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**An investigation of the value of reflective
practice for the professional development of
police officers**

Selina Colette Copley

**A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Professional Doctor of Philosophy
(Applied Criminology)**

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Abstract

This qualitative case study research explored the value of guided reflection for the professional development of police officers. Reflection is widely regarded as a central element of professional practice within many of the welfare professions (Wilson, 2013; Jacobs, 2016). Evidence of reflective practice has been a mandatory requirement of the Nursing Midwifery Council since 2016 (NMC, 2018). The nursing literature identifies the value of reflective practice for professional development and high-quality responsible practice (Welp, Johnson, Nguyen & Perry, 2018). There is further evidence of the benefits of clinical supervision for the promotion of reflective practice (Esterhuizen & Freshwater, 2008). Recent research identifies the role of clinical supervision for improved self-awareness and reducing work-based stress and burnout (White, 2016; Koivu, Saarinen & Hyrkas, 2012).

There has been a more recent movement toward the professionalization of the police service. The most significant manifestations of this have been the introduction of the College of Policing (CoP) as a professional body, and the requirement for degree level entry from 2020. Whilst the CoP (2015) advocate the use of reflective practice, there are few studies which examine its value for professional practice within a policing context.

In this qualitative research 'reflective timeout' as an equivalent process to clinical supervision was undertaken by five serving police officers over a six-month period. The aims of the research were to consider the feasibility of facilitating reflective practice through guided reflection and explore its value for professional development. Semi-structured interviews were undertaken by the participants and three of their line managers following the period of supervision.

Three key themes were identified from the data. Firstly, participants demonstrated changes to their personal and professional identities associated with the development of reflective practices, this included the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence as sub-themes. The second theme identified the value of reflective practice. Three sub-themes were identified which included (1) associated changes to professional identity in which participants came to adopt a reflective approach to professional practice and recognize its value for professional development (2) a recognition of the overall value of reflective practice for service-wide professional development and effective practice (3) structures which already exist within policing for the facilitation of reflection. The final theme identified the value of reflective practice and the reflective timeout sessions for the emotional wellbeing of policing staff in a highly demanding and often traumatic role.

This research adds to the body of policing and reflective practice knowledge. Reflective timeout as an equivalent process to clinical supervision was a new idea which developed throughout the undertaking of this research and its implementation was unique. It recognized transitions in personal and professional identity associated ongoing reflective practice and its value for service delivery. This research may contribute to policy guidelines and practice by advocating a more widespread and formal adoption of reflective practice as the police service makes the transition to a culture of professionalism. There is potential for wider scale studies which would explore this, and its overall benefits for professional police practice, further.

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Glossary of abbreviations

CQC:	Care Quality Commission
CoP:	College of Policing
DoH:	Department of Health
HMIC:	Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabularies
HO:	Home Office
IPC:	Independent Police Commission
IPLDP:	Initial Probationer Learning and Development Programme
NMC:	Nursing & Midwifery Council
NOS:	National Occupational Standards
UKCC:	United Kingdom Central Council

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter I discuss my personal and professional background which led to my interest in the study. I describe my experience of reflective practice both as a nurse and a police educator to provide context. I identify the need for the research and present the research aims and the study. I defend the need for this research and the context in which my interest in this topic developed and present the aims of the study.

This thesis takes the form of a case study which explored the potential for police officers to become reflective practitioners using the principles of clinical supervision, as it is understood within nursing. Throughout the thesis I have used the term 'reflective timeout' for the implementation of the equivalent process within a policing context in order to avoid any confusion about setting. The purpose of the research was to contribute to the body of knowledge around the value of reflective practice. In this study I considered whether police officers may adopt and benefit from systems of reflective practice akin to those adopted within health, social work and education in recent decades (Kirkood, Jennings, Laurier, Cree & Whyte, 2016; Rosin, 2015; Wilson, 2013; Jasper, 2013; Ghaye, 2011; Loughran, 2006).

I adopt three key positions throughout the thesis, which are qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive (Finley 2003). My reflexive approach to this chapter is intended to make transparent my subjective position in the construction of knowledge (Finley 2002). I discuss my values, beliefs and experience of reflective practice, as the lens which informed my approach to the research, and the methodological decisions I have made. The following section presents the background to the study.

1.2 Background to the study

Gray (2014) refers to the need for the researcher to locate themselves within the research process through personal reflexivity. It is acknowledged that the researcher belongs to the reality in which the research takes place, and as a result can never fully be an impartial observer of a social context. Creswell (2013) suggests that reflexivity refers to the recognition of the researcher's position within the research and an acknowledgment of "biases, values and experiences" which are brought with the researcher to the study (Creswell, 2013, p. 216). There is a general acceptance that the researcher is a pivotal figure in the active construction, selection and interpretation of data (Finley, 2003). Reflexivity is thus arguably a defining feature of qualitative research, in which meanings are negotiated within a particular social context. There is no longer a compulsion to abolish the presence of the researcher from the research but rather locate them firmly within it (Finley 2003). Throughout the thesis I employ a qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive stance, underpinned by an understanding of all forms of knowing as subjective and socially constructed. This is expanded upon fully in chapter three and is based upon a postmodern critical lens throughout this thesis. In this chapter I consider my experiences of reflective practice as both a nurse

and later a police educator and the values, beliefs and background that I bring to this enquiry. In doing so I make clear the subjective lens through which I approached the construction of knowledge throughout this study and thus made myself present as the researcher within the research.

My personal and professional experience provided a lens through which I planned and undertook this research and I reflect upon these. The extent of my career as a nurse, prison manager and later senior lecturer in criminology, came as a surprise to most of my family. I finished school in 1986, the eldest daughter in a working-class family with only my father working as a poorly paid factory worker. Despite leaving further education with a college diploma in social care and seven 'O' levels, I had been conditioned by my parents and the educational system to expect little from my career. As a working-class woman, traditional gender politics had changed very little since my parents' generation, and in keeping with the expectations placed upon me, I took my first job as a care assistant in the nursing homes of Scarborough, destined for a life of motherhood and care work. I was quickly taken under the wing of an experienced Enrolled Nurse with traditional values, but who regarded me as hard worker, a good lifter and someone that was able to take orders. On that basis she considered me to have some of the attributes required for nursing and therefore saw some potential for me to train as a qualified nurse. I was subsequently persuaded to apply for the training and borrowed five pounds for the application pack.

I commenced training as a nurse in 1990 during a period of rapid modernization within the National Health Service (NHS). This is widely documented within the literature and is critically discussed in chapter two. I was recruited to the penultimate cohort that undertook the existing Registered General Nurse (RGN) training, before it was replaced with Project 2000 diploma level education. With Project 2000 only months away, the focus had already shifted to the language of professionalism, accountability and autonomy. Learning through tradition and task orientated working were being replaced with systems of experiential learning, evidence-based practice, critical thinking and reflective lifelong learning (Ousey, 2011).

By the time I had qualified as a nurse, my mother had returned to education after twenty-five years in the home and completed an undergraduate degree and a Masters degree in social work. As I embarked upon my own career, I had witnessed from her the transition from working-class mother to professional social worker that had been gifted to her through a 'second chance' and lifelong learning. I had also become aware of the life chances that may be afforded to me through learning, and the role that reflective activity would play for both of us in continuous lifelong learning, self-development and professional reinvention.

After a break in my nursing career to complete a degree in psychology, I joined the prison service as a nurse in 1999 and was promoted through the managerial ranks. Prison health was by this time undergoing the transition to NHS equivalent services brought about by the recommendations from Patient or Prisoner (Ramsbothom, 1996) and my management roles involved assisting in the modernization of healthcare departments as part of the equivalence agenda (DoH, 1999). The modernization of staff practices through training and education

quickly became a central feature of this. It also included the implementation of systems of reflective practice delivered via clinical supervision for nursing staff, and the value of reflective practice for personal development, and improvements to develop service delivery were promoted during the eight years that followed.

Reflective practice has therefore been a consistent feature of my life, both professionally and personally. I have always placed a heavy emphasis upon the value of learning, education and professional development through reflective practice. Following registration as a nurse I have participated in supervised reflective activity through clinical supervision within the capacity of both supervisor and supervisee.

1.2.1 Police training and education

In 2006 I made the transition from nursing to education and was employed as a senior lecturer at a university. Although my professional background was nursing, my main responsibility was to teach the principles of reflection to newly recruited probation police officers. This was as the module leader for one of the eight compulsory modules delivered as the educational element of the foundation degree in police studies which constituted the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP), which was delivered 2006-2011.

The Learning Process and Professional Development module required student police officers to demonstrate their competency in reflective thinking and writing skills in line with the new world of professional policing (Neyroud, 2011; Home Office, 2010). The foundation degree in police studies was an ambitious project with a four-week block of teaching at the

beginning of year one and a two-week block in year two. A new or returning second year cohort was received every six weeks on a cyclical basis. This involved classroom input to groups of often very sceptical trainees, forty at a time. Policing students frequently attended the university with reservations about the university input. This proved to be challenging, but nonetheless understandable for several reasons. Having commenced the police training at a regional training centre and being “sworn” into the police “family”, new recruits attended the university to receive the underpinning knowledge and educational input. Recruits were often keen to get on with “real” policing work and at such an early stage in the process, were unable to see the merits of learning abstract theory in what was quite evidently, a practical and skills-based job.

New police recruits also faced an anomaly which required them to complete a qualification at foundation degree level but without any of the minimum entry conditions at General Certificate in Secondary Education (GCSE) or A level standard, that would normally apply to any other university student. Because of this, it was entirely possible (and often the case) for the student to be faced with the successful completion of a university standard qualification with little previous educational attainment, when their only real ambition was to fight crime. For a lecturer, as I experienced it, the inevitable range of backgrounds and educational abilities meant that any given classroom experience might have included the combination of an academically able student, educated to Masters (or very occasionally PhD) level, sitting next to a very daunted learner who had not been in a classroom environment for many years. Many expressed anxieties about returning to education having been put off by their experiences in the past. The combination of these extremes and anything in between meant that pitching at a standard suitable for such a diverse range of learners was as big a challenge as engaging students in general, and ensuring at least some level of buy-in.

