Y.F. and Yan L. (1995). Assessing the level of student reflection from reflective journals. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 48-57,

Wong, E. K. Y., Loke, A. Y. and Wong, M. W. L. (2001). The action research process. In D. Kember (ed.), *Reflective Teaching and Learning in the Health Professions*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd.

Wood, J. (2003). Mirror, mirror on the wall: Levels of reflection and professional counselling psychology training. *Unpublished MSc. Dissertation*.

Worthern, V. and MacNeill, B. W. (1996). A phenomenological investigation of “good” supervision events. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 43, 25–34.

Worthington, E. L. (1987) Changes in supervision as counsellors and supervisors gain experience: A review. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 18, 189-208.

Yeung, E., Jones, A. and Webb, C. (2001). The use of learning contracts. In D. Kember (Ed.), *Reflective Teaching and Learning in the Health Professions*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd.

Zeichner, K. M. (1981). Reflective teaching and field-based experience in teacher education. *Interchange*, 12 (4), 1 – 22.

Zeichner, K. M. and Liston, D. P. (1985). Teaching student teachers to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57 (1), 23 – 48.

Zwick, R. (1988). Another look at inter-rater agreement. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 374-378.

SECTION C – PROFESSIONAL COMPONENT
Reflecting on a Trainee’s Levels of Reflection: a Case Study

1.1 Introduction to the Case Study

Accepting that reflecting on experience is crucial to professional development, a variety of methods of reflection have been discussed in the literature for their potential to encourage this process. One such method is the Case Study, in which trainees are required to reflect on their experiences gained during professional placements or internships (Ross, 1989; Sparkes-Langer and Colton, 1991; Hatton and Smith, 1995). Reviewing the reflection literature, it appears that this method has been used to promote and evaluate the presence and development of reflective thinking primarily within professional training courses (Ross, 1989; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Wong, Kember, Chung and Yan, 1995; Richardson and Maltby, 1995; Kember, Jones, Loke, McKay, Sinclair, Tse, Webb, Wong, Wong and Yeung, 1999; Griffin, 2003; Wood, 2003). In evaluating the reflective thinking found in this type of written exercise, researchers have applied models of levels of reflection. Influenced by the work of Habermas and bearing some similarities to the developmental theories of reflection (Perry, 1970; Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule, 1986; Baxter Magolda, 1992; King and Kitchener, 1994), these models describe a number of different levels of reflection within the context of professional development from simple descriptive reflection to more complex critical reflective thinking (Mezirow, 1981; Goodman, 1984; Grimmett, McKinnon, Erikson and Riecken, 1990; La Boskey, 1993; Valli, 1993; James and Clarke, 1994; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Pultorak, 1996).

An example of this hierarchical model of reflection is described in the research of Hatton and Smith (1995,) in which the researchers consider the question of promoting reflective thinking within an undergraduate teacher training course. Based on the levels of reflection model produced by Van Manen

(1977), the researchers identify four categories of writing from students' written reports, which were described as descriptive writing, descriptive reflection, dialogic reflection and critical reflection. With the first of these referring to merely reporting an event or aspects of the literature, descriptive reflection attempts to provide reasons for decisions or events based on personal judgement or the literature. In defining the more complex levels of reflective writing, dialogic reflection is described as consisting of a discussion with the self and an exploration of possible reasons for actions and decisions taken during practice, whilst critical reflection involves placing decisions or events within a broader socio-cultural and political context. Although all levels of reflection are viewed as valid and necessary, it is argued that it is reflection at the higher levels that encourage development and expertise (Hatton and Smith, 1995).

For counselling psychology trainees in the UK, the case or client study is typically a compulsory element of professional training, with trainees expected to present a structured account of their work with a client based upon a particular theoretical orientation and to reflect on their experiences of working with the client (Qualification in Counselling Psychology, BPS, 2006). In terms of this reflection, trainees are expected to evaluate their interventions, question any assumptions and to recognise any biases that may underlie their work (Irving and Williams, 1995). This current study will attempt to evaluate the reflections made in a case study produced by the researcher as a first year counselling psychology trainee, by applying the levels of reflection model produced by Hatton and Smith (1995). In doing so, reflective commentaries will follow the three main sections of the case study, before concluding with a review of the process. In the interests of confidentiality, all names have been changed.

2.0 Section A-Introduction and the Start of Therapy

2.1 Introduction

I have chosen to write about one of the first clients that I saw for individual counselling at my placement in a Community Mental Health Team (CMHT). This choice is partly pragmatic. My client, Rita, was kind enough to give her consent to use any therapeutic material. However, I have also found that the thirteen sessions of therapy so far that I have undertaken with this particular client, have posed a number of questions and issues around the concept of “dependency”, which I feel, may be of interest to other counselling psychologists in training. Whilst attempting to manage the therapeutic relationship and process with a dependent and needy client, paradoxically I have also been forced to consider these types of issues in relation to myself within the supervisory relationship. I will discuss how these factors affected my work in the later sections of this report.

2.2 Summary of the Theoretical Orientation

Viewing clients as faulty processors of information, Beck’s Cognitive Behavioural Therapy or CBT, argues that how people interpret or perceive experiences will determine how they feel and behave (Beck, 1976). In terms of psychopathology, it is primarily from poor childhood experiences, that clients learn incorrect habits of processing information, resulting in core beliefs, dysfunctional assumptions and the accumulation of negative automatic thoughts. It is the latter, which when triggered, results in a series of emotional, motivational, somatic and behavioural effects (Nelson-Jones, 1997). In order to counter these and to re-activate the individual’s “reality-testing systems” (Beck, 1976), CBT provides a structured short term and present-oriented therapy,

enabling the client to rationally evaluate and modify dysfunctional thoughts and behaviours. To facilitate this, the CBT practitioner concentrates on developing a good collaborative working relationship and focuses on current problems aided by a number of techniques including Socratic questioning and homework. Viewing the client as a scientist, an over-arching aim is to educate and socialise clients into the CBT model and to openly discuss their conditions in order to attempt to encourage them to become their own therapists (Beck, 1995).

2.3 Context of the Work and the Referral

After a consultation with one of the community Psychiatrists, Rita was referred to the psychology department for therapy and was placed on my caseload. The psychiatrist provided a very detailed psychiatric report, which discussed a number of earlier depressive episodes and suicide attempts together with her current symptoms of depression, agoraphobia, panic and some obsessive-compulsive behaviour. He further queried whether CBT would be an appropriate therapy in light of her presenting symptomatology.

2.4 The Assessment Session

On meeting Rita for the first time, I noted that she was a very nervous, petit and casually dressed fifty-seven year old woman. With wide eyes and a very serious expression on her face, she appeared scared when I introduced myself to her. She spoke quietly and shared some eye contact.

During the actual session, Rita was very anxious and nervous, sometimes not giving very good eye contact and swallowing air many times as she talked. With her quiet voice and imploring facial expression, she came across to me as very “vulnerable” and needy. This led me to believe that she wanted me to take

on some sort of nurturing role, highlighting potential dependency issues. I felt at the time that these behaviours evoked in me overwhelming feelings of sympathy and a desire to “sort out” her problems and issues, which again I noted as a possible difficulty during the therapeutic process (Watkins Jr, 1988). In order to encourage the idea of a collaborative process, at the end of the session I asked Rita how she felt about working with me and she replied that she felt comfortable although a little bit nervous about what to expect. As I had not completed the assessment and was not totally clear about how to proceed, I explained to her that I would like to continue the assessment in the following week and would then be in a position to discuss the therapeutic plan, which seemed to allay her fears.

2.5 The Client’s Definition of the Problem

Following a panic attack during a visit to Heathrow airport in June of last year, Rita became increasingly low in mood resulting in another depressive episode, of which she reported she has suffered periodically since her early 20s. In September of the same year, I was informed that this led to her being taken to the local hospital by a friend and a consultation with the Accident and Emergency Duty Psychiatrist. At this time she reported feeling totally overwhelmed and “down” and she was concerned that these feelings might lead to another suicide attempt.

After refusing to be admitted to hospital as an inpatient, Rita accepted an outpatient appointment at the CMHT and was subsequently given anti-depressant medication and beta-blockers. Although the medication appeared to counteract her depressive symptomatology, Rita stated that she was still left with feelings of panic and had a strong desire to stay at home where people could not witness her

“going mad” or losing control and where she could remain “safe”. This had begun to make her life intolerable, as she stated that she now felt too frightened to go outside on her own, and although she managed to make some very short local trips if she left the house by 9.00 a.m., she spent most of her time at home.

2.6 Initial Assessment/Formulation of the Problem

My initial hypothesis was that Rita was suffering from Panic Disorder with Agoraphobia (DSM IV, 1994). The agoraphobic symptoms had begun after the panic attack in the airport, in which she reported suffering from breathing problems, palpitations and shakiness in her legs, whilst feeling that she might “lose control” or collapse. Rita described a number of other attacks after this incident, which occurred without warning in public places. As is sometimes the case with the onset of this disorder, the initial panic attack precipitated the agoraphobic symptoms, which appeared to lead Rita to restrict her movements in order to avoid crowds of people, public transport and going out alone (Klein, 1981). Like most agoraphobics Rita then became frightened to leave her home in case she had a panic attack and people would harm her either verbally or physically, or would fail to offer her assistance (Beck, 1985).

As discussed by Beck (1985), in the cognitive model of agoraphobia, it seems apparent that the agoraphobic person develops beliefs concerning external danger, vulnerability and the possibility of a sudden and uncontrollable internal disturbance or panic attack. When alone, the individual believes that he or she may become the victim of a sudden medical, mental or emotional disorder, which can only be remedied by unobstructed access to a place of safety such as a hospital or the home. If the access to safety is blocked, then the symptoms may

be interpreted as an impending disaster, increasing fear and anxiety, which in turn results in increased somatic symptoms and with the vicious circle in place, then a panic attack is likely to occur (Clark, 1986). As paralleled in Rita's case, the specific situations which appear to trigger these attacks seem to revolve around the perception of being "trapped" in environments which either impede escape to a safe haven or access to help. Paradoxically, despite this need for free movement and the urge to escape, the characteristic behavioural reaction to an agoraphobic's fear and anxiety is one of immobility, both during a panic attack and also in the avoidance of all situations in which an attack may occur, by remaining at home.

Therefore, with the client suffering from panic with agoraphobia there appears to be a conflict between dependency, autonomy and control. This conflict is reflected in one of their main coping mechanisms. In believing that they cannot deal with dangers and problems by themselves, sufferers often seek to obtain help from a "caretaker". However, paradoxically this may lead to the perception of someone else taking control and the potential compromise of autonomy, which can result in the individual client becoming very anxious and even leading to an impulse to break free to gain control (Beck, 1985). From the information given at the assessment, it appeared that Rita had shown this pattern in all of her relationships, whilst actively seeking relationships where she could be totally dependent, over time she often resented the control that was being exerted over her, which would lead to her breaking free of the relationship.

As dysfunctional beliefs are often seen to develop from childhood (Clark and Beck, 1988), I also hypothesised that Rita's early life had encouraged her

beliefs. Although there is no firm agreement as to why some people seem more predisposed to agoraphobic symptoms, a number of studies point to inappropriate or over-protective mothering (Chambless and Goldstein 1982). In terms of her family background, Rita's stated that her parents had divorced when she was 14 and she had lived with her mother until her late 40s. She described her mother as cold, domineering and controlling and complained that her mother had run her life and that of her child and that she had been unable to do anything unless her mother had permitted it, which as a consequence meant that she rarely ventured outside of the family home. For instance, Rita reported that although she had wanted to go to art college, her mother forced her to leave school and go straight out to work. When her mother moved into a home, Rita replaced her with a domineering male partner, who again told her what to do and made her feel that she could not cope on her own. Therefore, the tension between dependency, autonomy and control appeared to be a recurrent theme in Rita's life.

2.7 Decision to use CBT

My decision to use CBT took account of both current treatment research and the client's previous experience of counselling. In reviewing the literature, it appears that CBT for panic with agoraphobia has generally shown to be effective (Chambless and Gillis, 1993 etc). I was also influenced by the fact that Rita had clearly articulated a number of dysfunctional beliefs around vulnerability and safety that seemed to fit within a cognitive model of the disorder.

In addition to this, Rita disclosed information regarding a poor counselling experience during a previous depressive episode. This counselling apparently took a non-directive approach, which Rita found to be unhelpful.

Therefore, I felt that a more directive orientation might be more effective.

2.8 The Contract and Therapeutic Aims

We both agreed that we would meet weekly and would continually review progress. Despite my concerns regarding potential dependency, I did not contract for a set number of hours, as all therapy in my placement is open-ended. However, with hindsight, this would have been a more sensible approach (although I managed to do this later on in therapy during a review of progress). In terms of therapeutic goals, we agreed that we would work towards Rita being able to leave her home without feeling anxious or frightened of having a panic attack.

2.9 Summary Biographical Details of the Client

Rita is white and single and lives in a local housing association development in a semi-rural area. Since the beginning of her mental health problems last year she has been unemployed and previous to this she had spent around thirty years working in local factories. In terms of her immediate family, her parents and two brothers are deceased. She talked of being very close to her father, who was asked to leave the family home, when she was fourteen and having distant relationships with the rest of her family. Rita has a son from a relationship she had in her 20s with a black American serviceman, and a young granddaughter. She reported being very close to her son and granddaughter and having a few close friends.

2.10 Reflective Commentary

In this introductory section of the case study, much of the writing is descriptive, giving a verbatim account of the client and the presenting problem.

However, there are also a number of examples of descriptive reflection in which the trainee reflects upon choices based upon personal judgement and the literature. The first example of this can be found in the formulation of the client's difficulties in which the trainee attempts to make sense of the presentation and symptomatology of the client using DSM IV, Beck's cognitive model of agoraphobia and theories relating to the development of agoraphobia. Further on in this section, the trainee again reflects in this descriptive manner in discussing the decision to use cognitive behavioural therapy with the client. Once again, the decision is rooted firmly in the literature in terms of choosing a therapy the research has indicated as effective as well as taking into account the client's thinking which seemed to fit with the cognitive model of panic and agoraphobia together with the client's previous experience of therapy.

3.0 Section B-Development of Therapy

3.1 The Therapeutic Plan and Main Techniques Used

During the early stages of therapy, my initial concern was to develop a good working relationship. With Rita's previous history of poor relationships, this seemed to be particularly important. Beck (1976) stresses the importance of developing rapport with the client by utilising Roger's (1951) core conditions of empathy, unconditional positive regard and congruence and without these he argues that therapy is unlikely to be effective. Therefore, to encourage this, I spent the first couple of sessions actively listening to Rita using summarising and other reflective techniques (Egan, 1986) and took time to explain the process of therapy and asking for feedback. Also being aware of potential dependency issues, I was careful when socialising Rita into the CBT model (Beck, 1985), to emphasise the collaborative nature of CBT. Further to this, as part of the didactic

process, we talked about her condition and I was able to give her some literature to read at home. This brought a great deal of relief to Rita that she “was not the only one” and that she was “not going mad”. Once again, this highlighted for me the idea that explanations are in themselves therapeutic (Emery, 1985).