A further complication in terms of the challenges posed by my module, was the nature of the input. Whilst policing students may have, even if somewhat begrudgingly, acknowledged the value of learning sociological facts, where it may directly apply to the communities they would go on to police, reflective practice was often seen as a nebulous entity, which was difficult to conceptualize and even harder to describe. Difficulties in defining reflective practice are well documented, including in the literature, as referred to in chapter two (Beauchamp, 2015; Miraglia and Asselin, 2015). Consequently there was a general tendency amongst police students, for reflection to be coterminous with, at best “soft skills” and at worst “the fluffy stuff”.

Whilst not without its challenges, the foundation degree programme was delivered for five years and became increasingly successful during that period. The relationship between the university and the regional police training school developed an incremental mutual respect, and latterly a reasonably strong bond. As the reputation of the course grew, and new recruits became increasingly aware in advance of the fate that awaited them, many of the historical tensions between the university as the educator and the police training school as the trainer subsided and general anxieties about the educational process were reduced. For some students the completion of a higher-level qualification became a very proud achievement that was offered, at no cost to the student, and which under normal circumstances they would never have expected to achieve. This was widening participation, it was often argued at the time, in perhaps its rawest form.

As the credibility of the programme increased, so did the success of the modules therein (my own included). As I reflect upon it now, this may to some degree have been related to

the development of my own teaching skills, and an increasing ability to win over students when persuading them of the benefits of reflection for their own emotional wellbeing and career progression. What emerged from the module, particularly in later years was a student on almost all occasions that, with or without any previous experience, could be taught the principles and practical skills for reflection relatively easily.

In 2011, and arguably at the height of its success, the relationship between the university and local police training school came to an end and the foundation degree ceased to run. This was not due to any form of acrimony or breakdown in the relationship between either party but a consequence of the financial crisis and associated austerity measures that led to funding cuts in public services (Home Office 2010). As a result, many police probationer programmes reverted back to in-house training on the few occasions that they continued to recruit.

1.2.2 Reflection and nursing practice

Notions of reflection and reflective practice are frequently featured and embedded within nursing literature (Beachamp, 2015). Miaglia and Asselin (2015, p. 28) refer to the multiple meanings of the term reflection within the literature, suggesting that it is fundamentally the “examination of personal thoughts and actions”. Reflective practice is the ability to engage with reflection in order to affect continuous learning and is therefore a defining feature of professional practice. Similarly, Bassot (2015) contends that reflective practice can be understood as an ongoing process of examining or reflecting upon practice in order to learn from experience. Thus, there appears to be a broad consensus which understands the concept as the process of learning from experience in order to gain new insights (Boyd & Fales, 1983).

Over the past thirty years, reflective practice has been adopted as a central feature of good quality practice in many of the helping professions, including nursing (Thompson & Thompson, 2018). Reflective activity has gained international recognition to prepare student nurses for the complexities and uncertainties associated with any contemporary professional environment (Wilson, 2013). Within nursing there is a long-standing acknowledgement of reflective practice as an essential element of effective nursing practice (Bass, Fenwick & Sidebotham 2017; Jacobs, 2016; Finley, 2008). Reflective practice is now embedded within the profession as a formal requirement for nurses, as stipulated within The Code (NMC, 2018), which contains the professional standards of practice and behaviours which nurses and midwives must uphold.

Stonehouse (2013) suggests that central to the purpose of reflective practice is the delivery of high-quality care and decision making. Stonehouse (2013) reinforces this view and identifies reflection as key to enable clinicians to take responsibility for patient care and safety. Following failings of care delivery identified in The Mid Staffordshire NHS Foundation Trust (Francis, 2013), a new revalidation system by the nursing regulatory body (Nursing and Midwifery Council [NMC]) was introduced. This encouraged registered nurses to take responsibility for fitness to practice through continued professional development (CPD), thus fostering a culture of safety, reflection and improvement, the overall aim of which is public protection (Kolyva, 2015). As part of the revalidation process, all registered nurses are now required to complete a series of five written reflections which they are required to discuss with another registered practitioner (NMC, 2018). This NMC requirement emphasizes the

significance and value of reflection and reflective practice within the nursing profession to promote quality of care and patient safety.

1.3 Reflection and police practice

My interest in reflective practice and the experience of teaching it to policing students formed the basis for my interest in this research project. Whilst reflection formed a key component of the Initial Probationer Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) between 2006-2011 (Copley, 2011), it has not been formally adopted as an element of modern police practice. The College of Policing (CoP) was formally introduced in 2013 as the police's new professional body. Its primary function is the delivery of high-quality practice based upon research evidence and to improve standards of education and training. The policing literature increasingly uses the language of professionalism within policing (Neyroud, 2011; Home Office, 2010; CoP, 2015). At the time of writing, plans are underway for the educational standard for entry into the police to be raised to degree standard by 2020 (Home Office, 2010; CoP, 2015). Such developments within policing suggest a similar process of professionalization that I have witnessed throughout my career in nursing. The CoP (2015) refer to the central importance of Continued Professional Development (CPD) and provide

published guidance for staff on the benefits of reflection and reflective practice. As I have discussed, there is a long-standing acknowledgement of the importance of reflective practice for effective practice within nursing, (Bass et al., 2016; Jacobs, 2016; Finley, 2008), and the helping professions (Thompson & Thompson, 2018). Evidently there is a growing under-

standing of its association with professionalism within policing at policy level. There is however almost a complete absence of any discourses within the academic literature around the potential for it to be more formally adopted as a key feature of professional practice, similarly to other public sector professions. In chapter two I refer to Christopher (2015) who asserts that in the current climate of globalism and rapid change, there is an opportunity for policing to become a critically reflective practice. It is the combination of these issues that presents the opportunity for this research.

It was the potential for more formal systems of reflection to be adopted as a feature of professional policing practice that this research intended to explore. The use of clinical supervision is well established within nursing in order to facilitate reflective learning and maintain high standards of practice (Lyth, 2000). One of the key inspirations for my approach to this research was the body of nursing literature, including that by Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008), which associates guided reflection via clinical supervision with the facilitation of reflective practice. Wingrave (2011) explores how policing students in the Metropolitan Police conceptualized reflection as an aid to learning. His research identified reflective learning to be a key process for the development of policing skills during foundation training. To date, there have been no further studies that explore the use of similar systems of structured reflective activity to those within nursing, within a policing context. This lack of research provided a unique opportunity to explore the potential development of reflective practices amongst the police officers, and the perceived value for ongoing professional development.

1.4 Research aims

This research considered police officers' experience of an equivalent process of clinical supervision, referred to in a policing context as reflective time-out (the equivalent of clinical supervision in a policing context) in relation to the following aims:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

These aims were inspired by the writings of Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008) who associate the facilitation of reflection via clinical supervision with the development of reflective practice as a way of being, and thus a core element of personal and professional identity.

In order to achieve the aims, this research adopted a qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive approach to the construction of knowledge. This was underpinned by a postmodern critical lens in which understandings of the world are socially constructed rather than discovered as objective fact. It further reflects post Cartesian Dualist understandings of identity discussed within chapter two. Here concepts of the self are centrally bound up with self-awareness (Bulman, 2004; Finley, 2008). Hence the concept of identity is understood within a post-modern context, as a construct which is fluid and context specific rather than modernist

notions of identity as a fixed entity. Given these understandings, a constructionist, post-modern lens for this research was considered to be the most appropriate.

1.5 Thesis outline

I chose to follow convention in the ordering of chapters within this thesis, as follows:

1.5.1 Chapter Two: Literature review

In chapter two I critically review the key themes within the literature around health modernization, reflective practice and clinical supervision. I expand upon the culture of policing both historical and present day, and the professionalization of policing as a similar process to that undertaken over recent decades within health care. I articulate the need for this research, and therefore the gap in knowledge when considering the potential value of reflection for police officers.

1.5.2 Chapter Three: Methodology

Chapter three considers the ontological and epistemological positions that underpin the research perspective. I provide an account of the qualitative, interpretivist case study approach that I adopted for this research and discuss the methodological considerations. I provide a reflexive account of the research decisions that were made and of the methodology used.

1.5.3 Chapter Four: Results and discussion

In chapter four I present the findings, as themes and sub themes, from the research. I consider the experience of reflection via reflective time out and its value for policing, as perceived by the participants. I consider my own reflections upon the narratives that emerged within the data and the resonance they have for me, based on my own experiences, values and belief, and in the context of the literature presented in chapter two.

1.5.4 Chapter Five: Conclusion

In the final chapter I summarize the findings from this research and relate them to the research aims. As a professional doctorate, this thesis is primarily concerned with the contribution it makes to professional practice. Therefore, in conclusion, a reflexive account is provided of the implications for future practice, and a series of recommendations are made.

Chapter Two

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter I present a narrative critical review of the existing literature surrounding reflective practice in the context of nursing and the police service. A narrative approach was chosen because it is more consistent with 'inductive' approaches to qualitative research (Braun and Clarke, 2013). This narrative literature review has been arranged into three sections: the first section considers reflection and reflective practice as it is understood within a nursing context; the second discusses the police perspective including recent developments within policing, and the modern professionalization agenda; and the third section include a discussion of how reflective practice may be of use within a policing context for professional service delivery. The chapter concludes with a reiteration of the research aims and a chapter summary.

2.2 Undertaking the literature review

2.2.1 Search strategy

A full search of all the relevant electronic databases was undertaken through the university library. The databases accessed encompassed Summon, and the relevant disciplines such as nursing, the social sciences and criminology, and included the following:

- Cumulative Index for Nursing and Allied Health Literature (Cinahl)
- Cochrane library
- Criminal Justice Abstracts
- Ebrary
- Medline
- Royal College of Nursing (RCN)
- Science Direct
- Scopus
- Social care online

The inclusion criteria, exclusion criteria and date parameters are outlined below.

Inclusion:

- Written in English language
- Peer reviewed
- Qualitative studies
- Quantitative studies
- Discussion papers

Exclusion:

- Foreign language articles

Date parameters:

- Boud (2010) and Jasper (2013) claim that reflective practice originated in 1980s therefore date limits of 1980-2019 were set.

1.2.2 Search terms

Gray (2014) recommends that Boolean operators are used when undertaking literature searches; these connect, via the terms AND, OR or NOT, search terms using various chosen configurations. The following Boolean operators and search terms were used to review the literature. These terms were used because they were felt to reflect the nature of the topic according to the research aims, and nature of the study:

- Reflective practice AND nursing
- Clinical supervision AND nursing
- Reflective practice AND critique
- Police service AND modernization
- Police service AND training
- Police practice AND reflective practice
- Police practice AND professional development
- Police service AND supervision

Appropriate books and articles were saved and reviewed according to their relevance. Salient themes were identified throughout the body of nursing and police literature which formed the basis of the literature review which follows.