When treating panic with agoraphobia it is suggested that therapy should focus first on the panic symptoms using cognitive techniques (Salkovskis and Clark, 1991). Therefore, I spent the first four or five sessions focusing on Rita’s panic and the thoughts and beliefs around this. After explaining the cognitive model of panic (Clark, 1986), Rita attempted to complete thought records to highlight the recent situations, which had provoked anxiety and panic. However, on finding these too complicated, we decided that it would be easier for her to collect data in her personal diary. We then used this to uncover and challenge her negative automatic thoughts and assumptions, which appeared to revolve around thoughts of fear and vulnerability, by using Socratic questioning techniques. After considerable practice, Rita developed what she described as her “self talk”, where she discussed being able to step back and consider the evidence for her thoughts.

With the cognitive techniques providing the foundations for the next phase of therapy, we then began to concentrate on systematic desensitisation (Wolpe, 1961), using graded exposure to extinguish Rita’s fears and anxiety (Butler, 1989). Working together we produced a graded hierarchy, which included all the situations which Rita had been avoiding and used these as homework experiments to be practised between sessions (see Appendix K). This fits with the generally accepted view that exposure to crowds, public transport

and other feared situations, is vital in the treatment of agoraphobia (Chambless and Goldstein, 1982; Mathew, Gelder and Johnston, 1981 etc). Before, Rita embarked on these experiments we discussed relaxation and distraction techniques to provide some initial relief from her fearful thoughts and anxious feelings (Clark, 1989). After these discussions Rita decided that she would prefer to use distraction and an image of her granddaughter on holiday.

3.2 Emerging Recurrent Themes

3.2.1. Dependency I became aware after a number of sessions that our relationship had begun to mirror Rita's previous and current relationships, with Rita becoming reliant and dependent and fearful of being able to cope on her own. If she failed to complete a task she became concerned that she had let me down and made numerous attempts to flatter me by making comments such as "If I had only met you years ago" and "I can't believe that you are a trainee". It was as if her need for maternal love and approval, which she had not received in childhood had manifested itself in her relationship with me. Also over the Christmas period she felt that she had regressed, after a two-week break in therapy. I increasingly felt that she appeared to be placing a great deal of responsibility on me as the therapist, which later on in the therapy made me feel uncomfortable and even rather irritated at times (Watkins, Jr., 1988). (On reflection I also wonder whether this irritation was heightened by my personal circumstances at the time, I began to see Rita at the beginning of my training when I felt as if I was being pulled in a number of directions, by the course, my placements and my family). Although I accept that an element of dependency is to be expected and perhaps even welcomed to develop the therapeutic relationship (Decker, 1988), I felt that by the seventh or eighth session that I

needed to intervene. Therefore, I decided to hold a review session where we were able to talk about the progress that she had made by herself and my facilitative role in this, as well as stressing the rationale of carrying out the experiments regularly and on her own. As part of this intervention and in my attempt to maintain firm boundaries I also discussed my proposed plan to end therapy after twenty sessions, which Rita seemed to find acceptable. It was interesting that after this discussion Rita seemed more focused on “getting better”, she experimented more between sessions and began to move through her graded hierarchy. I have considered that this may have partly been down to the time limit! However, I feel that at this point she began to take more responsibility and started to articulate more about the success that she was making.

3.2.2. Autonomy and control Being able to reduce her anxiety and achieving the goals set in the graded hierarchy led to increased confidence and an apparent shift in therapy. The theme became one of autonomy and gaining control rather than one of dependency. Rita talked of wanting to “free” herself from her “illness” and to be able to leave her home without fear. Further to this she discussed new future goals of wanting to be able to go to London and also to go on holiday by plane. To some extent, this theme of autonomy and control has also been acted out in the therapy sessions, with Rita interrupting at times and being more assertive and confident in her interactions with me, challenging and occasionally disagreeing with my interpretations. This provided a very different scenario to that present in our earlier sessions when she was very timid and expected me to have all the answers. When session twelve was cancelled due to my ill health, Rita was able to cope during the break from therapy, and did not regress as she had done in the earlier stages of therapy during the Christmas

break. Feeling more in control and able to cope on her own, she was even able to interact confidently and assertively with her “abusive” controlling ex-boyfriend, whom she admitted to being frightened of in the past.

3.3 Difficulties and Making Use of Supervision

The main difficulties I have had to deal with during therapy with Rita have centred on my own issues as a trainee therapist. As I had no experience of working with a panic with agoraphobia presentation, I felt quite anxious about this at the beginning of therapy and was very much pre-occupied with “surviving” the session. In order to contain my anxiety, I constantly read and reviewed didactic material and carefully planned my sessions. Due to this, I felt that I was sometimes “rushing” therapy with Rita in my attempt to put theory into practice, resulting in a failure on my part to work at the client’s pace leading to confusion through premature interventions.

This insecurity was also apparent in supervision. Like Rita, I presented as dependent and needy, wanting constant re-assurance that I was working effectively. My Supervisor became uncomfortable with this, and stated that I needed to be more confident in my abilities and to stop relying on the theory. Any attempt to elicit a concrete answer was pushed back to me. At the time I felt very frustrated by this and after discussing these issues in personal therapy, which I was engaged in as a requirement of my training, I considered whether the Supervisor had expected too much of me at the time and also whether I perhaps appear more competent than I actually am. As argued by Stoltenberg, McNeill and Delworth (1998), like clients at the beginning of therapy, trainee therapists also go through a stage of dependency during their professional development,

when they feel highly insecure and anxious. At this stage they have a need for their supervisor to contain these feelings, which is best achieved through taking a structured and supportive approach. Therefore, to encourage this, I began to plan and structure the supervision sessions for myself which made them more satisfactory. Although this increased satisfaction may also have been facilitated by a transition into the second stage of trainee development, which is characterised by dependency-autonomy conflicts. Therefore, fluctuating between feeling over-confident and overwhelmed, my focus became directed more on the client rather than on myself (Stoltenberg et. al., 1998).

3.4 Reflective Commentary

As in the introductory part of the case study, the development of therapy section consists of a number of examples of descriptive reflection. In the discussion of the therapeutic plan and main techniques used, the trainee describes how the therapeutic plan was chosen according to the available literature and developed protocols. Following this, in reviewing the discussion of emergent themes, it is apparent that the reflections of the trainee become more dialogic. With the writing becoming more of dialogue with the self, the trainee reflects on the irritation felt towards the client and explores some of the possible reasons for this, before describing the strategy chosen to manage the client's dependency. During this process, the trainee uses the phrase "on reflection", which is described by Hatton and Smith (1995) as a typical term used by the trainees in their study in order to begin a dialogic reflection. Further to this, the reflections on the supervisory process again are dialogic, with the trainee attempting to make sense of her need for re-assurance within supervision by discussing the possible unrealistic expectations of the supervisor and also linking

her neediness in supervision to her developmental level as a trainee counselling psychologist.

4.0 Section C-Review

4.1 The Future

Having achieved the therapeutic aims, in our last sessions we plan to consolidate the progress made so far, by focusing on Rita's core conditions or schemas, improving confidence and extending her social network. Rita has been referred on to a group for confidence building and assertiveness, which begins in a couple of months and in the meantime I plan to terminate therapy. Due to Rita's potential dependency issues our final sessions will be staggered over this period (Ward, 1984).

4.2 What you have learnt about psychotherapeutic practice and theory

My experience of working with CBT is that it is a complex and creative form of therapy. Requiring the therapist to integrate a number of tasks at once including conceptualising the case and collecting data and testing hypotheses, whilst at the same time, tailoring therapy to the level of the individual client (Beck, 1995). This can be very challenging for the trainee therapist, as this demands a certain amount of flexibility, which at the beginning of training when the trainee lacks experience, is difficult to come by.

Despite this complexity, as in most other theoretical orientations, at the heart of effective CBT lies the therapeutic relationship, or alliance (Dryden and Feltham, 1994). Within the model, this is partly fostered by the three core conditions (Rogers, 1951) and also partly by the use of collaboration. It is through collaborative empiricism that therapy provides a transparent

environment, where information is shared and the presenting problems are worked on together, helping to provide a climate of trust.

I have also changed my views about dependent clients during my work with Rita. Rather than recoil with horror at the very thought of a client being dependent, I feel that it is more realistic to accept that this is likely to occur with most clients, who come to therapy in a troubled and distressed state. Further to this, dependency can have positive as well as negative consequences. Therefore, despite being pre-occupied by western notions of independence and self-sufficiency (Neki, 1976), perhaps it should be acknowledged that dependency is even necessary at the beginning of therapy, in order to develop the therapeutic relationship or alliance, which is key to effective therapy (Storr, 1990). In terms of further research on this area it would be interesting to develop a model of managing dependency from this more positive accepting standpoint.

From the therapy, I have also learnt that I would like to work more psychodynamically. Although I have learnt a great deal about CBT by working with Rita, our sessions so far have highlighted to me some of the limitations of the approach. A major issue appears to revolve around Rita's early relationship with her mother. However, within CBT, it would be inappropriate to explore this in any depth. Therefore, to some extent I feel constrained by the model and due to this would like to try out other more analytic approaches such as cognitive analytic therapy.

4.3 Learning from the case about yourself as a trainee therapist

My work with Rita has highlighted the different levels of trainee development and how difficult and anxiety provoking the first stage can be. The dependency or professional training stage (Skovholt and Rønnerstad, 1995) of my development has stressed both my enthusiasm and insecurities about myself as a therapist.

On reflection, I feel that I am more realistic regarding my work as a therapist and that therapy is less about proving myself and what techniques I can utilise and more about being focused on the needs of the client. My earlier expectations of myself were too high and I have again been reminded that I cannot expect to be totally proficient over-night. Therefore, I now find that I am concentrating more on developing myself as a therapist and finding my own style and ways of working. Although I am using supervision and personal therapy to help me in this quest, it is very much a personal journey. Also as part of this more realistic stance and fostered by a greater awareness of myself as a trainee, I feel that I have become more realistic about my supervision and do not expect my supervisor to have all the answers, leading me to take more control of the supervisory process (Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth, 1982).

To conclude, considering the progress of both myself and my client, perhaps part of the process of moving away from dependency comes with the confidence that you are “good enough” (Winnicott, 1964).

4.4 Reflective Commentary

Beginning the final section of the case study by writing descriptively about the future plans for the client, the trainee then steps back and uses dialogic

**PAGE
MISSING
IN
ORIGINAL**

ability to critically reflect develops during the latter stages of professional training. Whatever, the reasons for the pattern of the levels of reflection found within the study, the model seems to provide a useful tool in evaluating a trainee's reflections, with the different levels of reflection corresponding with the areas that counselling psychology trainees are expected to consider when reflecting on their clinical practice. The exercise also serves to demonstrate the efficacy of the case study format in encouraging trainees to reflect on their practice, with the exercise providing some clarity with regard to what it means in practice to be a reflective practitioner.

References

American Psychological Association (1994). *DSM-IV*. Washington DC: APA.

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (1992). Students' epistemologies and academic experiences: implications for pedagogy. *Review of Higher Education*, 15 (3), 265-287.

Beck, A. T. (1976). *Cognitive Therapy and the Emotional Disorders*. London: Penguin.

Beck, A. T. (1985). The Agoraphobic syndrome. In A.T. Beck and G. Emery (Eds.), *Anxiety Disorders and Phobias*. US: Basic Books.

Beck, J. S. (1995). *Cognitive Therapy: Basics and Beyond*. New York: Guilford Press.

Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, R. and Tarule, J. (1986). *Women's Ways of Knowing*. New York: Basic Books.

Butler, G. (1989). Phobic disorders. In K. Hawton, P.M. Salkovskis, J. Kirk and D.M. Clark (Eds.), *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy for Psychiatric Problems: A Practical Guide*. Oxford: Oxford Medical Publications.

Chambless, D.L. and Gillis, M.M. (1983). Cognitive therapy of anxiety disorders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 61, 248-260.

Chambless, D.L. and Goldstein, A.J. (1982). *Agoraphobia: Multiple Perspectives on Theory and Treatment*. New York: John Wiley.

Clark, D.M. (1989). Anxiety states. In K. Hawton, P.M. Salkovskis, J. Kirk and D.M. Clark (Eds.), *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy for Psychiatric Problems: A Practical Guide*. Oxford: Oxford Medical Publications.

Clark, D.M. (1986). A cognitive approach to panic. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*. 24: 461-70.

Clark, D.M. and Beck, A.T. (1988). Cognitive Approaches. In C.G. Last and M. Hershen (Eds.), *Handbook of Anxiety Disorders*. New York: Pergamon.

Decker, R.J. (1988). *Effective Psychotherapy: the silent dialogue*. New York: Hemisphere.

Dryden, W. and Feltham, C. (1994). *Developing the Practice of Counselling*. London: Sage.

Egan, G. (1986). *The Skilled Helper: A Systematic Approach to Effective Helping*. California: Brooks/Cole.

Emery, G. (1985). Principles of cognitive therapy. In A.T. Beck and G. Emery (Eds.), *Anxiety Disorders and Phobias*. US: Basic Books.

Goodman, J. (1994). Reflection and teacher education: A case study and theoretical analysis. *Interchanges*, 15, 9-26.

Griffin, M. L. (2003). Using critical incidents to promote and assess reflective thinking in pre-service teachers. *Reflective Practice*, 4 (2), 207-220.

Grimmett, P., McKinnon, A., Erikson, G. and Riecken, T. (1990). Reflective practice in teacher education. In R. Clift, W Houston and M Pugach (Eds.), *Encouraging Reflective Practice in Education: An Analysis of Issues and Programs*. New York; Teachers College Press.

Hatton, N and Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11 (1), 33-49.

Irving, J. A. and Williams, D. I. (1995). Critical thinking and reflective practice in counselling. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 23 (1), 107-114.

- James, C. and Clarke, B. (1993). Reflective practice in nursing: issues and implications for nurse education. *Nurse Education Today*, 14, 82-90.
- Kember, D., Jones, A., Loke, A., McKay, J., Sinclair, K., Tse, H., Webb, C., Wong, F., Wong, M. and Yeung, E. (1999). Determining and level of reflective thinking from students' written journals using a coding scheme based on the work of Mezirow. *International Journal of Lifelong Learning*, 18 (1), 18-30.
- King, P. and Kitchener, K. (1994). *Developing Reflective Judgement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Klein, D.F. (1981). Anxiety reconceptualized. In D.F. Klein and J.G. Rabkin, (Eds.), *Anxiety: New Research and Changing Concepts*. New York: Raven Press.
- LaBoskey, V. (1993). A conceptual framework for reflection in pre-service teacher education. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press
- Mathew, A.M., Gelder, M.G. and Johnston, D.W. (1981). *Agoraphobia: Nature and Treatment*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education*, 32 (1), 3-24.
- Neki, J.S. (1976). An examination of the cultural relativism of dependence as a dynamic of social and therapeutic relationships. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 49, 1-10.
- Nelson-Jones, R. (1997). *The Theory and Practice of Counselling*. London: Cassell.
- Perry, W. (1970). *Forms of Intellectual and Academic Developments in the College Years*. New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.

- Pultorak, E. G. (1993). Facilitating reflective thought in novice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 44 (4), 288-295.
- Richardson, G. and Maltby, H. (1995). Reflection on practice: enhancing student learning. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 235–242.
- Rogers, C.R. (1951). *Client Centred Therapy*. London: Constable and Company Ltd.
- Ross, D. D. (1989). First steps in developing a reflective approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40 (2), 22–30.
- Salkovskis, P.M. and Clark, D. (1991). Cognitive therapy for panic attacks. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 5, 215-226.
- Skovholt, T.M. and Ronnestad, M.H. (1995). *The Evolving Professional Self: Stages and Themes in Therapist and Counselor Development*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Sparkes-Langer, G. M. and Colton, A. B. (1991). Synthesis of research on teachers' reflective thinking. *Educational Leadership*, 3, 37-44.
- Stoltenberg, C.D., McNeill, B. and Delworth, U. (1998). *IDM Supervision: An Integrated Developmental Model for Supervising Counselors and Therapists*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Storr, A. (1990). *The Art of Psychotherapy*. New York: Menthuen.
- Valli, L. (1993). Reflection in teacher education programmes. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press.
- Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing ways of being. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6, 205-208.

Ward, D.E. (1984). Termination of individual counselling: concepts and strategies. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 63 (2): 1-25.

Watkins Jr., C. E. (1988). Transference phenomena in the counselling situation. In W. Dryden (ed.), *Key Issues for Counselling in Action*. London: Sage.

Winnicott, D.W. (1964). *The Child, the Family and the Outside World*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Wolpe, J. (1961). The systematic desensitization treatment of neurosis. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases*, 132, 189-203.

Wong, F.K.Y., Kember, D., Chung, L.Y.F. and Yan L. (1995). Assessing the level of student reflection from reflective journals. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 48-57,

Wood, J. (2003). Mirror, mirror on the wall: Levels of reflection and professional counselling psychology training. *Unpublished MSc. Dissertation*.

SECTION D – CRITICAL LITERATURE REVIEW
Writing with Reflective Ink: A critical review of the journal literature

1.1 Abstract

Viewed as an important method of reflection, the journal appears to have become an established component within the professional training of a variety of professions, including that of nursing and teaching. Traditionally, journal writing has also been part of professional counselling/therapy training (Daniels and Feltham, 2004), even though there is very little discussion of this type of written exercise in the counselling/therapy literature. In considering the use of these journals in the training of student counsellors and therapists, a number of mainly qualitative studies have been produced primarily within the domains of education and health, which focus on the efficacy of reflective journals in assessing and developing reflective thinking in neophyte nurses and teachers. The evidence from this research suggests that journals do play a significant role both in the development and assessment of reflective thinking and the professional development of the trainee, as well as proposing a number of conditions necessary for successful journal writing. Despite providing some important findings, any conclusions must be considered with some caution, as many of the existing studies have numerous limitations, highlighting the need for further qualitative and quantitative research to be conducted. Suggestions are made for this further research.

Keywords: Learning Journals, Reflective Journals, Reflective Diaries, Journal Writing

1.2 Introduction

Described in the reflection literature as an important method of promoting reflective practice (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Morrison, 1996; Moon, 1999;

Mills and Packer, 2002), the written journal is often a compulsory component of professional training, especially within the domains of teacher education and health (Bain, Ballantyne, Packer and Mills, 1999). Despite the acknowledged difficulties in defining the concept of reflective practice (Atkins and Murphy, 1993; Moon, 1996) and the existence of a variety of different types of journal, there is broad agreement as to their role in utilizing experience in order to promote individual learning and development. As a result of this agreement, a number of rationales for journal writing relating to reflective practice are discussed in the literature; from encouraging trainees to develop reflective thinking and metacognition (Connor-Greene, 2000; Woodward, 1998; Dart, Boulton-Lewis, Brownlee and McCrindle, 1998) to enabling the trainee to integrate theory and practice, thus promoting professional development (Woodfield and Lazurus, 1998; Varner and Peck, 2003).

It is the latter rationale that has been used to justify its use within the professional training of counsellors and therapists, in which the journal or diary has become an established part of a trainee's professional development, providing the neophyte with an opportunity to reflect on practice (Eldridge, 1983; Wright, 2005). Although little reference has been made to substantiate this claim in the counselling and therapy literature, over recent years there has been increasing interest shown in this method of reflection within the general reflection literature and a number of exploratory studies have been produced which focus on the extent to which journals promote and assess reflective thinking. The aim of this paper is to critically evaluate the recent empirical literature and to specifically consider the practical aspects of journal writing together with the effectiveness of journals in promoting student reflection. In

doing so, all the available empirical literature was subject to evaluation in terms of study aims, design and methodology and a summary table is reported in the appendices (see Appendix L). Utilising this evaluation, this paper initially focuses on definitions of journal writing and reflection before reviewing a number of the themes relating to the journal writing process, journal assessment and the impact of the journal on development. The paper will then conclude by considering the implications of any findings and future suggestions for research.

1.3 Defining the Written Journal

In reviewing the literature, the concept of a written journal is not a homogenous one (Walker, 2006). A multitude of terms exist to describe the types of journals that trainees are required to keep as part of their academic and professional training. Including the terms of learning journals, learning logs, portfolios, reflective journals and reflective diaries, these written records provide a diverse set of aims and requirements. However, despite any difference in emphasis, there are some commonalities and for the purpose of this review, journal writing is defined as “a learning exercise in which students express in writing their understanding of, reflections of, response to or an analysis of an event, experience or concept” (Ballantyne and Packer, 1995 cited in Bain, Ballantyne, Packer and Mills, 1999 pg. 52). It is through this utilisation of personal experience and understanding, that journal writing facilitates reflection and higher levels of conceptual thinking skills and learning, which in turn leads to professional development and growth (Callister, 1993).

1.4 Journals and Critical Reflection

As journal writing is described as playing such a crucial role in the promotion of reflection, it is necessary to provide a definition of this concept. Despite the accepted difficulties in describing this term (Atkins and Murphy, 1993; Moon, 1999), it is possible to distinguish two key models of reflective practice. Described by Morrison (1996) as apolitical and political, the first of these models is individualistic and based mainly on the concept of reflection-on-action (Dewey, 1934; Schon, 1983, 1987). Conducting an analysis of events or situations some time after they have occurred in a structured and deliberate way and resulting in the reframing of the event and change, this model of reflection is viewed as empowering the practitioner through allowing greater understanding and professional autonomy (Schon, 1983, 1987; Russell and Munby, 1991). The second model of reflective practice has developed from the work of Habermas (1976) and stresses the political and critical nature of reflection and the possibility of the reflective process resulting in both individual and societal emancipation. This model has been particularly influential in the educational arena, where professional development has become synonymous with the concepts of critical reflection and thinking (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Smyth, 1989). As a result of this, a number of reflective models have been developed which suggest that there are different levels of reflective thinking from the descriptive to the critical and argue for the desirability of the higher level of critical reflection in developing expertise (Van Manen, 1977; Mezirow, 1981; Hatton and Smith, 1995). With the process of critical reflection questioning the validity of taken for granted assumptions and ideas or habits of mind (Mezirow, 1998), there is considerable overlap between this concept and theories of critical

thinking and metacognition, which also emphasise the importance of higher level processes of reflection and thinking (Brookfield, 1988).

Therefore, with the majority of studies in the literature being produced by researchers in the fields of education and teaching, these studies tend to be underpinned by the political model of reflection, discussing the use of journals in terms of the promotion of critical reflection, critical thinking and metacognition (McCrindle and Christensen, 1995; Dart, Boulton-Lewis, Brownlee and McCrindle, 1998; Fonteyn and Cahill, 1998).

1.5 The Journal Writing Process

A range of distinct types of journals are discussed in the literature, including the personal (Morrison, 1996), dialogic (Richardson and Maltby, 1995; Fonteyn and Cahill, 1998; Glazer, Abbot and Harris, 2004) and interactive or class (Alterio, 2004) journal. With the personal or individual journal requiring the trainee to analyse their own experiences unaided, dialogic journals provide an opportunity for the student to share journal entries with a tutor or mentor, who will then comment and allow the student to respond, thus providing a private dialogue (Hubbs and Brand, 2005; Walker, 2006). Similar to this process, the interactive or class journal provides a forum for students to share their entries with fellow students often during a group discussion. Paterson (1995) argues that it is the use of dialogue in journal writing that promotes critical reflection through the sharing of different viewpoints and perspectives, resulting in the student journal writer examining his or her own perspectives. Further to this, dialogue is described as empowering students to think critically about their learning experiences allowing them to challenge their tutors and the curriculum.

This debate has perhaps encouraged the preference for dialogic journals that is apparent in the literature. Although it is evident that this preference is also partly due to the notion that effective reflection on practice requires a process of facilitation and that journal writing without this can result in deceptive and continual introspection, which is not conducive to critical reflection and professional development (Francis, 1994; Brookfield, 1998). However, much of the discussion surrounding the benefits of dialogic journaling compared to other types of journal writing, is purely theoretical and descriptive (Glazer, Abbott and Harris, 2004) and any evidence available tends to be based on the perceptions of the student or trainee (Richardson and Maltby, 1995). Only one study produced by Bain, Ballantyne, Packer and Mills (1999) attempts to empirically consider the need for facilitation, by comparing the dialogic and personal journals of a cohort of trainee teachers. Analysing thirty-five journals produced during an education practicum, the researchers found that although the dialogic journal was effective in promoting reflection, there was little difference in terms of the quality of reflection produced using this approach, compared to that found in the personal journal, described as the self-analysis method. From this finding, the researchers question the assumption that reflection must be facilitated and stress the economic benefits of using a self-analysis approach. Although providing an alternative viewpoint, the methodological limitations of the Bain et al (1999) study in terms of sample size and the analysis of data, highlights the need for further research.

1.6 Journal Structure

A strong case is made in the literature for students to be given clear instructions or guidelines on how to complete their journals, especially when used within a professional training context (Hubbs and Brand, 2005). As a result

of this, as discussed by Moon (1999), many authors and researchers have produced guidelines or instructions for students, which explain the purpose of the journal, any assessment procedures and how and when it should be written. For example, Walker (1985) discusses fourteen practical suggestions when considering the introduction of a student portfolio, including how to initiate the student into using a portfolio and giving a definite time each day or week in which to write their portfolio entries. Similarly, LaBoskey (1993) provides a detailed account of the planning requirements of a journal writing exercise, after reviewing the use of journals in teacher training programmes. From this review, it is argued that before any implementation of a journal writing exercise, course tutors must have given consideration to the four aspects of journal writing; these are described as the purpose of the journal, the context including issues relating to the task and timing, the procedure in terms of how reflection is taught and learned and the content of the journal. In assessing the available research studies, the instructions given to students vary in terms of their comprehensiveness and specificity. With some only giving basic instructions regarding the aim of the journal and how often entries should be written, others are more wide-ranging and also offer specific guidance on how to write journal entries. These content guidelines vary from those that require students to consider practicum or other personal experiences in the light of academic and theoretical learning (Williams et al, 2002) to those that ask students to use a linear model of reflection in which issues are identified, described and considered in relation to any implications (Riley-Doucet and Wilson, 1997). Various levels of reflection and knowledge theories such as those produced by Scanlon and Chernomas (1997), Mezirow (1991) and Bloom (1956) are also

given, often with examples of journal entries in order to encourage higher levels of reflection and based on the assumption that reflection needs to be taught before it is practised (Hettich, 1990).

As the process of journal writing is potentially very time consuming and requires a student to disclose personal experiences, it is argued that the introduction of a clear structure may encourage greater commitment to the journal writing process and help to alleviate any concerns and anxieties a student may have about their writing (Ritchie, 2003). This is viewed as especially important for less experienced students who may lack journal writing experience (Ulne, Wilson and Cordry, 2000). Alternatively, it is also discussed in the literature that any structure may in practice actually hinder the process of journal writing through the imposition of a writing strategy, which serves to stifle creativity. Due to this, unstructured journals are championed in which students are given the freedom to choose how to write their own journal entries (Sumsion and Fleet, 1996). However, it appears that this method is not without its drawbacks and it has been acknowledged that some students can find the reflective process more difficult than others and often require a structure to help them begin the journal writing process. To counter this, Hettich (1990) argues that the introduction of clear journal guidelines can reduce any attitude or aptitude problems of the student. This idea is corroborated in a study by Dart et al (1998), where students were initially given a free structure for their journal entries. However, the researchers found that a number of students found this too challenging resulting in them requesting more structure and being given a set of prescribed Socratic questions, which served to encourage the reflective process.

Although this provides some support for structured journal writing, the idea that they are more effective is mainly theoretical and anecdotal. However, in one empirical study by Hoover (1994), the researcher takes a case study approach to compare focused and unfocused writing assignments. The findings of this study suggest that whilst both types of writing assignment encouraged more frequent reflection, the assignments without a predetermined focus frequently led to more personal complaints and concerns, whereas the structured journal assignment promoted more meta-cognitive thinking, which integrated teaching experience and theory. As a result, the researcher argues that if the rationale for a journal is to allow the trainee to vent their frustrations and to record their “emotional journey over time” (pg.92), then an unfocused journal assignment provides an effective option for this. However, if the aim of the journal is to encourage reflectivity in terms of linking practical experience and theoretical issues, then a more focused assignment is required. Further research is needed to develop these findings, using larger samples to compare the impact of structured and unstructured journals on the reflective process.

1.7 Journal Feedback

With the emphasis on the use of dialogue journals, feedback is described as an essential element of the journal process. Typically this consists of journal entries being read by a tutor or lecturer, who then provides a commentary to encourage the further reflection of the trainee (Moon, 1999; Todd, Mills, Palard and Khamcharoen, 2001; Hubbs and Brand, 2005). Although there is little systematic examination of the impact on feedback, the literature suggests that this procedure does impact on the quantity and quality of a trainee’s reflection, encouraging higher levels of critical reflectivity (Scanlon and Chernomas, 1997;

Ritchie, 2003). Hatton and Smith (1995) found that the students who based their writing on the interactions with critical friends were more likely to reflect at the higher dialogic levels. Further to this in a number of studies, it is reported that there is a perception amongst students that feedback on journal entries by either peers or tutors, aids their reflective process (Bain, Ballantyne, Packer and Mills, 1999; Palmer, 2004). An example of this perception can be found in a study produced by Palmer, (2004) in which the reflective journal entries of engineering students were produced online and entries were made available to other students for reading and comment. The engineering students perceived that this sharing of information and feedback from peers advanced their ability to reflect on experience.

Other available studies have concentrated on the type of feedback that trainees and students found helpful in encouraging them to reflect in their journal entries, although any findings must be viewed with some caution as these studies tend to be small and have methodological limitations. In a small exploratory study produced by Todd et al., (2000), participants from a MA course preferred tutors to provide feedback in response to specific problems, solutions or questions in their journal, rather than making general comments at the end of a journal entry. Students also stated that feedback was most useful when a tutor gave suggestions, positive evaluations or support. In a more detailed study conducted by Bain, Mills, Ballantyne and Packer (2002), the researchers compared the relative effectiveness of four different types of feedback in improving student journal writing and facilitating reflection on practice; with submitted journal entries receiving feedback either on the level of reflection or on the teaching issue raised, this feedback was then varied according to the level

of questioning and challenge (low versus high challenge). The findings of the study again agreed with the literature that students held positive perceptions of the feedback process. Further to this, the results indicate that although all feedback seemed to stimulate reflective writing, more challenging feedback in terms of giving guidelines and a suggested framework on the writing process was most effective in encouraging students to move from descriptive to reflective writing and demonstrated deeper levels of analysis and problem solving.