2.3 The nursing perspective

The previous introductory chapter briefly defined reflection and reflective practice. This section of the literature review considers reflective practice from a nursing perspective and begins with an expansion of some of these definitions and description as they are understood within the contemporary nursing literature. This is followed by a consideration of the philosophical contributions made by Dewey (1933) and educationalist Schön (1983, 1987) and Kolb (1984) which underpin modern aspects of reflection and reflective practice as key to adult learning from experience. Following this, levels of reflection including critical reflection and reflexivity are considered. Schön's critique of technical rationality provides an opportunity to consider the historical privileging of intellectual truth as not only distinct from, but superior to practical knowledge. The influence of Cartesian theory is considered here and the dichotomization in which a separation between mind and body is assumed (Bulman, 2004). A critical consideration of literature which addresses this binary is then considered and thus the interconnection between thoughts, feelings and action as a key feature of contemporary understandings of reflection (Bolton & Delderfield, 2018; Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017; Finley, 2008; Bulman, 2004). This leads on to a fuller discussion of contemporary issues associated with reflective practice, including the ontology of being reflective, self-awareness, mindfulness and emotional intelligence, and levels of reflection as a continuum, associated with critical reflection and reflexivity.

2.3.1 Defining reflection

A definition of how reflection and reflective practice is understood within this thesis is offered here. The contemporary literature includes various understandings of reflection and acknowledges the difficulties with these. Ruth-Sahid (2003), Newman (1999) and Kinsella (2010) each assert how the concept of reflective practice is ill-defined but in addition there was a lack of consensus as to what learning results from its implementation or what the negative outcomes may be, as well as the benefits. From an educational perspective Beauchamp (2015) highlights challenges associated with understanding the nature of reflection due to its multiple definitions. Miraglia and Asselin (2015) further support this concern, asserting that there is no overall definition of reflection that is agreed upon within the literature. Hustebo, O'Regan and Nestle (2015) also acknowledge the lack of conceptual clarity despite the benefits for professional practice. When considering the interrelationship between simulation and reflective practice, (Hustebo et al., 2015, p. 368) offer a definition of reflection as “a process of learning from experiences, considering and evaluating previous knowledge in light of these experiences and then incorporating this new knowledge to inform future practice”. What is key here is the understanding of reflection as a tool for professional learning. This understanding is further emulated by Lestander, Lehto and Engstrom (2016) and Bassot (2015) who observe that understandings of reflection frequently refer a twofold process of scrutiny through looking back as though at a mirror image and thinking deeply about the self. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) offer a similar understanding by referring to reflection as an in-depth review of events. This may either be as a solitary activity or through supervised support. Gallagher et al. (2017) also refer to the complex and contradictory definitions of reflection and reflective practice but here they appear more optimistic about the “commonalities that transcend the myriad of definitions” (Gallagher et al., 2017, p. 7). By referring

to Boyd and Fales' (1983) work which is a significantly featured within the literature, they suggest that firstly, reflection involves the internal examination and exploration of a concerning issue, and is centrally bound up with the self; secondly, the act of reflection usually results in a change of personal perspective as an outcome and thirdly, reflection is a process, and its value as a tool for the promotion of both personal and professional development is well-documented throughout the literature. Thus, within the midwifery context from which they write they state, "Reflection may facilitate analysis of professional performance and promote learning opportunities where midwives can continue to learn and grow and develop their clinical practice" (Gallager et al., 2017, p. 6). Whilst the modern context of reflection is referred to later in the chapter, I pause here to consider some of the key educational influences which underpin contemporary discourses regarding the role of reflection in adult learning.

2.3.2 Learning from experience; the influence of Dewey (1933)

The contribution of Dewey (1933) is frequently acknowledged within the literature around reflection (Bulman, 2013; Bass et al., 2017; Thompson and Thompson, 2018). Freshwater (2008, p. 2) acknowledges that "Many of the early attempts to define reflection drew upon the work of the philosophers, one of the earliest being that posited by John Dewey". Ghaye and Lillyman (2006, p. 7) suggest that his central preoccupation was with the process by which adults learn by "doing" through a "dynamic continuum" of experiences which influence future action. Central to the process was the act of "thinking with a purpose" or "reflective thinking", which he defined as:

Active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it leads...it includes a conscious and voluntary effort to establish belief upon a firm basis of evidence and rationality (cited in Moon, 1999, p. 12).

Moon (1999) observes that whilst the outcomes of reflection have some importance for Dewey, what is vital is the “initiation of reflective thinking in a state of doubt or difficulty” (Moon, 1999, p.12). The process is therefore guided by the need to solve perplexity (Dewey, 1933). Bass et al. (2017, p. 228) refer to Dewey’s concern with the resolution of perplexity, and the well-documented emphasis on learning to think ‘well’ through reflection and identify the criteria which underpin his theory. Hence they state “The process of reflection is rigorous and systematic, occurring through ‘interaction within the community’”. It values the intellectual growth of the self and others and involves meaning making from experience. The combination of these can lead to new or alternative ways of seeing the world through the purposeful examination of the basis and consequences of our beliefs. Thus, learning through experience is fundamental for Dewey (Dewey,1933). Freshwater (2008) contends that several authors have since offered understandings of reflection which are linked to learning from experience. She refers to Boyd and Fales (1983) which espoused a more recent understanding of the developmental process of cognitive change. They therefore summarized the use of reflective thinking as a transformative process of learning; “Reflection is the process of internally examining and examining an issue of concern, triggered by an experience which creates and clarifies meaning in terms of the self and which results in a changed conceptual perspective” (Boyd & Fales, 1983, p. 11).

The above quote suggests an understanding in which the constructed notion of the individual's consciousness is renegotiated through self-analysis. As such, the individual's world perspective is transformed through the cognitive process of reflective thought. Freshwater (2008) contends that what is significant here, is that the individual develops new insights which allows for not only a transformed view of the world, but in turn to changes in actions. This definition therefore suggests changes to the self and the person as an individual, and therefore alludes to the "transformative potential of reflective practice" (Freshwater, 2008, p. 2). This is also expanded upon later in this section on nursing literature. Whilst there is no doubt that Dewey has been influential in underpinning more recent understandings of the role of reflection in learning from experience, there is some contention regarding his neglect for emotion in reflective thinking. Moon (1999) for example refers to Hullfish and Smith's (1961) less frequently cited work, which extended the work of Dewey (1933) but with greater emphasis placed upon emotion and imagination. Bulman (2004) makes a similar point in their observation that whilst the role of feeling and emotion are implied in Dewey's work, there is an interesting lack of expansion on their role in reflective thinking. Moon (1999) also highlights Boud, Keogh and Walker's (1985) suggestion that Dewey did not go far enough in including the role of emotion in reflection and this is a key criticism of some of the early theorists which will be considered later in the chapter when considering contemporary literature. Here however Schön's influence on more recent understandings of reflective practice are considered.

2.3.3 Reflective practice; the influence of Schön (1983, 1987)

Many theorists refer to the contribution of the educationalist Schön (1983, 1987) in bringing the concept of reflection to numerous modern professionals and it is through his work that the term reflective practice first appears (Thompson & Thompson, 2018; Johns, 2017; Bulman 2013; Kinsella, 2010; Freshwater, 2008). Hannigan (2001) considers it difficult to overstate the extent to which nursing has adopted Schön's ideas. Finley (2008) suggests that his influence has been canonical. There are significant parallels here with the theoretical position of Dewey (1933). Kinsella (2010) observes the considerable debt owed by Schön (1983, 1987) to the work of Dewey (1933). Schön (1983) emulates Dewey's emphasis upon learning through doing and postulated the belief that such notions of learning through practice should be at the core of educational programmes and curricula (Bulman, 2013). Fundamentally, what underlies Schön's work is a critique of 'technical rationality' (Schön, 1983). Schön's work draws attention to the comparison between the traditionally scientific paradigm of technical rationality and the reflective paradigm. The paradigm of technical rationality which he referred to as the positivist epistemological of practice was consistent with the dominant ideology of the time in its privileging of science. This assumes an objective knowledge base for professional practice decisions in which scientific research can be applied to practice in a linear and decontextualized way (Rolfe, Freshwater & Jasper, 2001). This however does not fully account for the artful knowing which was based upon professional wisdom and experience. Hargreaves and Page (2013) offer an illustration of this by referring to Schön's analogy of the cliff top and the swamp. For an individual viewing a situation from the top of a cliff, the view may be straightforward and clear. In such cases, the most appropriate destination and route can be chosen, planned and executed in a rational and objective way. This, they suggest, is an illustration of his term technical rationality in

which a scientific approach may be appropriate when a problem was clear, and the outcomes were predictable. The world of practice, however, is rarely straightforward, and analogous to an individual embarking upon a journey whose starting point is the bottom of the cliff where the view is swampy. Where the destination is less clear, trial and error are therefore required, in which the practitioner learns from their mistakes and assimilated new information whilst learning along the journey. Such forms of learning are more effective for practitioners. The example of the swamp illustrates the method by which practitioners learn through the artistry of constantly improving and developing, via the use of reflective thought (Hargreaves & Page, 2013). Rolfe (2002, p. 23) thus suggests that:

Schön expanded the scope of reflection beyond the classroom out into the real world of messy practice and was one of the first writers to offer a challenge to technical rationality, the straightforward application of context-free propositional knowledge to practice.

A key to understanding Schön's (1983, 1987) work is the distinction between reflection 'in' action and 'on' action. The former, he suggests, require the practitioner to think, interpret and understand practices whilst they are happening (Rolfe et al., 2001). A type of intuitive thinking on your feet during practice situations. Reflection on action, however, involves the process of self-analysis in which practice decisions are considered through contemplation after the event, in order to learn from them (Schön, 1983). Thus, reflection on action enables the practitioner to make explicit practice knowledge and actions which are embodied or tacit (Taylor, Sims & Hill, 2015). Thompson and Thompson (2018) also reinforce the view that

ideally there should be an interconnection between both forms of reflection. Reflecting after the event should consider the thought processes during the practice situation, and future practice events should incorporate the learning from previous reflections on action. Rolfe et al. (2001) observe that Schön placed more emphasis upon the significance of reflection in action for professional practice, which they also hail a distinguishing feature of advanced practice. Bass et al. (2017) provide further support for this and suggest that the ability to think in action is the hallmark of professional artistry since it is gained through on-going experience and becomes the tacit 'knowing in action' a term coined by Schön (1983).

What is evident is that there is an observable distinction between Dewey and Schön's view of reflection and the rational nature of it. Horton- Deutsch and Sherwood (2017) for example, refer to Schön's articulation of tacit knowledge, which is well documented within the literature. This contrasts with Dewey's (1933) exposition of reflection as careful consideration in which the ultimate goal is the recognition of "which beliefs are based on tested evidence" (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017, p. 10). For Schön the view of reflection as rational instead is understood to include the intuitive and open, and thus "learners consider the tacit norms that underlie decisions, the theories that guide practice and their feelings that lead to reframing the problem" (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017, p. 10). Tacit knowledge is therefore the integration of knowledge with experience from practice, which operates at a subconscious level and is difficult to articulate objectively (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017).

There are however critics of Schön's work. Burton's (2000) concern is with Schön's failure to identify the possibility for reflection before an event as well as 'in' or 'on' action. Merrix

and Lillyman (2012) for example identify the potential for anticipatory practice when reflectively planning to act. This point was also raised by Freshwater (2008) who refers to Greenwood's (1998) argument that Schön's model of reflection fails to recognize reflection prior to action. Also, Eraut's (1995) critique of Schön draws attention to the lack of conceptual clarity regarding reflection in action. Thompson and Thompson (2018, p.14) however appraise several strengths within his approach. Firstly, it offers a useful understanding of "the relationship between professional knowledge and professional practice" and a recognition that theory and practice both contribute to learning. It also proposes a more sophisticated understanding of learning than simplistic technical rationality approaches associated with a historical emphasis upon evidence-based practice. They further suggest that it allows for enhanced standards of practice and in turn 'optimal outcomes' brought about through continuous learning. Conversely there is a tendency (although not exclusively they suggest) to focus upon the person, affording insufficient attention to broader social and organizational factors. There is also a lack of focus on the significance of power relations and the need for critical reflection (Thompson & Thompson, 2018).

An understanding of critical reflection as underpinned by critical theory is considered later, however this section concludes with a further understanding of learning from experience as experiential learning from the work of Kolb (1984).

2.3.4 Experiential Learning and Kolb (1984)

Kolb's cyclical model of reflection continues the tradition of understanding that adults learn by doing. Thus, there is a cyclical process in which an event or concrete experience is observed and then reflected upon which allows for the generation of personal theorizing or conceptualization. Through this process our understanding of the experience is reassessed, and the transformation of our understanding of it informs future action. This then becomes a new experience allowing the cycle to continue and thus engaging the individual with a process of ongoing learning (Kolb 1984). Jasper (2013, p. 5) suggests a spiral of knowledge analogous to a tornado in which the learning from our experiences grows and allows for the development of new insights to practice. Reflection should not be regarded as simply retrospective, but also anticipatory in which the practitioner plans future learning based on their existing knowledge, for professional development. Such an attitude to continued learning and development constitutes a "reflective attitude" (Jasper, 2013, p. 5). The notion that reflection may include anticipatory practice is useful here given Greenwood's argument that Schön failed to recognize reflection before action. There are several other reflective cycles which have been developed to reflect the circular nature of reflective processes (Freshwater 2008). These include Rolfe et al's. (2001) framework for reflexive learning which is a more complex adaptation of Borton's (1970) What? So what? and Now what? model, Gibb's (1988) reflective cycle and Boud, Keough and Walker's (1985) experiential learning. Freshwater (2008) refers to these cyclical processes as central to a similar process of professional development described by Jasper (2013). Hence, she states "It is this reflection as praxis that integrates reflection before action into the reflective process in a non-linear manner involving ongoing development of the practitioner" (Freshwater 2008, p. 8). A concern with Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle, like Schön (1983, 1987) is the insufficient inclusion

of the broader social and political context (Boud et al., 1985). The following section considers these in the context of critical reflection. It starts with the influential work of Mezirow (1981).

2.3.5 Critical reflection

Mezirow (1981), similarly to Dewey (1933), also emphasizes the centrality of reflective thought to the concept of transformative learning. Individuals, he suggests, hold meanings, or personal attitudes, values and beliefs, and if learning is to take place the learner must reassess and evaluate their meanings through critically reflecting upon lived experience. Such systems of critical thinking may then result in the accommodation of new knowledge in which the learner's internal landscape is permanently changed and their world perspective is transformed, allowing a process of re-understanding the world through perspective transformation (Thompson & Thompson, 2018). They suggest that this transformative perspective is also considered an emancipatory approach which allows for a transformation in the self (Thompson & Thompson, 2018). Thus, there are parallels with the basis for narrative therapy in which those that have been disempowered through their circumstances, are enabled to develop a new and empowered reframing of their situation. Therein, empowerment is achieved through the transformation from negative to positive narratives. Critical reflective practice is therefore central to allowing positive emancipatory outcomes of practice and avoiding the reinforcement of negative patterns of inequality (Thompson, 2018b). What is significant to these understandings of reflection is the inclusion of the term 'critical'. Bulman (2013) acknowledges the influence of critical theorists such as Habermas (1978), Mezirow (1981) and Brookfield (1987) on the use of reflection within professional practice. Enquiry

underpinned by critical theory acknowledges that societies are structured by powerful conventions, rules and meaning systems, and its objective is “to reveal aspects of society that confine human freedom and maintain the status quo” (Bulman, 2013, p. 5). The key proposition is that people are located within the historical and social context and as such the quest for objective knowledge is replaced with subjective understandings of the self. Bulman (2013) further suggests that the influence of critical reflection on influential writers such as Boyd and Fales (1983) and Boud, et al. (1985) is evident within their understanding of reflective learning. Both consider this to be a process of internal examination of experience, which results in new understandings and changes in perspective on a conceptual level. Boyd and Fales (1983, p. 113) refer to changes in conceptual perspective that result from the creation of meaning for the self.

Freshwater (2008) refers to terms associated with reflective practice as reflection, critical reflection and reflexivity. Reflection is seen as “a focused way of thinking about practice” (Freshwater, 2008, p.6). Critical reflection however requires more than thought about current practice but also involves scrutiny of the way that the individual is thinking about practice. Here the practitioner takes account of broader processes of socialization, including the political, social and cultural conventions, as well as professional and academic learning. Thinking is constructed within the context of wider social processes, but the existence of the individual within the contextual position, in turn results in their contribution to their construction of it (Freshwater, 2008). Fook (2006) considers critical reflection within the specific context of the reflective practice tradition and its focus upon power and the various ways that it operates both personally and as a broader relationship to “social and structural contexts and constraints” (Fook, 2006, p. 443).

Freshwater (2008) acknowledges the significance of Mezirow's understanding of critical reflection which remains of central importance to our understanding of the levels of depth to reflection, despite being somewhat dated. Hogan, Maikki and Finnegan (2016) also refer to the conceptual framework offered by Mezirow as remaining relevant to adult education. Mezirow (1981) understands reflectivity to be a continuum from consciousness, critical consciousness, leading towards perspective transformation. Freshwater (2008) refers to her own research as an example of the continued relevance of Mezirow's critical theory. Freshwater (2000, p. 484) draws attention to the increased incidence of "horizontal violence" as a phenomenon within nursing linked to power relations and systems of oppression within the health disciplines. Transformatory and emancipatory learning based upon critical theory is proposed as a one of the means of addressing this (Freshwater, 2000). Reflective practice made possible through clinical supervision is thus suggested as "the potential space for transformatory learning to take place, to bring to awareness the conflicts between the inner and outer dialogues, and issues of inequality and power distance that are often suppressed within the work setting" (Freshwater, 2000, p. 483).

The critical component requires reflection that is "through the lens of critical theory" (Bass et al., 2017, p. 229) and encourages deeper explorations of the broader social and political discourses as the context in which meanings are understood. Its ultimate intention is to affect transformation and enable social change. Four characteristics of critical reflection are referred to here as understood by Reynolds (2011): "questioning of assumptions, social focus, analysis of power and pursuit of emancipation" (Bass et al., 2017, p. 229). Central to

this ability is self-awareness and the scrutiny of assumptions and value systems that may operate on an unconscious level in the formulation of personal perspectives. This they suggest is consistent with Mezirow's understanding of 'meaning perspectives' as located within critical theory (Bass et al., 2017).

Johns (2017) observes the general distinction between reflection and critical reflection within the practice and educational literature but contends that central to critical reflection is the scrutiny of two types of assumptions relating to both power and hegemony: (1) Entrenched power dynamics and their implications for the effects upon relationships; and (2) hegemonic assumptions about dominance, and the establishment of norms by dominant groups which serve their own interests and serve to maintain the existing power dynamic. This is not an exclusive function of critical reflection for Johns, but rather all reflection may extend to consider the nature and implications of power and hegemony within the context of daily clinical practice. The interrelationship between critical reflection and reflexivity will be further discussed in the next section (Freshwater 2008), and later in the chapter when considering Eby's (2000) understanding of reflection, self-awareness and critical thinking as components of reflective practice. Whilst I do not seek to dichotomize these, I separate them here for readability.