However, giving feedback is not without its difficulties. Both Garmon (1998) and Connor-Greene (2000) report that feedback is a very time-consuming process for the tutor or mentor, which possibly may effect the quality and quantity of any feedback. In the Connor-Greene (2000) study, the researcher was forced to change the amount of journal entry requirements, partly due to the difficulties of providing regular feedback to a large number of students. Studies successfully using the internet (Palmer, 2004), may provide a more effective way of managing this feedback process?

1.8 Journals and Trust

Various studies, based mainly on the perceptions of the trainee, stress the need for a trusting relationship between the journal writer and tutor (Cameron and Mitchell, 1993; Riley-Doucet and Wilson, 1997; Garmon, 1998; Todd et al., 2001; Wright, 2005), mirroring the acknowledgement in the reflection literature that the disclosure of personal experience and difficulties can be problematic and anxiety provoking, requiring a safe environment. Without this safety, it is argued that a student will write in a superficial way, due to the perception of a lack of trust in the relationship between student and tutor (Paterson, 1995). Cameron

and Mitchell (1993) stress that feeling unsafe results in a façade of learning, with the student writing for the tutor and not themselves. This difficulty is overcome when both parties allow themselves to be vulnerable and open to taking risks. In a case study produced by Garmon (1998), it was found that students were more honest and open when they perceived that there is a positive relationship between themselves and the tutor and when the tutor takes a non-confrontational approach. This need for support is also discussed in a small exploratory study considering the perceptions of a group of counselling and psychotherapy trainees (Wright, 2005). In this study, it was found that students felt that together with feedback, an important aspect of keeping a journal was the ability to engage in a trusting relationship. Agreeing with this, Landeen, Byrne and Brown (1992) suggest that the development of trust takes time, which may be helped by longer journal tasks and the assignment of a long-term tutor. Further to this, the non-judgemental attitude of the tutor and confidentiality are also discussed as important conditions for encouraging the reflective writing process (Walker, 2006). Research by Bain et al (1999, 2000), has refuted these findings and argues that feedback is the only important condition needed to promote journal writing. However, these findings are based on assumption as the researchers make no attempt to consider trust or support as possible mediating variables.

1.9 Journals and Assessment

The concept of assessment is a major theme in the reflective journal literature. Primarily discussed in terms of the extent to which journals provide a method of assessing the reflective thinking of students, there is also some debate as to whether journals should be assessed as part of the evaluation of a student's learning. Both of these sub-themes are discussed below.

1.9.1 Assessing Students' Levels of Reflection

Accepting the importance of reflective thinking to the process of professional development, there has been some interest shown in the role of reflective journals in the measurement of the reflective thinking of trainees within professional nursing and teaching programmes (Hatton and Smith, 1995; Wong, Kember, Chung and Yan, 1995; Kember, Jones, Loke, McKay, Sinclair, Tse, Webb, Wong, Wong and Yeung, 1999; Tang, 2002; Carlson and Parry, 2003; Thorpe, 2004). As developing a coding scheme to assess reflective thinking requires a framework with clearly defined categories (Sumsion and Fleet, 1996), researchers have utilised a number of levels of reflection theories in the hope of finding an effective and reliable framework.

Studies have attempted to provide a framework based on the theory of Mezirow (1981), who describes seven levels of reflection from reflectivity to theoretical reflectivity. Similar to theories of critical thinking, the final three levels involve metacognition and recognition that reflection at the highest level involves social, cultural and political reasoning, which result in “transformative” learning. Studies based on the application of the Mezirow (1981) model all suggest that the student journal provides an effective method of assessing a student’s reflective thinking (Wong et al, 1995; Kember et al, 1999; Jensen and Joy, 2002; Thorpe, 2004). However, these content analysis studies present a number of difficulties relating to the application of the model, the methodology and the reliability of the inter-rater coding. In the Kember et al (1999) study, the procedure for analysing the journals of trainee nurses using the Mezirow model is vague, producing low levels of inter-rater reliability. In an earlier study, Wong et al (1995) circumvent this potential issue by simplifying the Mezirow model,

reducing the number of levels from seven to three. In doing so and applying the categories of non-reflector, reflector and critical reflector, the researchers found that the agreement between the coders was very high at 0.88. These findings are corroborated by Thorpe (2004), who also found high levels of inter-rater reliability using the Wong et al (1995) modified model, although once again elements of the study's methodology are rather ambiguous.

Other studies have stressed the efficacy of the student journal as an assessment tool based on research using alternative levels of reflection theories. For example, Hatton and Smith (1995) analysed the journals of student teachers using their four levels of reflective thinking, based on the work of Van Manen (1977). Further studies have successfully applied this Hatton and Smith model to the assessment of students' reflective thinking (Maclellan, 1999; Wood, 2003). Studies utilising alternative models such as those developed by Sparks-Langer (1999), Powell (1989) and Williams, Sundelin, Foster-Sergeant and Norman (2000), have also concluded that the student journal provides a successful method of assessment. However, as with the studies based on the Mezirow framework, these studies tend to employ small samples and often lack methodological rigour in terms of their procedures and the analysis of data.

Overall, despite the assertion that the written journal can provide a useful method for assessing reflective thinking, the methodological limitations indicate that further research is necessary to build upon the existing studies and their findings. In considering this, it appears that these limitations revolve around the methodology and inter-rater reliability and that perhaps unsurprisingly the simpler the model of reflection, the more reliable the coding. This consideration

is further supported by those studies which have attempted to apply a simple and more complex model of reflection simultaneously. For example, in the Wong et al (1995) study, the researchers also analysed diary entries using the linear Boud, Keogh and Walker, (1985) model and found it too difficult to differentiate between the categories of the model, resulting in poor inter-rater reliability. Although these findings help to endorse the use of simpler or modified models in the assessment of reflective thinking, it is worth noting that some disquiet is expressed in the literature over the use of these models. Arguing that they fail to capture the complexity of the reflective process, it is suggested that they provide an unsuitable tool for the assessment of reflection (Sumsion and Fleet, 1996).

1.9.2 Evaluating Journals

There is some debate in the literature focusing on whether journals should be evaluated as part of a student's coursework requirement. In the majority of the studies reviewed, students' written journals were part of the overall course assessment. In terms of the rationale behind this, it is argued that the process of evaluation is an important part of any learning experience (Crème, 2000). Further to this it is accepted that students do not typically engage voluntarily in the writing of journals, implying that an element of evaluation is required to encourage the writing process (Holland, 1989; Francis, 1995; Jasper, 1999; Carlson and Parry, 2003). Refuting this viewpoint, other theorists stress instead that any evaluation will discourage the student from using the written journal effectively as a medium of learning, encouraging instead the vulnerability of the student and superficiality in exploring their thinking around professional experience (Paterson, 1995). Despite this, there is some acknowledgment that evaluation may be a compulsory requirement within the traditional higher

education environment, resulting in authors providing strategies on how to minimise the potential drawbacks of evaluation. Examples of these strategies include assessing a piece of written work based on the themes of the written journal rather than assessing the journal itself (Riley-Doucet and Wilson, 1997; Crème, 2005) and by simply awarding a pass or fail grade for submitting a completed journal (Segal, 1990). However, as with much of the journal writing literature, these ideas relating to the evaluation of journals is mainly theoretical and anecdotal and it would be useful to consider empirically the impact of evaluation on the production of written journals, by comparing journals that are evaluated and those that are not, both in terms of the quality of their content and from the perceptions of the student.

1.10 Journals and Development

Another major theme in the literature involves the suggestion that the written journal promotes reflection and the professional or academic development of the student or trainee. Emphasising different aspects of reflection and learning, these aspects are discussed below.

1.10.1 Promoting Reflective Thinking

A common finding in the research focuses on the idea that journaling allows the student or trainee to reflect through connecting theory with personal experience and knowledge (Surbeck et al, 1991; Ballantyne and Packer, 1995; Dart et al, 1998; Woodfield and Lazarus, 1998; Woodward, 1998; Williams and Wessell, 2004; Wright, 2005). In the work of Woodfield and Lazarus (1998), the learning diaries of qualified teachers on a short language learning course were reviewed using a focus group approach. Through the analysis of the data

produced by the focus group, the theme that learning diaries allowed the teachers to link practice and theory was identified. Although providing some evidence for the use of journals in the promotion of reflection, this study highlights the major difficulty with many of the available studies, which rely almost exclusively on the views and perspective of the student or trainee. Alternatively, Duke and Appleton (2000), in a quantitative cross-sectional study with student palliative care nurses, found that although the use of reflective writing helped the students to discuss their practice, it was less helpful in encouraging an analysis of this practice, bringing in to question the effectiveness of journal writing in advancing reflective thinking. However, once again there are methodological issues with this study relating to the sample strategy, procedure and analysis of data.

Other studies discuss how the writing of journals encourages the development of reflective thinking over time (Surbeck et al, 1991; Landeen et al, 1992; Ballantyne and Packer, 1995; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Richardson and Maltby, 1995; Woodfield and Lazarus, 1998; Woodward, 1998; Duke and Appleton, 2000; Tang, 2002; Williams et al, 2002). Typically, these studies tend to be longitudinal as opposed to cross-sectional, with students required to make a number of entries over the duration of a course, which are then analysed. The majority of these studies agree that journaling increases the amount of student reflection over the duration of a course. However, it is evident that although there may be an increase in the quantity of reflection, there is not necessarily a corresponding increase in the quality of the reflective thinking over time. For instance, in the work of Hatton and Smith (1995), although the student teachers were found to have increased the amount of reflective writing, this tended to be at the lower descriptive levels of reflection as opposed to the higher critical ones.

Jensen and Joy, (2000) found similar results in their longitudinal research study based on assessing the journal entries of student nurses at three points during a module course. Again the findings indicated that although there was an increase in reflective entries over the duration of the year of the course, the majority of these were at the lower levels of reflection as described by the Mezirow model (1981). In another small study by Placek and Smyth, (1995) using a sample of pre-service physical education students, once again the levels of reflection identified were at the lower levels and the quality of the reflections did not improve over the course of the semester. However, regardless of these conclusions, there are a number of difficulties associated with these studies relating to their methodologies and sample size. Further to this, despite some attempts at longitudinal rather than cross-sectional research, it does not appear that any study provides a baseline measure of reflective thinking, which would enable the researcher to formulate a clearer understanding of the impact of the journal on the development of reflective thinking over time. Also as discussed under the process of journal writing perhaps other variables such as feedback and trust may need to be considered in encouraging and developing higher levels of critical reflection.

1.10.2 Developing Metacognition and Critical Thinking

Despite studies indicating that journals primarily promote reflection at the lower levels of reflective thinking, other studies argue that journaling provides a method of developing meta-cognition or critical thinking (Hettich, 1990; Sorrell, Brown, Silva and Kohlenberg, 1992; Dart et al, 1998; Fonteyn and Cahill, 1998; Jasper, 1999; Tsang, 2003). In a longitudinal study Dart et al, (1998) analysed the journals of trainee teachers on a one-year course of study based on examples

of declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. Analysing the entries using an interpretive-descriptive approach the researchers found extensive evidence of meta-cognitive thinking. Defining meta-cognition as the capacity of students to reflect upon and to control their own learning, examples are provided of students demonstrating their developing knowledge of themselves as a learner and teacher, their understanding of the tasks of learning and teaching as well as particular issues relating to teaching, such as that of control. Although it is unclear whether this ability to reflect at this level developed over the duration of the course, it may be that this process was aided by students being given concrete examples of possible journal entries before the beginning of the journal writing process and the nature of the course itself which focused on human development and learning?

In a grounded theory study analysing the content of focus groups, Jasper (1999) found support for the utility of the journal as a mechanism for learning whilst also suggesting that journal writing encourages the development of analytical and critical thinking through the process of exploring the learning experience. Similarly in a quantitative study based on a large sample of psychology students, Hettich (1990) found that students believed that journal writing had stimulated the process of critical thinking, although the psychology teachers taking part in the study were less convinced about this, arguing that it depended on the aptitude of the student.

1.10.3 Attaining Learning Goals

A number of studies have discussed the written journal in terms of a learning tool, arguing that the production of journal entries aids the student in

reaching specific learning goals (Sedlak, 1992; McCrindle and Christensen, 1995; Sumsion and Fleet, 1996; Garmon, 1998; Connor-Greene, 2000; Ulne et al, 2000; Bennett-Levy, Lee, Travers, Pohlman and Hamernik, 2003). Much of this evidence has been ascertained from asking students in interviews and focus groups, how they feel reflection has influenced their own learning. In the research of Ulne et al (2000), a small cohort of student teachers felt that their journal writing had increased their learning in the areas of behaviour management, teacher flexibility and time management concerns. Similarly, Bennett-Levy et al, (2003) in requiring cognitive behaviour therapists to undertake the self-practice of cognitive techniques and to reflect on these in written journals, identified that the participants acknowledged an enhancement of a number of therapeutic skills including that of an increased awareness of the therapeutic relationship.

Some attempts have also been made to utilise actual measures of learning such as end of term test scores and exams. An example of this can be found in the study by Connor-Greene, (2000), in which psychology students were encouraged to reflect on the psychological theory learnt during class using personal experience and knowledge. Assigning students to either a journal writing or control group, students in the journal writing group were asked to provide a certain number of journal entries. The results indicated that students who were part of the journal writing group did better in the end of term test than those who were part of the control group. Similar findings are described by McCrindle and Christensen (1995), who after randomly assigning first year biology students to either a learning journal or a scientific report group found that the learning journal group did significantly better in the final year exam.

However, it is unclear in these types of studies whether these casual relationships provide actual evidence that journals produce effective learning or whether other variables may have influenced this process.

Other studies which have considered the learning outcomes of journal writing have described changes in areas such as self-awareness and professional growth all based on student perceptions (Jasper, 1999; Winsor et al, 1999; Ritchie, 2003; Williams and Wessell, 2004). However, Landeen et al (1992) in studying the journals of nursing students on a psychiatric rotation, reports mixed results in utilising the journal as a learning tool. In the study, the researchers found that although the journals helped the students to expose and change attitudes, the process of journal writing did not enable the student nurses to change their interpersonal style.

1.11 Discussion and Recommendations

The literature provides a number of insights into the practicalities involved in writing journals and suggests that various factors must be taken into consideration before any implementation of a journal writing exercise, including those relating to journal structure and the level of feedback. Further to this, the research proposes that the student journal can play an important role in the development and assessment of reflective thinking resulting in academic and professional development. However, despite these findings, it is evident that the research, on which these conclusions are based, is less than comprehensive and much of the available literature is problematical. Revolving primarily around small qualitative studies, it appears that there is a lack of replication and extension of existing research findings. Many of the studies that have been

produced lack rigorous methodologies and include poorly defined methods of data analysis. Also the majority of the studies reviewed are based solely on the perceptions of the student or trainee, which although potentially valuable and valid, do not fully explain the fundamentals of effective journal writing and how journals impact on actual practice and development. Also there are few attempts at pre and post test designs and longitudinal studies, which may demonstrate more clearly the impact of journals on the development of reflective thinking and professional development.