2.3.6 Reflexivity

Also described as self-reflection, reflexivity is considered integral to critical reflection (Bass et al., 2017). This is consistent with Freshwater's (2008) assertion regarding the interrelated nature of both concepts. Bass et al. (2017) refer to Finley and Gough (2008) who also similarly identify a conceptual continuum from reflection to reflexivity with critical reflection centrally situated between them. As Freshwater (2008) and Bolton and Delderfield (2018) identified, Bass et al. (2017) provide a further postulation of the interconnectedness of reflection, critical reflection and reflexivity. The combination of these they suggest allows for the development of a practitioner for whom reflection is a way of being, and it is thus lived rather than simply done. Continuous self-reflection combined with critical reflection on the broader social and political context, allow for the development of self-awareness. It is these increased levels of self-awareness that are associated with reflexivity. The notion of metacognition is referred to here, hence they state, "In this way reflexivity appeared to represent a form of metacognition, whether the mirror is turned on all the internal and external influences as part of reflective practice". (Bass et al., 2017, p. 229). Freshwater (2008, p. 7) refers to Freshwater and Rolfe (2001) who also consider reflexivity to be a process of "turning back on itself" and a type of meta cognition emphasizing its critical nature of unsettling previously held assumptions to gain new awareness. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) further suggest that central to reflexivity is finding strategies for understanding personal attitudes, values, assumptions, prejudices and habitual actions. Reflexivity relates to the complexity of role, and our relationship to others, and an awareness of the extent to which your ways of being are culturally defined. Fook (2006) suggests that this is an ability to look internally and externally to recognize our connections with cultural and social understandings. It involves "the ability to recognize that all aspects of ourselves and our contexts influence the

way that we research (or create knowledge)” (Fook, 2006, p 443). Here Fook uses the term “research” in the broadest sense when considering the numerous ways of creating knowledge. Freshwater (2008) however points out that reflexivity is both a method for data collection in relation to professional practice, and a research method in its own right (Freshwater, 2008, p. 7). This is significant as given the nature of this research project I have adopted a reflexive approach, located within a qualitative interpretivist paradigm. Details of this and the ontological assumptions which underpin it are discussed in chapter three. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) consider Bleakley’s (1999, p. 317) assertion that “reflection and reflexivity are the essential elements of reflective practice. Perceiving the difference makes it less of an ill-defined process”. This supports Freshwater’s (2008) analysis of reflective practice, which involves focused thinking about practice as reflection and reflexivity, as the meta cognitive process of gaining new awareness’s (with critical reflection inherent within this as a component of reflexivity). Conceptualizations of reflective practice as an ongoing reflexive process are considered in more detail here as a key feature of contemporary literature.

2.3.7 Being reflective; the self and mindfulness

The notion of reflective practice being understood as a way of being rather than an act of doing is significant within the literature. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) for example provide an understanding of it as:

A state of mind, an ongoing attitude to life, work, a pearl grit in the oyster of practice and education. Danger lies in it being a separate curriculum element with a set of exercises, Broomfield (2009) calls it a reflective habit... second nature (Bolton & Delderfield, 2018, p. 2).

Jacobs (2016) also challenges mechanistic approaches to reflective activity and considers reflection and reflective practice to be much more than thinking over procedural practice, such as the administration of a particular medication. Whilst there is an imperative to provide a rationale for our actions, authentic reflection involves the ongoing and constant examination of the self and our personal growth including every aspect of personal practice. Reflection thus ensures that practitioners relate to patients and colleagues in a humane and holistic manner as well as ensuring procedural competence. Central to the understanding of reflective practice is the acquisition of new insights through self-awareness and critical reflection on present or previous lived experiences. There are several key features of the reflective practice literature including notions of mindfulness but also an acknowledgement of the self as central to reflective practice and the centrality of self-awareness. Taylor Sims and Hill (2015) consider the distinction between reflection and mindfulness to be the timing, and thus being mindful requires being aware of what is happening in the moment, being aware of self and environment, and being present. Caley et al. (2017) reinforce the importance of mindfulness referred to by Taylor et al. (2015). They acknowledge the essential requirement to be reflective and consider increased mindfulness to be key to reflective practice which may assist in reducing stress and burnout rates in nursing. Mindfulness is again understood as a state of self-awareness which involves attention and being present in the moment. There is a growing interest, they suggest in its value for supporting wellbeing and building resilience in the challenging world of practice.

The connection between mindfulness and reflection is key for Johns (2004). Indeed, Taylor et al. (2015, p. 451) refer to his typology of reflective practice which ranges from reflection as an act through to a way of being, starting with reflection on action and progressing through reflection in action, the “internal supervisor” reflection within the moment, to mindful practice as a way of being. At the outset of Johns work however, he takes issue with the attempts to define reflective practice highlighted earlier and the troublesome nature of them within the literature (Johns, 2017). Some of these difficulties were referred to at the beginning of the chapter with my own attempts to offer a definition. Johns contends that the concern with what it is exactly “reflects the technical to know it” (Johns, 2017, p. 6). If known it can be applied with prediction and control. Reflective practice though, is at a fundamental level “an ontological quest to know self rather than an epistemological quest to know something, and whilst important, is a secondary issue” (Johns, 2017, p. 6). Thus, the epistemological pursuit for knowing reflection is a perspective which “misses the point” (Johns, 2017, p. 6). Johns (2017) further makes the distinction between the epistemological approach to doing reflection and the ontology of being reflective as a reflexive approach to practice. Hence reflective practices span a number of approaches, from doing reflection towards being reflective, from technical rationality towards a professional artistry perspective and an increasing criticality. The ontological approach of being reflective is bound up with who I am, as opposed to the epistemological approach of what I do, as though reflection were a tool rather than a way of being. The epistemological approach is subsumed within the ontological since what we think and do, is inherent to who we are as a person. Hence Johns (2017, p. 6) states “Doing reflection is a technical rational approach whereas being reflective reflects a professional artistry approach criticality reflects the depth of enquiry into the background that frames the experience”. The language here is shared with Schön (1983) who

considers inadequate the technical rational approach to the direct application of theoretical material to practice. Thus, Johns draws from Schön's understanding of professional artistry or knowing in action as distinct from research-based theory (or technical rationality), and whilst both types of knowledge are important, professional artistry has greater significance for Johns. This is since it is this type of knowing "with which the practitioner responds to the situations of everyday practice" (Johns, 2017, p. 13). Thus, technical rationality is critically assessed for its value before assimilation into professional artistry through reflection. Hence, he provides the following definition of reflection:

I describe reflection as being mindful of self, either within or after experience, like a mirror to which the practitioner can view and focus self within the context of a particular experience, in order to confront, understand and move toward resolving contradiction between one's vision and actual practice. Through the conflict of contradiction, the commitment to realize one's vision, and understanding why things are as they are, the practitioner can gain new insight into self and be empowered to respond more concretely in future situations within a reflexive spiral towards developing practical wisdom and realizing one's vision as Praxis. The practitioner may require guidance to overcome resistance or to be empowered to act on understanding. (Johns, 2009, p.12).

Many of the understandings of reflective practice considered this far are reinforced within this definition by Johns, and these include the concept of reflexivity and the process of being reflective as well as the notion of praxis. Bulman (2013) draws attention to the inclusion of

praxis in Johns' (2009) definition of reflection and offers an understanding of it, underpinned by the work of Freires (1972) and Habermas (1978). This relates to the need to reflect and take action within the world in order to transform it. The interrelationship between this concept of transformation and transformative learning is thus present, with the central purpose of developing a critical understanding of the world and providing positive outcomes in the improvement of practice. The interrelationship between learning for development through action and the concept of praxis was referred to earlier when considering Kolbs' (1984) cycle. The literature also argues that many of the early theorists did not take sufficient account of the role of feeling and emotion in reflection (Moon, 1999; Bulman 2013). Here the contemporary literature which synthesizes cognition, affect and action is considered.

2.3.8 Being reflective and identity; addressing the emotional cognitive binary

Contemporary understandings of reflective practice as a way of being now acknowledge the synthesis between thinking, feeling and action associated with developing new insights (Bulman, 2004; Finley, 2008; Bulman. 2013). Bulman (2004) argues that this constitutes a departure from traditional approaches to thinking and knowing. Indeed, they refer for example to Dewey's neglect of emotion in his work. They observe the tendency towards Cartesian Dualism in historical approaches to learning. Inherent within Descartes' postulation 'I think therefore I am' is the proposition that the mind is separate from the body and this has prompted a dualist approach to the privileging of intellectual knowledge as separate from and superior to the practical and emotional. It was thus the tendency towards technical rationality or the superior status of scientific or evidence-based knowledge which a number

of writers challenge (Schön, 1983, Rolfe et al., 2001; Johns, 2017). Mazoukes and Jasper (2004) also document this historical privileging of positivistic approaches to knowledge in which the scientific knowledge of medical doctors was both dichotomized and considered superior to the emotional knowledge of nurses. They also refer to Cartesian Dualism and the role of reflection in resolving the tension between education and practice knowledge, and thus mind-body synthesis. It is widely acknowledged that many of the early educational theorists understated or overlooked the role of emotion in learning (Freshwater 2008; Thompson & Thompson, 2018) and there is evidence of this as posited by Mezirow (2009). He refers to colleagues within his own academic community who challenged the neglected role of emotion within his conceptualization of transformational theory, which is a criticism he himself concedes is partly justified.

Much of the contemporary literature understands reflective practice as being associated with being reflective, and this is consistent with the understandings already referred to, such as Freshwater (2008) and Johns (2017), and the concepts of reflection, critical reflection and reflexivity throughout the literature as discussed previously. Bulman (2004) for instance refers to Barrett's (1997) notion of critical being and further identified reflective practice as more than simply a cognitive process. They refer to intermingling and the incorporation of different forms of knowing. Reflective thinking is therefore understood as combining intellect with feelings and emotions, as well as a commitment to taking action. Bulman (2004) points out Wittgenstein's (1967) challenge to the mind body dichotomy inherent within dualist approaches to knowing. He asserts "It is people and not minds that think, feel and act and that human behavior is bound up with thinking, emotion and meaning" (cited in Bulman, 2004, p. 6). What is crucial to this type of contemporary understanding of thinking and knowing

(as a departure from a more traditional stance) is the interconnection between mind and body and the argument that knowledge is socially rather than individually constructed. This has important implications for how individuals understand themselves and how the sense of self and identity is constructed through learning and ongoing transformations in perspective. Thus, through reflection, critical reflection and reflexivity (as a continuum of being rather than discrete stages (Finley, 2008)), there is a continuous examination of the self as understood within the broader social context (Caley et al., 2017). Horton-Deutsch and Sherwood (2017, p. 20) suggest that reflective practice “is about tapping into things deeply human, our own as well as other’s experience, knowledge understanding and wisdom”. They further state “transformative learning emphasizes the process of change in understanding ourselves as well as revision of our beliefs and behaviours” (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017, p. 20). It emphasizes how the words we use and how we use them carry much power to influence others (Bache, 2001). The notion of lived experience and human consciousness are central to phenomenological understandings of what it is to be (Finley, 2008). Finley (2008) identifies Eby’s (2000) understanding of reflective practice as reflection, self-awareness and critical thinking in which phenomenology is combined with critical theory for the development of a critical consciousness. Reflection here is understood as rooted in existential phenomenology, critical reflection and interpretivism which aids personal and social awareness for action. Critical thinking is also underpinned by critical theory which enables inherent assumptions to be located and challenged. Finally, self-awareness is also rooted in phenomenology and involves cognition and thinking, as well as intuitive ways of sensing and knowing. This awareness of self allows for the evaluation of knowledge and generation of meanings. The concept of self-awareness remains key to reflective practice in relation to the synthesis of cognition and emotion and action for learning by doing. I

consider here some of the literature which also identifies the role of emotional intelligence in the ability to recognize and regulate feelings. Identity is understood in a post-modern context as constructed and fluid rather than a fixed entity as understood within modernist philosophy. Thus, bounded concepts of identity associated with modernism are transcended and take account of context and Foucauldian notions of power (Hurley, Mears & Ramsey, 2009). Freshwater (2000) also refers to power as being of central importance both in the research process and the social construction of knowledge and identity.