In considering these overall limitations in terms of potential future research, there is a need to extend the research literature to include larger and more rigorous qualitative and quantitative studies, which focus both on the process of journal writing and the extent to which it promotes reflective thinking and development. With any further studies requiring an effective framework in order to assess the quantity and quality of student reflections, it appears that simplified reflective models such as those produced by Wong et al (1999) and Hatton and Smith (1995) may provide such a framework and further studies are required to confirm their reliability and validity. In extending the literature it would also be helpful to consider how the impact of journal writing can be measured externally, for instance by considering the impact of producing a journal on the final assessment or examination of students, or by focusing on the impact of increased reflective thinking on patient care or student satisfaction. With studies tending to be cross-sectional and being conducted over a reasonably short time span, more longitudinal studies are required which could evaluate the changes in reflective thinking in student journals over a longer period of

professional training and perhaps could include qualified professionals as well as students.

These conclusions have important implications for the use of student journals within professional counselling/therapy training. The available research although incomplete, provides the field of counselling/therapy with some interesting findings in which to consider the process and role of written journals within a professional training context. This consideration and a commitment to future research in this area will encourage a theoretical basis for the use of journals in counselling/therapy training and will strengthen the concept that journal writing is an important method of reflection allowing the student counsellor or therapist to write with reflective ink.

References

- Alterio, M. (2004). Collaborative journaling as a professional development tool. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 321-332.
- Atkins, S. and Murphy, K. (1993). Reflection: a review of the literature. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18, 1188-1192.
- Bain J. D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C. (1999). Using journal writing to enhance student teachers' reflectivity during field experience placements. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 5, (1), 51-73.
- Bain J. D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C. (2002). Developing reflective practice through journal writing: impacts of variations in the focus and level of feedback. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 8 (2), 171-196.
- Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J. (1995). The role of student journals in facilitating reflection at doctoral level. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 17(1), 29-45.
- Barnett, R. (1994). *The Limits of Competence*. Buckinghamshire: SRHE/OUP
- Bennett-Levy, J., Lee, N., Travers, K., Polmand, S. and Hamernik, E. (2003). Cognitive therapy from the inside: enhancing therapist skills through practicing what we preach. *Behavioural Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 31, 143-158.
- Biggs, J. (1993). From theory to practice: A cognitive systems approach. *HE Research and Development*, 12, 73-85.
- Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification or educational goals, Handbook 1: cognitive domain*. New York: Longman Green.
- Boud, D., Keogh, R. and Walker, D. (1985). *Reflection: Turning experience into learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Brookfield, S. D. (1998). *Developing Critical Thinkers*. Oxford: OUP.

- Cameron, B. L. and Mitchell, A. M. (1993). Reflective peer journals: Developing authentic nurses. *Journal of Advanced Learning*, 18, 290-297.
- Callister, L. C. (1993). The use of student journals in nursing education: Making meaning out of clinical experience. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 32(4), 185-186.
- Carlson, T. and Parry, S. (2003). A reflective framework from a pre-service teacher's perspective. *Physical Educator*, 60(4), 208-221.
- Carr, W. and Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Connor-Greene, P. A. (2000). Making connections: evaluating the effectiveness of journal writing in enhancing student learning. *Teaching of Psychology*, 27(1), 44-46.
- Crème, P. (2000). Should student learning journals be assessed? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 30(3), 287-296.
- Daniels, J. and Feltham, C. (1994). Reflective and therapeutic writing in counsellor training. In G. Bolton, S. Howlett, C. Lago and J. K. Wright (Eds.), *Writing Cures an Introductory Handbook of Writing in Counselling and Therapy*. London: Routledge.
- Dart, B. C., Boulton-Lewis, G. M., Brownlee, J. M. and McCrindle. (1998). Change in knowledge of learning and teaching through journal writing. *Research Papers in Education*, 13(3), 291-318.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think*. Boston, MA: D C Heath and Co.
- Duke, S. and Appleton, J. (2000). The use of reflection in a palliative care programme: a qualitative study of the development of reflective skills over an academic year. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 32, 1557-1568.

Eldridge, W. D. (1983). The use of personal logs to assist clinical students in understanding and integrating theories of counseling intervention. *Instructional Science*, 12, 279-283.

Fonteyn, M. E. and Cahill, M. (1998). The use of clinical logs to improve nursing students' metacognition: a pilot study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 28(1), 149-154.

Francis, D. (1985). Reflective journal: a window to pre-service teachers' practical knowledge. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11, (3), 229 – 241.

Garmon, M. A. (1998). Using dialogue journals to promote student learning in a multicultural teacher education course. *Remedial & Special Education*, 19(1), 32-46.

Glazer, C. Abbott, L. and Harris, J. (2004). A teacher-developed process for collaborative professional reflection. *Reflective Practice*, 5(1), 33-46.

Habermas, J. (1971). *Knowledge and Human Interests*. London: Heineman.

Habermas, J. (1974). *Theory and Practice*. London: Heineman.

Harris, S., Dolan, G. and Fairbairn, G. (2001). Reflecting on the use of student portfolios. *Nurse Education Today*, 21, 278 – 286.

Hatton, N and Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11 (1), 33-49.

Hettich, P. (1990). Journal writing: Old fare or nouvelle cuisine? *Teaching of Psychology*, 17, 36-39.

Hoover, L. (1994). Reflective writing as a window on pre-service teachers' thought processes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10, 83 – 93.

Hubbs, D. L. and Brand, C. F. (2005). The paper mirror: understanding reflective journaling. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 28(1), 60-71.

Kember, D., Jones, A., Loke, A., McKay, J., Sinclair, K., Tse, H., Webb, C., Wong, F., Wong, M. and Yeung, E. (1999). Determining and level of reflective thinking from students' written journals using a coding scheme based on the work of Mezirow. *International Journal of Lifelong Learning*, 18 (1), 18 – 30.

Kuiper, R. A. and Pesut, D. J. (2004). Promoting cognitive and metacognitive reflective reasoning skills in nursing practice: self-regulated learning theory. *Journal of Advanced Learning*, 45(4), 381-391.

Jasper, M. A. (1999). Nurses' perceptions of the value of written reflection. *Nurse Education Today*, 19, 452-463.

Jensen, S. K. and Joy, C. (2002). Exploring a model to evaluate levels of reflection in baccalaureate nursing students' journals. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 44(3), 139-142.

LaBoskey, V. (1993). A conceptual framework for reflection in pre-service teacher education. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press

Landeen, J., Byrne, C. and Brown, B. (1992). Journal keeping as an educational strategy in teaching psychiatric nursing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 17, 347-355.

Maclellan, E. (1999). Reflective commentaries: what do they say about learning? *Educational Action Research*, 7(3), 433-449.

McCrindle, A. R. and Christensen, C. A. (1995). The impact of learning journals on metacognitive and cognitive processes and learning performance. *Learning and Instruction*, 5, 167-185.

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education*, 32 (1), 3-24.

Moon, J. A. (1999). *Reflection in Learning and Professional Development: Theory and Practice*. London: Kogan Page.

Moon, J. A. (2004). *A Handbook of Reflective and Experiential Learning: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge Farmer.

Morrison, K. (1995). Dewey, Habermas and reflective practice. *Curriculum*, 16, 82-94.

Morrison, K. (1996). Developing reflective practice in higher degree students through a critical journal. *Studies in HE*, 21 (3), 317 – 332.

Palmer, S. (2004). Evaluation of an on-line reflective journal in engineering education. *Applied Engineering Education*, 12, 209-214.

Paterson, B. L. (1995). Developing and maintaining reflection in clinical journals. *Nurse Education Today*, 15, 211-220.

Placek, J. H. and Smyth, D. M. (1995). Teaching preservice physical education teachers to reflect. *Physical Educator*, 52(2), 106-112.

Powell, H. (1989). The reflective practitioner in nursing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 14(10), 824-832.

Rees, C. E., Shepherd, M. and Chamberlain, S. (2005). The utility of reflective portfolios as a method of assessing first year medical students' personal and professional development. *Reflective Practice*, 6(1), 3-14.

Richardson, G. and Maltby, H. (1995). Reflection on practice: enhancing student learning. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 235 – 242.

Richert, A. (1990). Teaching teachers to reflect: a consideration of programme structure. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 22 (6), 509 – 527.

Riley-Doucet, C. and Wilson, S. (1997). A three-step method of self-reflection using reflective journal writing. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 25, 964-968.

Ritchie, M. A. (2003). Faculty and student dialogue through journal writing. *Journal for Specialists in Pediatric Nursing*, 8(1), 5-12.

Ross, D. D. (1989). First steps in developing a reflective approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40 (2), 22 – 30.

Russell, T. and Munby, H. (Eds.) (1992). *Teachers and Teaching: from classroom to reflection*. London: The Falmer Press.

Scanlon, J. M. and Chernomas, W. M. (1997). Developing the reflective teacher. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 25(6), 1138-1143.

Schon, D. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Segal, E. S. (1990). The journal: Teaching reflexive methodology on an introductory level. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 21, 121-127.

Sorrell, J. M., Hazel, N. B., Cipriano Silver, M. and Kohlenberg, E. M. (1997). Use of writing portfolios for interdisciplinary assessment of critical thinking outcomes of nursing students. *Nursing Forum*, 32(4), 12-24.

Sparks-Langer, G. M., Simmons, J. M., Pasch, M., Colton, A. and Stark, A. (1990). Reflective pedagogical thinking: How can we promote and measure it? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 41, 23-32.

Sumsion, J. and Fleet, A. (1996). Reflection: can we assess it? Should we assess it? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 21(2), 121-130.

Surbeck, E., Han, E. P. and Moyer, J. E. (1991). Assessing reflective responses in journals. *Educational Leadership*, 48, 25-27.

Smyth, J. (1989). Developing and sustaining critical reflection in teacher education. *Journal of Teaching Education*, 40, 2-9.

Tabachnick, B. R. and Zeichner, K. (1984). The impact of student teaching and learning on the development of teacher perspectives. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 35, 28 – 42.

Tang, C. (2002). Reflective diaries as a means of facilitating and assessing reflection. *Paper given at HERDSA Conference*.

Thorpe, K. (2004). Reflective learning journals: from concept to practice. *Reflective Practice*, 5(3), 327-343.

Todd, R. W., Mills, N., Palard, C. and Khamchareon, P. (1990). Giving feedback on journals. *ELT Journal*, 55(4), 354-359.

Tsang, W. K. (2003). Journaling from internship to practice teaching. *Reflective Practice*, 4(2), 221-240.

Ulne, C., Wilson, J. D. and Cordry, S. (2000). Reflective journals: a valuable tool for teacher preparation. *Education*, 124(3), 456-460.

Valli, L. (1993). Reflection in teacher education programmes. In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press.

Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing ways of being. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6, 205-208.

Varner, D. and Peck, S. R. (2003). Learning from learning journals: the benefits and challenges of using learning journal assignments. *Journal of Education*, 27(1), 52-77.

Walker, D. (1985). Writing and reflection. In R. Keogh and D. Walker (eds.), *Reflection; Turning experience into learning*. London: Kogan Page.

Walker, S. E. (2006). Journal writing as a teaching technique to promote reflection. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 41(2), 216-221.

Williams, R. M. Sundelin, G. Foster-Seargeant, E. and Norman, G. R. (2002). Assessing the reliability of grading reflective journal writing. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 14, 23-26.

Williams, R. M., Wessell, J., Gemus, M. and Foster-Seargeant, E. (2002). Journal writing to promote reflection by physical therapy students during clinical placements. *Physiotherapy Theory and Practice*, 18, 5-15.

Williams, R. M. and Wessell, J. (2004). Reflective journal writing to obtain student feedback about their learning during the study of chronic musculoskeletal conditions. *Journal of Allied Health*, 33(1), 17-23.

Winsor, P. J. T., Richare, L. B. and Reeves, H. (1999). Portraying professional development in preservice teacher education: can portfolios do the job? *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 5(1), 9-31.

Wong, F.K.Y., Kember, D., Chung, L.Y.F. and Yan L. (1995). Assessing the level of student reflection from reflective journals. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 48-57.

Wong, E. K. Y., Loke, A. Y. and Wong, M. W. L. (2001). The action research process. In D. Kember (ed.), *Reflective Teaching and Learning in the Health Professions*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd.

Wood, J. (2003). Mirror, mirror on the wall: Levels of reflection and professional counselling psychology training. *Unpublished MSc. Dissertation*.

Woodfield, H. and Lazarus, E. (1998). Diaries: a reflective tool on an INSET language course. *ELT Journal*, 52(4), 315-322.

Woodward, H. (1998). Reflective journals and portfolios: learning through assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation*, 23(4), 415-423.

Wright, J. K. (2005). A discussion with myself on paper: counselling and psychotherapy masters student perceptions of keeping a learning log. *Reflective Practice*, 6(4), 507-521.

Zeichner, K. M. (1981). Reflective teaching and field-based experience in teacher education. *Interchange*, 12 (4), 1 – 22.

Zeichner, K. M. and Liston, D. P. (1985). Teaching student teachers to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57 (1), 23 – 48.

APPENDIX A
Ethical Approval from City University

PAGE
NUMBERING
AS ORIGINAL

Appendix 4: ETHICS RELEASE FORM

All students planning to undertake research in the Department of Psychology for degree or other purposes are required to complete this Ethics Release Form and have it signed by their supervisor and one other member of staff prior to commencing the investigation. Please note the following:

- An understanding of ethical considerations is central to planning and conducting research.
- The published Code of Ethics of the British Psychological Society (1997) Code of Conduct, Ethical Principles and Guidelines. BPS. Leicester and American Psychological Society (1992) Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct. American Psychologist, 47, no 12, 1597-1611 should be referred to when planning your research.
- Approval to carry out research does not exempt you from Ethics Committee approval from institutions within which you may be planning to conduct the research, eg: Hospitals, NHS Trusts, HM Prisons Service, etc.
- Completed and signed ethics release forms must be submitted as an appendix in the final dissertation

Please answer all of the following questions:

1.	Has a research proposal been completed and submitted to the supervisor?	Yes	☒	No	☐
2.	Will the research involve either or both of the following:	Yes	☒	No	☐
	2.1 A survey of human subjects/participants				
	2.2 An intervention with a cohort of human subjects/ participants, and/or an evaluation of outcome of an intervention?	Yes	☐	No	☒
3.	Is there any risk of physical or psychological harm to participants (in either a control or experimental group)?	Yes	☐	No	☒
4.	Will all participants receive an information sheet describing the aims, procedure and possible risks involved, in easily understood language? (Attach a copy of the participants information sheet)	Yes	☒	No	☐
5.	Will any person's treatment or care be in any way prejudiced if they choose not to participate in the study?	Yes	☐	No	☒

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|-----|-------------------------------------|----|-------------------------------------|
| 6. | Will all participants be required to sign a consent form, stating that they understand the purpose of the study and possible risks ie will informed consent be given? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |
| 7. | Can participants freely withdraw from the study at any stage without risk of harm or prejudice? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |
| 8. | Will the study involve working with or studying minors (ie <16 years)? | Yes | ☐ | No | ☒ |
| | If yes, will signed parental consent be obtained? | Yes | ☐ | No | ☐ |
| 9. | Are any questions or procedures likely to be considered in any way offensive or indecent? | Yes | ☐ | No | ☒ |
| 10. | Will all necessary steps be taken to protect the privacy of participants and the need for anonymity? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |
| | Is there provision for the safe-keeping of video/audio recordings of participants? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |
| 11. | If applicable, is there provision for de-briefing participants after the intervention or study? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |
| 12. | If any psychometric instruments are to be employed, will their use be controlled and supervised by a qualified psychologist? | Yes | ☒ | No | ☐ |

If you have placed an X in any of the double boxes ☒, please provide further information below:

The study will involve a survey of counselling psychology trainees and qualified counselling psychologists.