2.3.9 Self-awareness and emotional intelligence

Horton-Deutsch and Sherwood (2017) again reinforce this notion of the synthesis of cognitive and emotional thinking, described within the previous sections. The combination of cognitive intelligence with emotional intelligence, they suggest, allows for the recognition of our feelings. They consider the demanding nature of practice and the close and ongoing contact with distress. Without the ability to regulate response and feelings, including frustration and pity for example, there is potential for the practitioner to become overwhelmed and ultimately experience stress or even burnout. In the context of emotional intelligence, self-awareness is considered to be centrally bound up with the knowledge and acknowledgement of thoughts and feelings at any given moment. Thus, the harmonious interaction of thoughts and feelings allow for the regulation of emotions and the promotion of both intellectual and emotional growth. The concept of emotional intelligence as a core component of reflective practice is also well documented. McCloughen and Foster (2018) identify the widely recognized need for emotional intelligence among healthcare professionals due to the influence that emotions have upon professional relationships. Emotions they contend,

affect clinical decisions and impact upon professionals at a personal level. The practitioner that is emotionally intelligent may use their emotions and others' emotional states to resolve problems within a dynamic clinical context. This view is also emulated by Heckenman, Jos, Ruud and Halfens (2015) who consider the role of emotional intelligence for self-development.

Freshwater and Stickley (2004) acknowledge nursing as both an art and science but refer to the long-standing identity crisis within the profession, in which it has battled to understand itself as either an art, science or both (Freshwater 2008). Horton-Deutsch and Sherwood (2017) note Freshwater's (2008) contention however that such historical debates on art or science are in reality out of date, and thus they state "The processes of reflection help practitioners move between seemingly polar opposites, helping articulate and make evident all ways of knowing" (Horton- Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017, p. 9). This reinforces many of the views espoused in the previous section including Jacobs (2016), who draws attention to the use of reflection for the examination of all aspects of self and practice enabling both procedural competence and holistic and humane relationships. Freshwater (2008) refers to her earlier work (Freshwater & Stickley, 2004, p. 94) in which they argue "Due to the dominance of evidence-based practice in healthcare and its preference towards rational technical knowledge, nursing is becoming more and more technical at the expense of the human qualities of empathy love and compassion". We see again here an acknowledgement of the tendency towards the privileging of scientific knowledge within the nursing profession described again in the last section of the chapter. This is attributed here to the increase in educational standards which came with the introduction of Project 2000, and the requirement for practice underpinned by empirical evidence. Conversely here they refer to the

growth in popularity of emotional intelligence as a concept and the history of essentialism in nurse education which focused upon statutory competences and fitness to practice. Freshwater and Stickley (2004, p. 91) further state “Many curricula now make reference in some way to the notion of an emotionally intelligent practitioner, one for whom the theory practice and research are inextricably bound up with the tacit and experiential knowledge”, They refer to Goleman’s (1995) book on emotional intelligence which considers both the rational thinking mind and the emotional feeling mind. Since according to Freshwater and Robertson (2002) “The emotions remain the Cinderella of our psyche” (cited in Freshwater & Stickley, 2004, p. 91).

Freshwater and Stickley’s reference to the literature documenting the therapeutic use of self and its relationship to love (for both the nurse being loved and love as shown for the patient within the therapeutic relationship) has resonance with my own practice as a nurse. Whilst they do not emphasis love as a specific emotion, given that it is only “one aspect of the emotional world” (Freshwater & Stickley, 2004, p. 94) the nature of providing knowledgeable practice for the patient which is both emotionally in tune and demonstrates compassion, is surely (or certainly for me) at the very heart of what it is to care.

2.3.10 The role of reflective practice in nursing

So far, the literature review has considered both the seminal educational thinkers, and contemporary understandings of the nature of reflective practice. Central to this are concepts such as reflection, critical reflection, and reflexivity. Whilst there is much documented about the historical privileging of technical knowledge underpinned by a positivist and essentialist epistemology, much of the contemporary literature emphasizes such concepts as mindfulness, the self, self-awareness, emotional intelligence and the postmodern ontological conception of reflection as a way of being. It is commonly accepted that reflective practice is not only essential to contemporary practice but a requirement of both the code of ethics and revalidation. Some of the specific advantages of reflective practice as they are understood within the literature are considered here.

Bolton and Delderfield (2018) consider the enabling properties of reflective practice for professionals in learning from experience in relation to a multitude of areas such as: the self, our relationship to work and home life, our studies and the broader social, cultural and institutional structures and the means by which they control us. They list a number of areas that reflective practice may enhance:

- Acceptance of and confidence with, the essential complexity, uncertainty and perspectival nature of professional life.

- Reflexive critique of personal values, ethics, prejudices, boundaries assumptions about roles and identity, decision-making processes, taken for granted structures.
 - Reflexive critique of professional environments and workplaces.
 - Awareness of diversity, struggling against misuse of institutional power and marginalization willingness to explore the interrelatedness of the professional and the personal.
 - Sensitive fruitful review of forgotten areas of practice.
 - Analysis of hesitation, its skill and knowledge gaps.
 - Respect for, and trust in, others and own feelings and emotions.
 - Development of observation and communication abilities.
 - Construction awareness of collegial relationships.
 - Relieve stress by facing problematical painful episodes.
 - Identification of learning needs.
 - Communication of experience and expertise with a wide range of colleagues.
- (Cited in Bolton and Delderfield., 2018, p. 8).

Here there is a reiteration by Bolton and Delderfield (2018) of reflective practice for effective practice and personal development but also the principles of critical reflection in the awareness of systems of oppression, institutional power and the potential for social change. Reflective practice thus allows for the scrutiny of assumptions that are taken for granted and

questions them as though unfamiliar and challengeable. They caution however that changes of this magnitude can lead to a sense of loss of an element of one's concept of self; this requires bravery according to Hargreaves and Page (2013). Here reflective practice is understood as a political responsibility which is more than merely self-examination but is located in both the social and political within a culture of scientific dominance. Reflexivity and reflective practice are therefore understood to be essential for ethical practice (Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). Johns (2017) makes similar claims about the potential for reflection to affect change. As discussed previously, Johns (2017) also refers to the historical context in which practitioners have been socialized to be powerless and subordinate within nursing; thus empowerment results from the commitment and courage to take action. Reflective practice is therefore an emancipatory process which by its nature facilitates empowerment and enables agency by allowing a voice for the historically oppressed. He therefore advocates the value of reflective practices as a process of enlightenment, empowerment and emancipation. Freshwater (2008, p.11) refers to Argyris and Schön (1974) and Greenwood (1998) when considering the purpose of reflective practice as "the creation of the world that more faithfully reflects the values and beliefs of people in it through the construction or revision of people's action theories" Horton- Deutsch and Sherwood (2017) emulate much of the literature regarding the role of reflection in learning and identify it as a central feature in allowing practitioners to create concrete links between education and practice. Caldwell and Grobbi (2013) advocate the use of reflective practice for enhanced practice outcomes. Encouraging reflection thus supports professional development and results in better standards of patient care. The benefits for patient care are further considered by Jacobs (2016) who refer to Bulman's (2013) assertion that reflection was associated with humanistic nursing and the holistic care of others. Finally, Bostock-Cox (2015) points out the mandatory

nature of reflective practice. Reflection, she suggests, is a key aspect of the nursing code of practice. As stated in the introductory chapter, *The Code* (2018) makes clear the role of reflective practice for the maintenance of high practice standards, practicing effectively, prioritizing people, preserving safety and promoting trust and professionalism.

There is much written about the inclusion of reflective practice as a feature of modern professional nursing. Jasper, Rosser and Mooney (2013) for example suggest that whilst reflective practice is a long-standing concept, its adoption as a formal strategy for continuous learning and practice improvement within nursing was rooted in the past three decades. Many accounts within the literature identify a history of reflective thinking in nursing which became well established during the late 1980s and early 1990s (Boud, 2010; Jasper, 2013; Howatson-Jones 2016). Humphreys (1996) observes the changes to the nurse training and education process during this period, as a significantly influential factor, in which hospital based, 'in house' apprenticeship style training was replaced by diploma level education, provided via tertiary Higher Educational establishments. According to Manzoukas and Jasper (2004) the phrase reflective practice made its first appearance within British nursing documentation with the introduction of Project 2000 as the new strategy for pre-registration, diploma level education (UKCC, 1986). The strategic changes in the educational arrangements coincided with broader discourses emerging from seminal writers within the educational literature such as Schön (1983; 1987) and Kolb (1984) who emphasizes the role of experience in adult learning and the centrality of reflection to the learning process.