Student's Name: Jo Ward.

Degree Course: DPSych.

Title Of Research Project: Reflective Practice and Supervision: Is there a relationship between the supervisee's perception of the supervisor and the supervisory relationship and reflection in practice?
Supervisor: DR MARCUM CROSS.

Signature of Student: J. Ward.

Signature of Supervisor: [Signature]

Signature of a 2nd Psychology Department member: [Signature]

Date: 7/6/05.

Any further comments:

A completed copy of this form must be included in the appendix of your dissertation.

APPENDIX B
Code Books and Coding Form

Initial Coding Frame and Codebook

1. Negative Reactions to the Supervisor

Unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the supervisor

e.g. he was very rigid in his practice; she didn't seem to know what she was doing

2. Personal Issues

Thoughts about the self, experiences or problems that may not be known in the supervision setting and may potentially impinge on the therapeutic work and relationship

e.g. a specific family crisis or burn-out

3. Clinical Mistakes

Thoughts relating to perceived errors or inadequacy as a counsellor

e.g. saying the wrong thing or using an inappropriate intervention

4. Evaluation Concerns

Uncertainty or uneasiness about the supervisor's assessment(s) of the supervisee

e.g. I wonder how my supervisor will evaluate me; I do not know whether my supervisor's evaluation of me is generally positive or negative

5. General Client Observations

Comments about client behaviours, appearance, diagnosis, interventions, formulations or the counselling process

e.g. being unclear about what interventions to use; concern about the client seeming to be unmotivated

6. Negative Reactions to the Client

Unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the client

e.g. becoming frustrated or annoyed with a client; finding a client boring or manipulative

7. Countertransference

Counsellor's identification with the client, or a statement that a reaction to a client is counter-transference

e.g. feeling that you are over-relating with a client; I really identified with the client because of our similar backgrounds; feeling protective of a 4 year old female client

8. Client-therapist Attraction Issues

Thoughts or feelings about the client or counsellor appearing or feeling drawn to or interested in the other person in a sexual or physical sense

e.g. He wanted more a girlfriend relationship with me; I found a male client attractive

9. Positive Reactions to the Supervisor

Pleasant, approving or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the supervisor

e.g. I like him as a person and find him interesting; I really value our sessions together

10. Supervision Concerns

Thoughts, feelings or reactions regarding activities or services at the supervision site

e.g. feeling overwhelmed by your client allocation; not liking the approach to working with clients at the placement

11. Supervisor Appearance

Comments, thoughts or feelings about the supervisor's external image

e.g. disapproval of dress habits; he wears clothes out of the 70s

12. Supervisee-supervisor Attraction Issues

Thoughts or feelings about the supervisee or supervisor appearing or feeling drawn to or interested in the other person in a sexual or physical sense

e.g. at one point I felt that my supervisor was attracted to me; I think my supervisor is very attractive and also brilliant

13. Positive Reactions to the Client

Pleasant, approving, or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the client

e.g. particular feeling of closeness to the client; flattered and pleased that 12 year old client wants me to be more involved in her life outside of therapy

Final Coding Frame and Codebook

1. Negative Reactions to the Supervisor

Unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the supervisor

e.g. he was very rigid in his practice; she didn't seem to know what she was doing

2. Personal Issues

Thoughts about the self, experiences or problems that may not be known in the supervision setting and may potentially impinge on the therapeutic work and relationship

e.g. a specific family crisis or burn-out

3. Clinical Mistakes

Thoughts relating to perceived errors

e.g. saying the wrong thing or using an inappropriate intervention

4. Evaluation Concerns

Uncertainty or uneasiness about the supervisor's assessment(s) of the supervisee

e.g. I wonder how my supervisor will evaluate me; I do not know whether my supervisor's evaluation of me is generally positive or negative

5. Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee

Thoughts relating to a lack of perceived ability to work with a particular client or client group

e.g. I felt that I could not help the client

6. Client Work Concerns

Comments about diagnosis, interventions, formulations or the counselling process

e.g. being unclear about what interventions to use; concern about the client seeming to be unmotivated

7. Negative Reactions to the Client

Unpleasant, disapproving or critical thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the client

e.g. becoming frustrated or annoyed with a client; finding a client boring or manipulative

8. Client Behaviours

Comments about particular client behaviours

e.g. having difficulties with a talkative client; coping with a client's aggression

9. Countertransference

Counsellor's identification with the client, or a statement that a reaction to a client is counter-transference

e.g. feeling that you are over-relating with a client; I really identified with the client because of our similar backgrounds; feeling protective of a 4 year old female client

10. Client/Counsellor Attraction Issues

Thoughts or feelings about the client or counsellor appearing or feeling drawn to or interested in the other person in a sexual or physical sense

e.g. He wanted more a girlfriend relationship with me; I found a male client attractive

11. Positive Reactions to the Supervisor

Pleasant, approving or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the supervisor

e.g. I like him as a person and find him interesting; I really value our sessions together

12. Placement Setting Concerns

Thoughts, feelings or reactions regarding activities or services at the placement site

e.g. feeling overwhelmed by your client allocation; not liking the approach to working with clients at the placement

13. Supervisor Appearance

Comments, thoughts or feelings about the supervisor's external image

e.g. disapproval of dress habits; he wears clothes out of the 70s

14. Supervisee/Supervisor Attraction Issues

Thoughts or feelings about the supervisee or supervisor appearing or feeling drawn to or interested in the other person in a sexual or physical sense

e.g. at one point I felt that my supervisor was attracted to me; I think my supervisor is very attractive and also brilliant

15. Positive Reactions to the Client

Pleasant, approving, or complimentary thoughts, feelings or characterisations relating to the client

e.g. particular feeling of closeness to the client; flattered and pleased that 12 year old client wants me to be more involved in her life outside of therapy

16. Supervisory Session Concerns

Thoughts, feelings or reactions regarding the supervisory sessions

e.g. not having enough supervision; supervisory sessions being too infrequent; finding it difficult due to supervisor working in a particular theoretical approach

Coding Form for Analysis of Interview Examples of Disclosure

Participant	Client-Counselor Attraction Issues	Positive Reactions to the Supervisor	Supervision Session Concerns	Placement Setting Concerns	Supervisee-Supervisor Attraction Issues	Positive Reactions to a Client	Supervisor Appearance
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							
10							
11							
12							
13							
14							
15							

APPENDIX C
Interview Script/Prompt

Interview Prompt/Script

Thank you for agreeing to take part in my study.

My research is focusing on reflection within supervision. I am interviewing a number of trainees and supervisors for a questionnaire I am developing.

This interview with you today is semi-structured and will last for a maximum of 30 minutes. I have some set questions I need to ask you, based on a number of categories from the literature.

I will be taping our conversation, which will be transcribed for analysis.

In the model I am basing my research on, reflection in supervision is seen as triggered by a problem/issue encountered by a supervisee in therapy with a client or supervision, which encourages a feeling of stuckness or confusion.

An example of this could be when a supervisee may want to reflect upon negative feelings towards the client, perceived clinical mistakes, concerns about assessment/formulation or interventions, difficulties with supervision.

Trainee –I would like you to think about your own experiences of supervision. Could you tell me about the sorts of problems/issues that you have taken to supervision to reflect on?

Supervisor – I would like you to think about your own experiences of supervising trainees. Could you talk to me about the sorts of problems/issues that trainees have brought to your supervision to reflect on?

(Use list of potential disclosures in supervision as a prompt)

APPENDIX D
Information and Consent Forms

Information and Consent Form

My name is Joanne Wood and I am conducting research on reflection within supervision for my DPsych in Counselling Psychology at City University, supervised by Dr Malcolm Cross.

The purpose of this study is to consider whether there is a relationship between supervisee perceptions of the supervisory relationship and a willingness to begin the reflective process by disclosing problematic events and issues within supervision.

You are being asked to take part in a short semi-structured interview and to provide some basic demographic information. The interview will be taped and transcribed.

I would like to emphasise, that your participation is totally voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time.

If you have any questions please feel free to ask.

The information will be kept strictly confidential on a pass-worded computer and will only be available to the research team. Excerpts from the exercises may be used in the final research report. However, names or any identifying characteristics will not be included.

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study.

Please initial below to show that you have read the contents and keep a copy for your own information.

_____ (Name)

_____ (date)

If you would like to receive information regarding the findings of this study on its completion, please provide your home or e-mail address below.

Information and Consent Form

My name is Joanne Wood and I am conducting research on reflection within supervision for my DPsych in Counselling Psychology at City University, supervised by Dr Malcolm Cross.

The purpose of this study is to consider whether there is a relationship between supervisee perceptions of the supervisory relationship and a willingness to begin the reflective process by disclosing problematic events and issues within supervision.

By agreeing to take part in the study, you will be asked to complete three short questionnaires which relate to your current experience of supervision. Therefore, when completing the questionnaires, please have in mind your *current* supervisor. If you have more than one supervisor, please choose and focus on *one* of your supervisors. You will also be asked to complete a demographics form.

I would like to emphasise that your participation is totally voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time.

If you have any questions please feel free to ask.

The information provided by the questionnaires will be kept strictly confidential on a pass-worded computer and will only be available to the research team. However, names or any identifying characteristics will not be included.

Once you have completed the questionnaires and demographics form, please forward these to me using the stamped addressed envelope provided.

Please initial below to show that you have read the contents and keep a copy for your own information.

_____ (Name)

_____ (date)

If you would like to receive information regarding the findings of this study on its completion, please provide an e-mail address below.

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study.

APPENDIX E
Demographics Information Sheets

Demographics Information Form

Please mark with a cross or complete the relevant item under each section.

1. Year of Training (If part-time, please state full-time equivalent trainee status)

Year 1
Year 2
Year 3

2. Age

21-25
26-30
31-35
36-40
40+

3. Gender

Male
Female

4. Highest Qualification

BA
BSc
MA
MSc
MPhil
PhD
Other

5. Years of Practical Counselling/Therapy Experience

0 to 1
1 to 2
2 to 3
3 to 4
5+

6. Years of Experience of Being Supervised

0 to 1
1 to 2
2 to 3
3+

7. Main Theoretical Orientation of Your Supervisor

CBT
Psychodynamic
Humanistic/Person-Centred
Eclectic/Integrative
Other (Please State)

8. Ethnicity (please state)

APPENDIX F
Coder Instruction Sheet

Coding Instructions for Independent Coders

This study is concerned with identifying the different types of issues and concerns that are disclosed by counselling psychology trainees during the course of supervision. Your task is to code the examples given in the interview transcripts according to the codebook, which explains the various categories.

Please spend some time familiarising yourself with the codebook before you begin the coding exercise. Examples have been given to guide you in this process.

Note that each unit can only be coded **once**. If you are unsure, please mark down the unit as unclear.

In terms of the process, you will be given a number of transcripts to read. Once completed, the transcripts should be returned to the researcher.

In order to code the units, the attached coding sheet should be used with the reflective exercise transcripts in which you should mark down the types of issues and concerns discussed by each participant using tally marks to mark the relevant columns.

APPENDIX G
Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire (DISQ)

Disclosure in Supervision Questionnaire

Instructions

The following statements describe issues and concerns that trainee counselling psychologists may experience during the course of their client work and supervision. Please read each statement and then rate the extent you would feel comfortable in disclosing and reflecting on these issues and concerns with your current supervisor.

I WOULD FEEL COMFORTABLE DISCLOSING:

	1	2	3	4	5
	Not at all				Very much so
1. Negative Reactions to Supervisor Unpleasant, disapproving, or critical thoughts or feelings relating to the supervisor e.g. a supervisor seeming to lack experience or competence	1	2	3	4	5
2. Personal Issues Thoughts about the self and experiences that may not be in the public domain e.g. specific family crisis; burn-out	1	2	3	4	5
3. Clinical Mistakes Thoughts related to perceived mistakes e.g. saying the wrong thing or using an inappropriate intervention	1	2	3	4	5
4. Feeling Inadequate as a Trainee Thoughts relating to a perceived lack of ability to work with a particular client or client group e.g. feeling unable to help a client	1	2	3	4	5
5. Evaluation Concerns Uncertainty or uneasiness about the supervisor's assessment e.g. lack of clarity regarding how the supervisor evaluates clinical performance	1	2	3	4	5
6. Client Work Concerns Comments about interventions, formulations, interpretations or the counselling process e.g. being unclear about interventions; issues relating to endings, boundaries or confidentiality	1	2	3	4	5
7. Negative Reactions to a Client Unpleasant, disapproving/critical thoughts or feelings relating to the client e.g. becoming frustrated or annoyed with a client; finding a client boring	1	2	3	4	5

Please Turn Over

APPENDIX H
Permission to use Revised Relationship Inventory (RRI)

Godfrey T. Barrett-Lennard  Ph.D.

6 Dover Crescent, Wembley Downs, WA. Australia 6019

Email: G.Barrett-Lennard@murdoch.edu.au

17th January, 2004

Joanne Wood
23 Gresley Close
Welwyn Garden City
Hertfordshire
AL8 7QA England

Dear Mrs. Wood

This letter confers my formal permission for your research use of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (RI/BLRI), *in accord with the conditions mentioned below*. Please make careful note of these conditions, and retain this letter.

1. (a) This permission covers your preparation and use of up to three hundred and fifty (350) copies altogether of the Inventory, for your present study and any later research that you might conduct, collaborate in or personally supervise.

(b) This agreement covers uses of the instrument in research and training-educational contexts. It *excludes* use of the Relationship Inventory in private fee-paying practice for diagnostic or related practice purposes. (If this exclusion is a barrier to any application you wish to make in the future, write again to explain the further use you seek my agreement to.)

2. An associated condition calls on you to provide for my records *the full reference details* (as and when they are available), of any research report or publication that includes results from use of the RI under this permission. I would be pleased to have a summary or abstract as well.

3. If you take particular scales from the BLRI, or make any other adjustments to a regular 40-item or 64-item form, my permission depends on you *sending me a copy* of the amended version as soon as you consider it ready for use and before you begin your main data-gathering. You would need also to fully describe any such modification when reporting your research.

4. The RI includes my last name in its title, and this should appear on all copies. If you wish to include the Inventory in a thesis/dissertation or any *unpublished* report of your work available to others, it is *essential to clearly note that this inclusion has my consent* – which this letter hereby provides in advance.

This consent does *not extend* to actually publishing any whole or reduced form of the RI in a journal article or book. It could be closely described in print, with illustrative items, together with mention of more detailed information sources such as my report in the Greenberg/Pinsof volume (1986) and/or Chapter 8 in my book *Steps on a mindful journey..* (2003).

I will be interested in the way your work with the Relationship Inventory develops, and look forward to knowing its outcomes.

Sincerely,



Subj: Re: Research Query from Joanne Wood
Date: 03/05/2005 03:24:55 GMT Standard Time
From: anitad@searhc.org
To: DJWOOD5@aol.com
Sent from the Internet (Details)

Joanne - You have my permission as long as you give Barrett-Lennard and me credit. I have a copy I can send to you; just route me your address and/or fax number. - Anita

DJWOOD5@aol.com wrote:

Dear Anita,

many thanks for getting back to me (and thanks to your brother). I have spent hours on the internet trying to locate you!

I am a doctoral student at City University (London), whose research interests are reflective thinking and the training of the reflective practitioner. My doctorate is focusing on the idea of facilitating reflection within a supportive supervisory environment and as part of my study I plan to use the Barrett Lennard Relationship Inventory and have been given permission by Goff Barrett-Lennard to use the inventory. However, your short version of the BLRI sounds more appropriate and user-friendly and I wonder whether I could have permission to use your version of the inventory? And if so, where can obtain it?

Thanks again

Kind regards

Joanne Wood

APPENDIX I
Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity Inventory (RCRAI)

SUPERVISEE PERCEPTIONS OF SUPERVISION

INSTRUCTIONS

The following statements describe some problems that counselling psychologists in training may experience during the course of clinical supervision. Please read each statement and then rate the extent to which you have experienced difficulty in supervision in your current clinical training.

I HAVE EXPERIENCED DIFFICULTY IN MY CURRENT SUPERVISION BECAUSE:

	Not at all				Very much so
1. I was not certain about what material to present to my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have felt that my supervisor was incompetent or less competent than I. I often felt as though I was supervising him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have wanted to challenge the appropriateness of my supervisor's recommendations for using a technique with one of my clients, but I have thought it better to keep my opinions to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I wasn't sure how best to use supervision as I became more experienced, although I was aware that I was undecided about whether to confront him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I believed that my supervisor's behaviour in one or more situations was unethical or illegal and I was undecided about whether to confront him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My orientation to therapy was different from that of my supervisor. She or he wanted me to work with clients using her or his framework, and I felt that I should be allowed to use my own approach.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I have wanted to intervene with one of my clients in a particular way and my supervisor has wanted me to approach the client in a very different way. I am expected both to judge what is appropriate for myself and also to do what I am told.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My supervisor expected me to come prepared for supervision, but I had no idea what or how to prepare.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I wasn't sure how autonomous I should be in my work with clients.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My supervisor told me to do something I perceived to be illegal or unethical and I was expected to comply.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My supervisor's criteria for evaluating my work were not specific.	1	2	3	4	5

Please Turn Over

	Not at all				Very much so
12. I was not sure that I had done what the supervisor expected me to do in a session with a client.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The criteria for evaluating my performance in supervision were not clear.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I got mixed signals from my supervisor and I was unsure of which signals to attend to.	1	2	3	4	5
15. When using a new technique, I was unclear about the specific steps involved. As a result, I wasn't sure how my supervisor would evaluate my work.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I disagreed with my supervisor about how to introduce a specific issue to a client, but I also wanted to do what the supervisor recommended.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Part of me wanted to rely on my own instincts with clients, but I always knew that my supervisor would have the last word.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The feedback I got from my supervisor did not help me to know what was expected of me in my day to day work with clients.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I was not comfortable using a technique recommended by my supervisor; however, I felt that I should do what my supervisor recommended.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Everything was new and I wasn't sure what would be expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I was not sure if I should discuss my professional weaknesses in supervision because I was not sure how I would be evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I disagreed with my supervisor about implementing a specific technique, but I also wanted to do what the supervisor thought best.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My supervisor gave me no feedback and I felt lost.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My supervisor told me what to do with a client, but didn't give me very specific ideas about how to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My supervisor wanted me to pursue an assessment technique that I considered inappropriate for a particular client.	1	2	3	4	5
26. There were no clear guidelines for my behaviour in Supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
27. The supervisor gave no constructive or negative feedback and as a result, I did not know how to address my weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I didn't know how I was doing as a therapist and, as a result, I didn't know how my supervisor would evaluate me.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I was unsure of what to expect from my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

Thank You for Completing the Questionnaire

Olk and Friedlander (1992)

APPENDIX J
Recruitment of Participants Correspondence

Dear Professor____(name)_____

Our research supervisors, Dr Malcolm Cross and Dr Jacqui Farrants, suggested that we contact you.

We are looking to recruit students for our respective DPsych studies (Reflection in Counselling Psychology Supervision and Attitudes to Eating and Personality &) and we would very much like to distribute some of our very short questionnaires to ____ (name of university)_____ students.

We wonder whether it is possible to speak to students about our studies at the end of a lecture or during a hosted lunch (we have hosted a number of lunches already and have been well attended).

Alternatively, we could send some questionnaire packs to you and perhaps tutors could hand them out to interested students.

Please advise if this is possible.

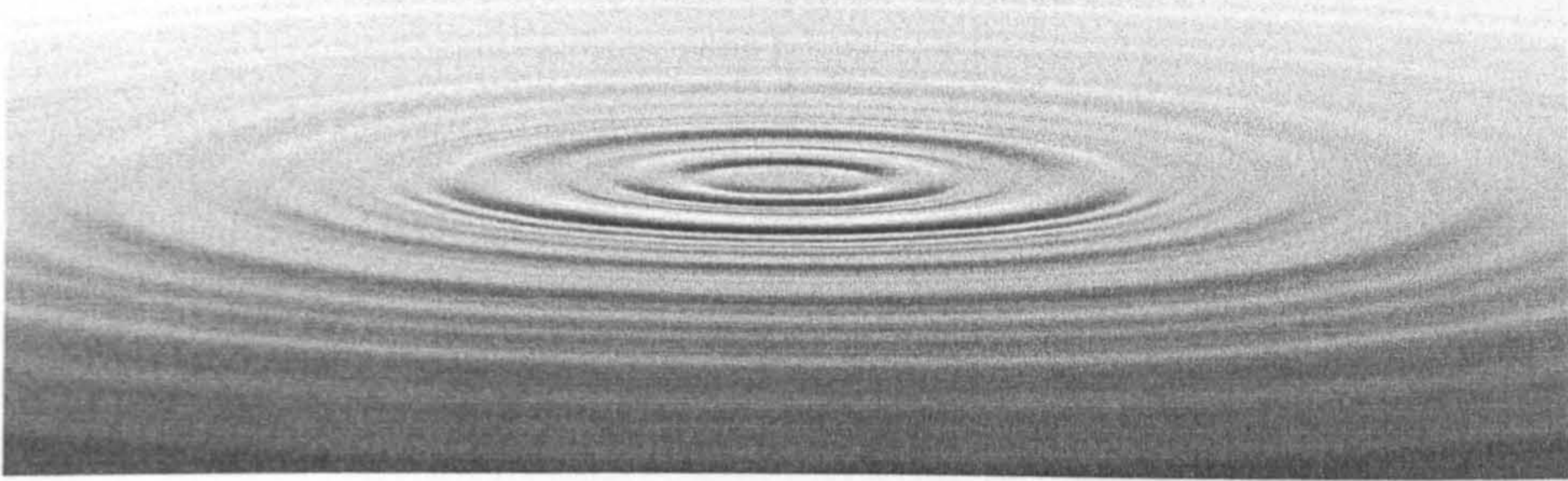
Many thanks for your help.

Kind regards,

Jo Wood
Chartered Counselling Psychologist

&

Konstantina Kolonia
Chartered Counselling Psychologist



Participants Needed for Research!

We are two DPsych students from City University, who are currently trying to recruit undergraduate and/or postgraduate students to participate in our studies.

Both studies are quantitative and require participants to complete a few short questionnaires and a demographics sheet, which take around 30 minutes in total to complete.

In taking part you will be contributing to studies that focus on reflection in supervision and attitudes to eating and which will be useful to you in terms of your own professional and personal development.

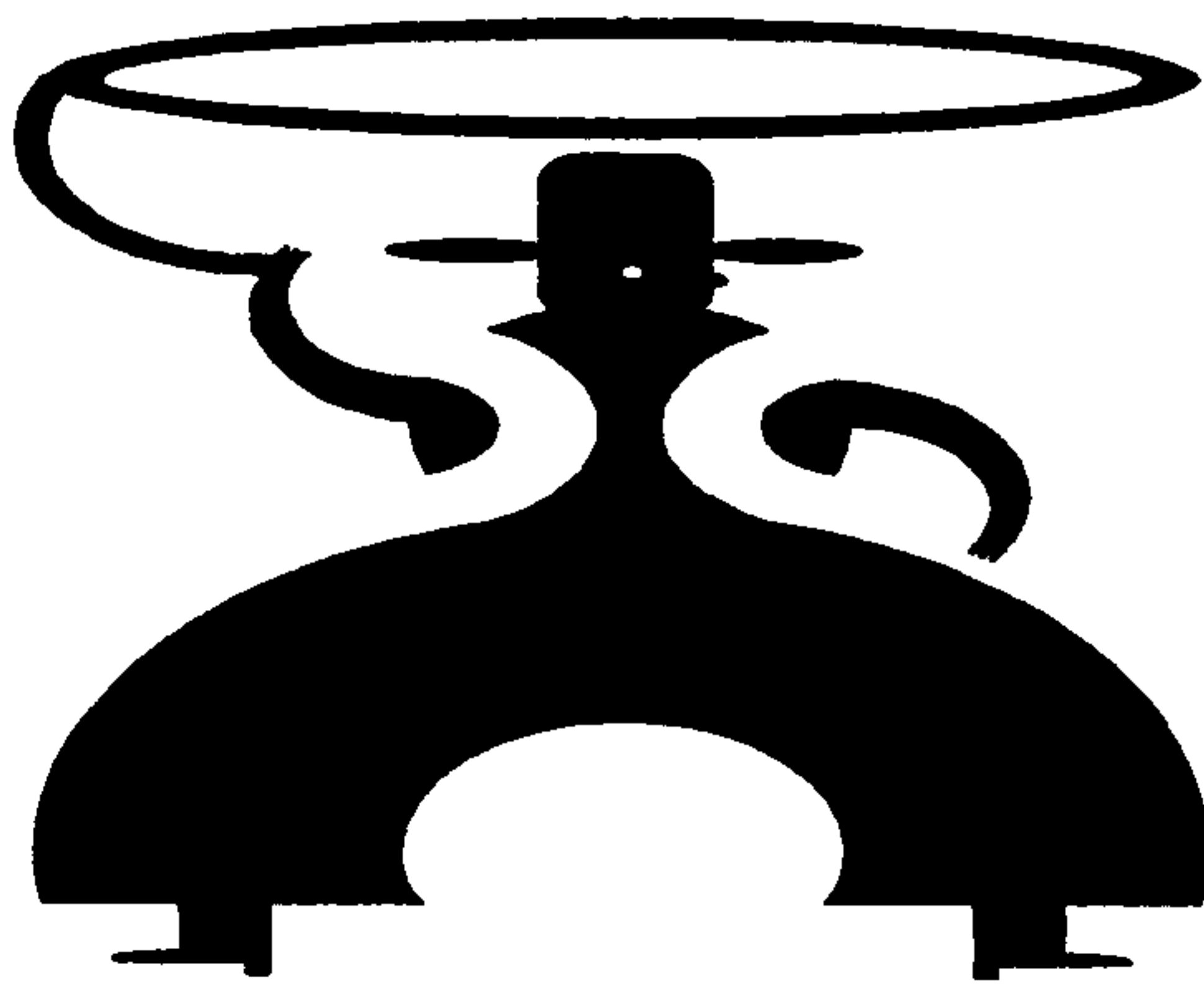
We will be hosting a lunch at XXXX in room 214 on Thursday, 24th November and Friday, 25th October between 12 and 1 and after 4.00 p.m. on Thursday, 24th November. You can either complete the questionnaires during these times or take them home to complete in your own time.

We look forward to meeting you!

Jo Wood

&

Konstantina Kolonia



Wanted!!
Trainee Counselling Psychologists for
DPsych Research

I am a DPsych student from City University, who is currently trying to recruit counselling psychology trainees to participate in my study.

Participants are required to complete a few short questionnaires and a demographics sheet, which take around 15 minutes in total to complete.

In taking part you will be contributing to a study that focuses on reflection in supervision and which will be useful to you in terms of your own professional and personal development.

I will be visiting xxxx on the morning of Thursday, 30th March (and can be found in the Psychology Department). If you agree to take part you are free to either complete the questionnaires during the morning or to take them home to complete in your own time (a stamped addressed envelope will be provided).

I look forward to seeing you!

Jo Wood

APPENDIX K
Case Study Graded Hierarchy

GRADED HIERARCHY FOR RITA

Anxiety Rating Scale (0-100)

Go out to local shop by 9.00 a.m. 40

Go to local shop after 9.00 a.m. 50

Go to shop and another destination after 9.00 a.m. e.g. post office 60

Go into the town centre and browse or go to library in the morning 70

Go into the town centre and browse or go to the library in the afternoon 80

Sit down in a café and have a coffee 90

Go to another town by public transport and shop in a busy department store 100

APPENDIX L
Critical Literature Review Summary

Review of the Journal Literature

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Wong et al, 1995	Qualitative -- Content Analysis	Analysis of trainee nurse journals applying Boud et al and Mezirow models of reflection. Findings indicate that reflective journals can be used as evidence for presence and absence of reflection. N=45	Small sample Difficulties with applying Boud et al model
Kember et al, 1999	Qualitative -- Content Analysis	Analysis of trainee nurse journals applying full Mezirow model of reflection. Found that journals can be used to assess and evaluate courses in programmes aimed to develop reflective thinking. N = ?	Low inter-rater reliability Number of Participants unclear
Carlson and Parry, 2003	Qualitative - Inductive Analysis	Analysis of student journals identified 6 categories of reflection. Findings indicate that individuals have both different preferences for reflection and developmental readiness. N = 11	Small sample Methodology lacks clarity

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Dart et al, 1998	Qualitative – Interpretative/ Descriptive	Longitudinal study over 1 year, analysing journals of trainee teachers based on examples of declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. research indicates that meta-cognition developed in the trainees over the period of the course. N = 27	Methodology lacks clarity From perspective of trainee Small sample
Thorpe, 2004	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Reviewed journals of under-grad nursing using Scanlon and Chernomas model and shortened Mezirow model of reflection. findings indicated that different levels of reflection could be identified in the journal entries. N = 52	Aims of research and elements of method are unclear e.g. sampling, journal requirements and reliability of coding.
Tang, 2002	Qualitative – Case Study/ Interviewing	Study considered the perceptions of post-grad education students regarding their views of portfolio assessment and keeping a reflective diary and analysed diary entries. Research implications that reflective diaries can be used to facilitate and assess reflection. N = 18.	Methodology unclear in terms of analysis of data, reliability of coding and sampling. Conclusions partly based on trainee perspective.