Since this time both health and social work professionals have continued to contemplate the essential qualities necessary for an organization to consider itself professional, or indeed to be recognized as a profession (Thompson & Thompson, 2018). Furthermore, Jasper and Mooney (2013) and Timmins (2016) refer to a comparable increase in the pace of change within nursing, and a series of crises in professionalism identified within the Francis Report (2013). These add further weight to the existing requirement that practitioners take an autonomous approach to their practice, and that personal and professional development facilitated using reflective practice is an essential element of professionalism. Indeed, much of the nursing literature considers the centrality of reflective practice to Continued Professional Development (CPD) as a key activity associated with professionalism (Moon, 1999; Johns, 2017; Hargreaves & Page, 2013). McDonald (2013) for example highlights the general acceptance that reflection and reflective practice is considered an important element of nursing practice, particularly in assisting with meeting the National Midwifery Council (NMC) regulatory body professional requirements to maintain optimal standards of care maintain Continued Professional Development (CPD). Since 1994, the nursing regulatory body in the UK (formerly UKCC), has required all Registered Nurses to demonstrate evidence of their continued learning and professional development and advocated reflection as being an element of the learning process. This is reinforced by the Standards Framework: Realizing Professionalism, Nursing Standards of Education and Theory (NMC, 2018, p. 5) which promotes a learning culture which is “ethical open and honest” as one of the five key areas of professionalism. This makes specific reference to the requirement that all approved providers of education must “prioritize the well-being of people, promoting critical self-reflection and safe practice in accordance with The Code (2015)” (NMC, 2018, p. 5). Howatson-Jones (2016) add further weight to this by observing that The Code (now replaced by The Code (2018),

which constitutes the Code of Practice within nursing and midwifery, is specific about reflecting upon any form of learning as essential for professional development. The expectation to maintain practice knowledge brings with it a responsibility to reflect upon what we know and its relationship to what we do. The role of reflection as a required component of professionalism and the reduction of risk and error in nursing is unequivocal within the new revalidation requirements, introduced in 2016. Since its introduction, re-registration to the NMC register requires the demonstration of safe and competent practice which must include evidence of five written reflective accounts which detail the learning from the practitioner's Continued Professional Development (CPD) and the resultant developments to the quality of their professional practice. Further evidence of a reflective discussion with an NMC registered practitioner is also a requirement of the new arrangements. One of the key drivers for revalidation as the new process for reregistration is the fostering of a culture of "sharing, reflection and improvement" (NMC, 2017, p. 6). Persson, Kvist and Ekeliin (2018) further reinforce the centrality of reflective practice for ongoing professional development. This constitutes a process of personal transition, a concept which appears to have resonances with the culture of reflection and improvement referred to by the NMC (2017). This transition takes place as an ongoing incremental process and requires the ability to absorb new knowledge to enable continued improvements to clinical practice. Put simply, reflection according to Caldwell and Grobbel (2013) encourages growth and is the professional motivation to move on and do better. Caldwell and Grobbel (2013) make similar claims regarding the role of reflection within professional practice and also consider it essential for the development of autonomy, criticality and advanced decision making in practice. There is evidence they suggest, that practitioners who are allowed time to reflect upon their practice experiences provide more advanced care and have a fuller understanding of their actions

which facilitates the development of enhanced professional skills. McDonald (2013) reinforces these assertions regarding the essential nature of reflective practice for competence in nursing care. The effective learning from experience associated with reflection, is vital for the development and maintenance of competence. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) identify the complexity and unpredictability that professionals face in modern practice and the need for complex and diverse processes of reflective activity in order to negotiate such levels of uncertainty in imperfect clinical environments. This acknowledgement of the challenging and complex nature of modern practice amongst the helping professions more broadly is also made by Thomson and Thompson (2018) and is consistent with the increasing demands within the profession earlier identified by Bulman (2013). There is thus a temptation in such climates to reject systems of reflection and reflective practice as a luxury that cannot be afforded by the overstretched practitioner, despite being a good idea in principle. Thompson and Thompson (2018) however refute this and further emphasize the importance of informed and considered practice as a key feature of professionalism. The busier the environment, the greater the imperative to be reflective since such levels of pressure necessitate careful and considered thought about roles, duties, goals, priorities, strategies for managing pressure and work related stress, available support networks, and the identification of previous experience and learning (Thompson & Thompson, 2018).

Parrish and Crookes (2014) acknowledge the notion that reflection is a key developmental tool for practice and thus it is the vehicle through which student nurses assess the extent of their practice, and development and identify future developmental opportunities. They assert the well-established importance of reflection as a concept and suggest an imperative for the teaching of it as an inclusion within nurse educational programmes. The notion of

reflection as a learning tool is further supported by Lestander et al. (2016, p. 220). They cite Schön (1983, 1987) in asserting “It is a known that reflection upon experience supports learning”. Thus, they further suggest that “The nursing literature highlights the need to promote the concept of reflective practice and to assist students in reflection” (Lestander et al., 2016, p. 220). Wanda, Wilson and Fowler (2014) identify the concept of reflective practice as well-established in professional education as an aid for bridging the theory practice gap. It aids the connection between what is taught theory, and practice delivery, enabling a synthesis and reinforcement of theory and practice knowledge. At a practice level, they draw from Johns and Watson (2000) and assert “Reflective practitioners make this possible by utilizing a cyclical learning process; reflecting on past experiences in order to gain new knowledge about their practice and themselves as nurses” (Cited in Wanda et al., 2014, p.1417). This concept of reflective practice as ongoing systematic and cyclical is therefore reinforced here as explored through Jasper’s (2013) analogy for the reflective spiral as a tornado, and further understandings of learning through doing as praxis (Feirere 1972; Freshwater, 2008, Johns, 2017). For Wanda et al. (2014) who are amongst the many advocates of reflective practice, the learning from experience associated with it, is beneficial both within an educational and clinical setting and has several uses. Thus, there is a further advocacy of the use of reflective practice for the professional development of both students and practice nurses. The benefits of reflection for student nurses, are therefore endorsed as: assisting students in learning the skills for managing the feelings evoked through clinical practice, developing problem solving capabilities within the clinical context, and critical thinking and analysis skills. The use of reflective practice as a strategy for ongoing education is

observed to be well documented by Goudrea et al. (2015). In summary, there is a widespread advocacy of the importance of reflective practice for safe effective and high-quality care. The following section considers the reflective practice research.

2.3.11 Reflective practice research

The previous section discussed the role of reflective practice in nursing. The following section will build upon this and provide a description of some of the research which considers the value of reflective practice. Indeed, there are discourses regarding the paucity of empirical evidence surrounding the effectiveness of reflection, including Mackintosh (1998). Forneris and Peden-McAlpine (2007) share this concern and suggest that the subjective and personal nature of reflection has led to poor attempts at evaluation and thus its effectiveness is largely anecdotal. Further, criticisms have also been targeted on the difficulties in both proving and measuring the outcomes of reflective practice (Newall 1994). Freshwater (2008) observes that the criticisms of reflective practice are largely based upon the failure to demonstrate its usefulness within the body of research. She contends however “The value of reflection is inherent in the experience of the process” (Freshwater, 2008, p. 11). With reference to Health (1998) she states, “The positivist voice is criticized as ignoring the focus of reflective practice as a starting point in favour of a defining point” (Freshwater 2008, p. 11). Johns (2017, p. 14) makes a similar point here and takes issue with Mackintosh (1998, p. 566) who dismisses the outcomes of reflective practice as based upon “personal anecdote”. In response to her claims that the benefits of reflection are largely unaddressed by the literature’ he states:

Macintosh reviews the literature with her own partial eye, seeing or interpreting what she wanted to read to support her prejudice against subjective accounts and methodologies. Without doubt there was a strong prejudice within healthcare research and education against what Macintosh pejoratively describes as anecdotes.

Johns (2017, p. 15) then makes a similar argument to Freshwater (2008) in relation to positivist approaches to the measurement of reflective practice outcomes. He further states:

Attempting to evaluate the impact of reflective practice on patient outcomes from a technical rational perspective is fraught with difficulty given the variables of health care. It is trying to measure the wrong thing using the wrong approach.

His example of a practitioner reflexive narrative however demonstrates an evaluation of reflective practice on the practitioner's development and the impact upon her patient care. A number of examples of doctoral reflexive narrative research "reveals practitioner journeys of becoming a reflective practitioner across diverse practice and teaching environments" (Johns, 2017, p. 15). Indeed, more recent studies suggest the benefits of reflective practice. Welp, Johnson, Nguyen and Perry (2018) for example examined the perceptions of 244 nurse participants regarding the usefulness of personal and professional development activities including participation in clinical supervision. The findings suggest that engagement in personal and professional development activities, encourages reflective thinking and this was perceived by participants to enhance team working and the quality of clinical practice.

Further research by Dawber (2013) implemented clinical supervision groups with Australian nurses across three clinical nurse specialisms. Participants reported gaining new insights into care with a positive impact for the quality of patient outcomes. Associated with this was the development of self-awareness and increased confidence. Further benefits included team cohesion, the alleviation of work-related stress and the development of resilience. Koivu, Saarinen and Hyrkas (2012) also examined the benefits of clinical supervision for aiding reflective practice which yielded similar findings in relation to benefits for staff wellbeing; amongst these were also the reduction in occupational stress, the risk of burnout, and professional isolation as well as increased staff support and job satisfaction. White (2016) similarly echoes the value of clinical supervision and draws attention to the accumulation of credible research evidence which demonstrated the positive effects of it for the wellbeing of supervisees including the amelioration of workplace burnout. Thus, there is further support here that suggests clinical supervision is beneficial for the welfare of staff. Other research associated with the delivery of reflective practice groups sessions focused upon the enhancement of mindfulness. Here Caley's (2017) support programme within a clinical oncology setting used the Mindful Awareness Assessment Scale which identified an increase in levels of mindfulness and a positive impact for professional development. A literature review of studies in the development of mindfulness undertaken by Prince-Paul and Kelley (2017) also suggests an association with improved patient centered care.

This literature review has considered the long-established acknowledgement of the value of reflective practice in nursing and its association with professional practice. During my work with the police within an educational context over the past twelve years, I have observed more recent developments to the service which draw parallels with the changes witnesses

during my career within nursing. The historical inclusion of the foundation degree which brought about my own professional relationship with the police for example, and more recently the development of the CoP and the move to degree level entry to the police (CoP 2015). In the next section I consider literature on the current professionalization agenda in the police service and contend that reflective practice may also be of value within a policing context.

2.4 The policing perspective

The previous section considered reflective practice within the nursing profession. The following section considers the policing context, and recent developments associated with the professionalization of the service. At the heart of these are the development of the College of Policing, the move to degree level entry and the adoption of Evidence Based Practice (EBP) (Home Office 2010; College of Policing, 2015). I consider the historical culture of policing and parallels in the professionalization process, to those that took place within nursing during the 1980s and 1990s. This leads to an exploration of how similar systems of reflective practice may be considered for more widespread adoption within policing as a profession.