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Connor-Greene, 2000	Quantitative – ANOVA Design	The researcher hypothesised that journal writing as part of a psychology course, would result in increased student learning and higher end of term test scores. Students assigned to one of two groups based on being required to produce 15 or 5 journal entries and compared to a control group. The results of the study indicated that students who took part in the study did better in the test than those who did not, regardless of the number of entries made (5 or 15). N = ?	Methodological difficulties in sampling of participants, Type 1 error – other variables may account for the findings.
Surbeck et al, 1991	Qualitative – Naturalistic	Review of reflective diary entries produced by student teachers. Highlighted the themes of reaction, elaboration and contemplation. Researchers argue that journals assist students to become better thinkers who think deeply about their experiences and theory. N = 10.	Method and reliability unclear From student perspective Conclusions incongruent with aims of study
Woodfield and Lazarus, 1998	Qualitative – Interpretative (Focus Groups)	Reviewed the learning diaries of qualified teachers on a short language learning course for entries relating to barriers and supports of learning. The results indicate that the diaries helped teachers link theory and practice and to reflect more deeply on the learning process. N = 20.	Purpose of Study lacks clarity From diarist perspective Methodology weak

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Fonteyn and Cahill, 1998	Qualitative -	The aim of the study was to examine the effectiveness of the use of the reflective log to improve thinking strategies and meta-cognition in a sample of trainee nurses. The results of the study suggest that clinical logs assisted the trainee nurses to become more active learners, to manage their own thinking and to improve their metacognition. Trainees reported their preference for the reflective log over the care plan and stated that the log improved metacognition. N = 9.	Methodological Weaknesses - procedure and data analysis not clearly defined. Results based on student perspective.
Uline et al, 2000	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Reviewed the reports of pre-service teachers regarding their most significant learning in reflective journal entries. The most significant learnings were found to relate to behaviour management, teacher flexibility and time management concerns. N = 86.	Methodological Weaknesses - procedural and data analysis not clearly defined. Results based on student perspective.
Jasper, 1999	Qualitative – Grounded Theory	The aim of the study was to consider the perceptions of qualified nurses regarding the value of written reflection from producing a reflective diary over a 12 month period. Perceptions ascertained from focus interviews. Preliminary categories suggest that reflective Writing needs to be taught and provides a Strategy to develop analytical and critical abilities as well as facilitating personal and professional growth. N = 12.	Method – journals were compulsory and assessed.

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Winsor et al, 1999	Action Research/Grounded Theory	Longitudinal study over 3 years that aimed to consider whether professional portfolios enabled understanding and the assessment of professional practice. Indicated that the portfolio process facilitates and portrays teacher development. N = 15.	Small sample
Hettich, 1990	Quantitative – questionnaire	The study considered the impact of journal writing on psychology students and teachers. Results suggested that students believed that journal writing stimulated critical thinking, provided feedback about their learning and gave an opportunity to express themselves. N = 540.	Methodology lacks clarity - sampling strategy? Based on student perspectives
Woodward, 1998	Qualitative – Content Analysis And Interviews	A pilot study focusing on the learning journals of third-year students on a literature course. Findings implied that students thought harder and in a more original way and made more connections than usual with the content of the course N = .	Methodology lacks clarity - procedure and data analysis From student perspective

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Wright, 2005	Qualitative – IPA	The study examined masters students' perceptions of keeping a reflective journal. A number of themes were highlighted including that journals provide a connection between theory and the self, self-awareness, a record of change and a need for support and feedback. N = 6.	Small sample Dual role of researcher/tutor
Bain et al, 1999	Mixed - Content Analysis/ Questionnaires/ Interviews	Investigated the use of reflective journals to facilitate student learning during an education practicum. Students were randomly assigned to four intervention conditions experiential or cognitive and dialogic or self-analysis. No differences were found between the four conditions in terms of the quality of reflection. Suggests that significant benefits can be achieved through journal writing without the need for a supportive supervisor. N = 35.	Method – reliability of coding Small sample Effectiveness partly based on student perceptions.
Watson et al, 1990	Qualitative - ?	This study considered the use of feedback on the learning journals of post-grad teachers. Participants were given 3 types of feedback. From interviews the majority preferred in-text comments that were supportive and/or are positive. N = 9.	Small sample Method – procedure, analysis unclear

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Bain et al, 2002	Qualitative – Content Analysis	The research explored the impacts of variations in the focus and level of feedback in the journal writing of student teachers. The relative effectiveness of four different types of feedback were considered. Feedback focused on the levels of reflection (as opposed to that focused on teaching issues) combined with issues and comments to challenge the student and to encourage alternative perspectives offered the most effective strategy for enhancing the effectiveness of journal writing as a learning tool. N = 35.	Small sample
Tsang, 2003	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Longitudinal study over 12 months considering how critical reflectivity developed over time in six pre-service teachers. Analysis of diaries and interviews indicated that the students became more reflective over the 12 month period. N = 6.	Small sample Method - reliability of coding
Rees et al, 2005	Mixed -	The study explored the reliability, validity and acceptability of assessment criteria for reflective portfolios. Results of the study suggest that there were significant findings between the portfolio analyses and personal and professional development judgements etc. N = 121	Method – low response rates in focus groups, lack of data saturation

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
McCrindle & Christensen, 2002	Mixed – MANOVA/ Interviews	Students in a first year biology courses were randomly assigned to a learning journal or scientific report group. Students who produced a journal providing a written record of their learning processes were found to produce more metacognitive strategies and more sophisticated conceptions of learning and knowledge etc. The experimental group also did better in the final year exam. N = 40.	Method – procedure, reliability of analysis, sampling strategy
Landeen et al, 1992	Quantitative – correlational	A study of third-year nursing students on a psychiatric rotation. Three conditions were used, including a group of students on a psychiatric rotation keeping a journal and two control groups, one on the same rotation and not producing a journal and another on a different medical/surgical rotation and not required to produce a written journal. Findings indicated that journals helped students to expose and change attitudes, but not to change their interpersonal style. N = 25.	Small sample Method – sample strategy Need for pre and post test use of questionnaires
Hoover, 1994	Qualitative – case study/ Grounded Theory?	The study primarily analysed the weekly diary entries and the analysis of video-tapes and lessons sessions of pre-service teachers, in order to ascertain the efficacy of using such exercises in terms of promoting reflection. The findings suggest that the more structured analysis of the video-tapes provided the most potential to encourage reflection and to make explicit cognitive processes, whereas unstructured diaries encouraged the recording of an emotional journey. N = 2.	Methodology - unclear procedure and analysis Small sample

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Hatton and Smith, 1995	Qualitative – Content Analysis	In this cross-sectional study, under-graduate education students were asked to provide a number of written exercises based on their classroom practicum experience. These exercises were then analysed using four levels of reflection based on the theory of Van Manen. The results of the study suggest that all students reflected by the end of their course and stressed the importance of facilitation on the reflective process. N = 60.	Method – reliability of analysis Small sample
Duke & Appleton, 2000	Quantitative	The cross-sectional study required palliative care nurses to submit a number of pieces of reflective writing. 160 scripts were analysed based on a number of reflective theories. The study found that students were able to discuss their practice, although they found the analysis of their practice harder. Nevertheless, reflection improved over the period of the course. N = 62.	Method – sampling strategy, procedure and analysis of data lacks clarity Small sample Type 1 error
Kuiper, 2004	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Compared the reflective journals of experienced and inexperienced nurses participated in a nine-week perioperative internship. Little difference found between the two groups. N = 26.	Method – procedure and analysis of data unclear.

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Palmer, 2004	Quantitative – questionnaires	Review of engineering students' perceptions of an on-line reflective journal. The majority of students understood the purpose of the journals and found that reading the entries of other students encouraged their own reflection. Evidence was found of critical reflection. N = 43.	Method – sample, procedure Small sample
Sumsion & Fleet, 1996	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Study attempted to analyse the journal entries of student teachers using a 3-point system similar to those used by Surbeck et al (1991). Findings suggested that the majority of students demonstrated a reflective approach and that the instrument was useful in identifying evidence of reflection. A positive relationship was found between grades and reflection ratings. A number of major limitations are discussed N = 124.	Low inter-rater reliability (.50) Method – lack of coherent coding frame
Ballantyne & Packer, 1995	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Journal entries of doctor of education students were analysed to explore the nature and content of reflection and the effectiveness of journal writing in facilitating learning. Findings from study confirmed that journal writing encourages students to engage cognitively and reflectivity with course concepts to make connections between academic learning and personal/professional experience. N = 13.	Small sample Method – procedure and reliability of data analysis is vague

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Placek et al, 1995	Qualitative – Content Analysis?	In this study, essays which were based on entries from pre- service physical education students’ reflective diaries were analysed using the Sparks-Langer et al (1999) framework. The findings indicated that overall levels of students’ levels of reflectivity were moderately low, the levels did not improve over the course of the semester and there was little variation in the range of scores. N = 19.	Small sample Method – aim, design, procedure unclear
Richardson & Maltby, 1995	Qualitative - ?	Nursing students’ diaries using Powell’s tool for measuring reflection and discussions from a focus groups were analysed by the researchers. The findings suggest that journals are useful in the promotion of reflective practice and that the students tended to reflect at the lower levels of reflection. In terms of the student perceptions of the exercise, diary writing was generally viewed positively, with tutor comments seen as beneficial and constructive. Some concerns were highlighted in terms of being totally open in writing in the diary, when the diary was being assessed. N = 30.	Method – procedure and reliability of analysis unclear
Jensen & Joy, 2002	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Longitudinal study in which student nurses wrote journals at three points during a health assessment course. Journal entries were reviewed to identify and analyse the levels of reflection using the model of Mezirow. Students tended to reflect at the lower levels and the number of higher level journal entries decreased over time. N = 20.	Low inter-rater reliability Sample – small and only consisting of first year students.

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Garmon, 1998	Qualitative – Case Study	The study analysed the reflective journal entries of one student attending a multi-cultural teacher education course. Results of the study suggest that the use of a reflective dialogue journal promotes learning in pre-service teachers. This is also encouraged by the student-tutor relationship. N = 1.	Small study Method – analysis unclear? Results – limited generalizability
Riley-Doucet & Wilson, 1997	Qualitative -	Student nurses were asked to complete a reflective journal of their clinical experiences throughout an academic semester. The students were given a three step model of experiential learning in order to structure their journals. The study aimed to use reflective writing to Facilitate the acquisition and application of analytic critical thinking skills through a process of self-reflection. Feedback concerning the use of the three-step process was elicited from the educator and the participants. In general, the nursing students felt that this strategy is effective in facilitating self-directed learning. It was also indicated that feeling safe and confidentiality were strong factors in influencing their ability to reflect. N = 10.	Small study Based on student perceptions Method – procedure and analysis lack clarity
Ritchie, 2003	Qualitative – Content Analysis	The study explored how journal writing fosters an ongoing dialogue between senior nursing students and faculty during an acute care pediatric clinical placement. Unstructured data was collected through journal entries and during a focus group interview. Results suggest that dialogue journals can be a beneficial teaching-learning strategy, encouraging student development and student-tutor relationships. N = 9	Sample size Issue of social desirability

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Williams et al, 2002	Qualitative – Content Analysis?	Physiotherapy students were asked to keep structured journals during a clinical placement with the purpose of describing students' perceptions of learning and to promote reflective thinking. The entries were analysed for themes and levels of reflection based on the criteria of Williams, Sundelin, Foster-Seargeant and Norman (2000). Findings indicate that journal writing documented student learning in a clinical placement and students achieved high levels of reflective thinking. N = 56.	Method - inter-rater reliability? Based on student perceptions Assumptions re the promotion of learning Use of Williams et al model
Williams & Wessell, 2004	Qualitative – Content Analysis?	Physiotherapy students were required to provide weekly journal entries whilst studying on an academic course module, in order to gain feedback regarding student learning. Structured diary entries were analysed for themes and levels of reflection based on Williams et al (2000) categories. Results suggest that the students had shifts in their learning and had a better understanding of practice. N = 48.	Method – inter-rater reliability? Sampling strategy Based on student perceptions Fit between aims and reported results of study
Sorrell et al, 1997	Mixed - questionnaires	Student nurses were required to produce a portfolio consisting of four essays viewed by themselves as examples of critical thinking and a reflective essay reflecting on why the four examples demonstrated critical thinking. The aim of the study was to consider how critical thinking skills are reflected as outcomes in writing portfolios. Analysed by English professors using questionnaires and a content analysis of the portfolios the findings indicate that portfolios can be effective in assessing and promoting critical thinking. N = 9.	Small sample Difficulties with use of questionnaire Method – data analysis and reliability of coding

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Bennett-Levy et al, 2003	Qualitative – ToP Workshop Method	Two groups of Cognitive therapists were asked to e-mail their reflections on their experience of self-practice/self-reflection (SP/SR) through either co-therapy sessions or by practising CT techniques on their own. Data analysis of the e-mail entries identified 6 principal categories. The findings suggest that the use of SP/SR encourages the process of therapist expertise. N = 14.	Small study From participant perspective More data collected from co-therapy group
MacLellan, 1999	Qualitative – Content Analysis	A group of PGCE students at the end of their training were asked to produce a reflective commentary on a topic of professional importance in order to distinguish developmental differences in the students' reflective writing. These commentaries were analysed using the five categories of Hatton and Smith (1995). The study successfully applied the categories and found that the majority of the reflections were at the descriptive level. N = 25.	Method – procedure, analysis and reliability Small sample
Alterio, 2004	Qualitative - ?	A group of practitioners were asked to contribute to a collaborative journal in order to consider how collaborative journals enhance professional practice. On analysing the journal entries four main themes were identified and it was found that journals were used for five specific purposes including sharing experiences. The findings conclude that the use of collaborative journals can encourage professional development. N = 9.	Method – procedure, analysis and reliability Small sample

Researchers	Methodology	Study	Limitations
Pultorak, 1993	Qualitative – Content Analysis	Novice teachers were asked to reflect in bi-daily, journals, bi-weekly journals, visitation journals and reflective interviews. These were then analysed utilising Van Manen’s levels of reflectivity framework. The researcher found that all four methods solicited reflections and that it was the reflective interviews that appeared to encourage greater and more critical levels of reflection. N = 31.	Method – lack of procedure, unclear analysis and inter-rater reliability Small sample
Sedlak, 1992	Qualitative - Descriptive	Compared the clinical logs of traditional and non-traditional nursing students on a nursing programme to consider their learning needs. Over a 9 week period students were asked to write weekly reactions to their clinical experience and to discuss these with the instructor. On analysing these, a number of themes were identified including acknowledging the learning from negative experiences. Differences were identified in the learning needs of the two groups and the log was viewed as promoting self-reflection. N = 20.	Small sample No independent ratings