2.4.1 A history of public mistrust

Green and Gates (2014) refer to a programme of public sector reform and modernization initiatives initiated by the Labour government following their re-election to power in 1997. The “tough on crime, tough on the causes of crime” agenda, heralded a radical shakeup of policing and the broader Criminal Justice System (Munice, 2004, p. 1). A key component, according to the Independent Police Commission (IPC, 2013), is an approach to crime

aimed at restoring public confidence in the British police service (IPC, 2013). There has been a well-documented history of mistrust toward the police, and a fragile respect for the service which did not always survive individual encounters within them, according to Reiner (2010). Holdaway (2017, p. 592) further refers to the historical context of police professionalization and a catalogue of community outrages in which the integrity of the police had been publicly questioned, and for which service reform had historically been considered the remedy. Amongst these he suggests were the Hillsborough disaster and the Stephen Lawrence murder investigation which he states, “etched deeply into the contemporary history of troubled police race relations”. A series of public order issues during the 1980s, including the miners’ strike, the poll tax demonstrations, the Brixton riots, and the perennially heavy-handed treatment of the travelling community at Stonehenge, are referred to by Reiner (2010) as examples. The combination of which, he argued prior to Holdaway (2017), damaged the reputation of the police and their relationship with the public, particularly minority and traditionally difficult to reach groups. The IPC (2013, p. 20) concur with Reiner (2010) and further refer to “a historical spate of organizational failures and scandals which badly damaged public confidence in the integrity of the police, which needed to be put right”. They also refer to examples of miscarriages of justice and perceived abuses of institutional power, such as the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry, the investigation into the Hillsborough disaster, both referred to above by Reiner (2010), and later by Holdaway (2017), the over representation of black and minority ethnic groups in the stop and search statistics, and the death of Ian Tomlinson. It is against this backcloth of highly visible enquiries that measures to rebuild trust through the professionalization and modernization of the service became central to policing discourses (IPC, 2013). Thus, the concept of professionalization became integral

to the policing agenda and gathered momentum during the past two decades (Home Office, 2010).

2.4.2 Reform and the culture of professionalism; the College of Policing

Although now synonymous with the reform agenda, it is argued that the notion of professionalism is not new to policing but rather is firmly rooted in its history as conceived by its founder Robert Peel (Neyroud, 2011). He refers to a clear and consistent articulation of policing since its foundation as a special type of work, requiring higher than average intelligence, firm moral character and a healthy physique. The police officer, he contended, was to be regarded as a good Samaritan, a “citizen in uniform”, protecting the public as a working-class professional (Neyroud, 2011, p. 4). Lumsden (2017), also observes the century old debate regarding police professionalism and cites the creation of the Metropolitan Police as the birth of modern policing as a stable working class (or lower middle class) career. Lumsden’s (2017) enquiry into police officer perceptions of the professionalization process reveals that Peelian principles and the role of ethics therein had become a historical and symbolic marker of the police’s identity as a profession. Such principles, according to Emsley’s (2014) assertion have historically achieved a mythical status within policing. For interviewees in this study, Peelian principles were considered core to its identity as a profession, with a moral grounding and purpose. It was this identity and culture which made them distinct from other professions.

Holdaway (2017) however notes several debates within the academic literature and amongst the profession itself, about the status of policing as a profession. He further contends that this is not a new idea. By referring to Critchley (1967), he describes a trajectory of change within policing during the 1960s and that the fundamental return to Peelian policing was evidence of the police's status as a profession. The following decade was identified as a period of transition from artisan to "professional police status" by the Metropolitan police (Holdaway, 2017, p. 589). The term re-professionalization he suggests therefore more accurately reflects the "periodic, authoritative, public claims that the police are a profession". Lumsden's (201, p. 4) elicitation of police officer views of professionalization however identifies an understanding linked to "top down government reforms, education and recruitment, building of an evidence base and ethics of policing" (Lumsden, 2017, p. 4). She further identifies tensions "between the government's top down drive for police organizations to professionalize and the officers' bottom up view on policing as an established profession" (Lumsden, 2017, p. 4).

The most significant manifestation of the government driven professionalization process was the establishment of the CoP in 2013. This resulted from Peter Neyroud's (2011) review of leadership and training. Holdaway (2017) observes the timely nature of this in relation to the newly elected Conservative government. This reflects the vision of the police contemplated during their long period of opposition, associated with radical reform and the creation of a professional body. Whilst Neyroud (2011) suggests that the principles of professionalism remained central to the underlying ethos of the police and the conduct of the individual officer, the Home Office (2010) contend that a somewhat checkered history of service delivery at organizational level, coupled with a period of rapid service-wide development and

change during the past two decades, necessitated the modernization of policing as an overall organization (Home Office, 2010). They describe an agenda which focuses upon the restoration of public trust using a new approach to professionalization. Whilst the model of policing introduced by Robert Peel remains necessary conceptually, it was no longer adequate for the complex practical realities of twenty-first century policing. In their Report "Policing for a Better Britain" the Independent Police Commission (IPC, 2013, p. 13) further endorse these sentiments and present a "bold and radical" vision of efficient policing in strained times. They suggest a central aim of service delivery that was to be "professional, democratic, accountable and which served the common good" (IPC, 2013, p. 31). Thus, Robert Peel's principles of policing are to be applied in the creation of a service, which remains faithful to 'Peelian' traditions, but implements them in such a way that they take account of the challenges that "police face today" (IPC, 2013, p. 13).

Neyroud (2011) considers policing to occupy a similar status to other established professions such as law and medicine (Holdaway, 2017). He further identifies systems of education within nursing and medical as the "gold standard for the police to follow" (Lumsden 2017, p. 9). Tong (2017) further observes policing as amongst the last public service to make the transition through professionalization and adopt an accreditation process through higher education level education. Neyroud's vision centres upon the establishment of a service that could become professional at its core, and this was more than simply acting professionally (Neyroud, 2011). Heslop (2011) also observes the distinction between acting professionally as a form of behaviour and being a professional as part of a regulated professional body. The remedy to what has become a bureaucratic culture was, he suggests,

is the transition from a service that intends to act professionally, to a service that was inherently professional as part of its new culture. To this end the transformation of policing into a profession can only be achieved through the establishment of an official regulatory body, overseeing appropriate standards of modern police behavior.

The establishment of the CoP is predicated upon Neyroud's argument that such a governing body would be more effective in the accountability for the setting of police standards, as a single accountable and transparent source. Chief Constables had prior to this enjoyed high levels of autonomy and this resulted in disjointed and overlapping understandings of best policy practice (Holdaway, 2017). Lumsden and Goode (2001, p. 817) observe that the creation of the CoP as the professional policing body, reflects the desire to professionalize policing, central to which is "the mandate to set standards in professional development including codes of practice and regulations to ensure consistency across the 43 forces in England and Wales". Initial work by the CoP also includes the publication of its code of ethics, which is one of the hallmarks of professional bodies and is thus considered to be of both ethical and symbolic importance (Lumsden & Goode, 2018).

In the report Policing for a Better Britain (2013, p. 19), the IPC welcome the creation of the CoP and the notion of the Chartered Police Officer as the "basis for the police profession". They further refer to four essential components to professionalism that the CoP would enable: high expectations, self-regulation, expertise and internalized norms. The development of the CoP as its professional regulating body is regarded as the most pivotal factor in the professionalization of the police service, in which the fundamental principles of Robert Peel's

vision of policing have been re-established at organizational level, reflecting the changing nature of the service within a modern and globalized context (IPC, 2013). A further preoccupation of the CoP is the centrality of Evidence Based Practice (EBP) to professional policing. This is considered in more detail here.

2.4.3 Evidence based practice and the ‘what works?’ agenda

A further role of the CoP is the promotion of an evidence-based approach to practice via the ‘What Works Centre for Crime Reduction’ (WWCCR). There is a commitment to ‘what works’ in police practice, as informed by evidence and research-based enquiry (CoP n.d). Lumsden and Goode (2018) suggest that evidence-based practice (EBP) has thus spread to policing over the past decade despite numerous criticisms from various professions. Controversially, there is now a focus on the privileging of systematic literature reviews and randomized control trials as the gold standard. Hence the modernization agenda is driven by the largely positivistic epistemological assumptions that underpin EBP. Sharman (2005) however, advocates the need for experimental approaches to the generation of research knowledge. These he contends, are associated with positivist methodologies which assist in the avoidance of bias. Lumsden and Goode (2018) point out that this view is understandable to some extent, given the history of poor service and miscarriages of justice and the desire for more robust and efficient practices. What is missing in this assumed superiority of the scientific approach to knowledge though, is an acknowledgement of the context of professional knowledge. Experience is replaced with numerical data, and practice-based wisdom and value-based knowledge are considered inferior forms of knowing. Furthermore, the real danger with the EBP approach is that it is considered not only objective, but politically neutral and fails to acknowledge the political tensions and dynamics at play within the

police and between police and government (Lumsden & Goode, 2018). There are clear parallels here with the discourses identified within the nursing literature, and the historical privileging of the scientific paradigm also associated with evidence-based practice (Freshwater, 2008). Indeed, this view clearly resonates with Schön's (1983, 1987) challenge to technical rationality as superior to tacit forms of professional wisdom and artistry. The acknowledgement of the social and political context in which knowledge is understood referred to here is also key to the concept of critical reflection referred within the nursing and educational literature (Mezirow, 1981; Freshwater, 2000; Bas et al., 2017; Thompson and Thompson, 2017). Indeed Christopher (2015) appears unique within the policing literature in his suggestion that policing has the potential to acknowledge the political and social climate in its development as a global and fast paced profession through systems of critical reflection. Whilst the professionalization of policing appears to be focused upon the generation of objective and science-based research as the underpinning basis for EBP, the concept of reflection is also considered to by the CoP.

2.4.4 Reflection, self-awareness and the CoP

The recognition of reflective practice as a feature of policing practice originates from the development of the previous probationer training programme referred to in chapter one (and my involvement in it as a police educator). This signified a turning point in the philosophy of policing education, in which an inward focus has been replaced with a culture of reflection and a commitment to continued service development as its ultimate outcome (HMIC, 2002). The central recommendations are outlined as follows against four fundamental areas (HMIC, 2002, p .3):

- A culture emphasizing lifelong learning, and modern reflective thinking.
- A national strategy that moved away from in-house training provision. This is to be replaced by community-based educational partnerships with local colleges and universities.
- The setting of national standards for the service for all ranks and roles.

One of the components of professionalism stipulated by the IPC (2013) more recently also includes the requirement for policing to adopt a culture of learning and reflection. This should operate at both an institutional and individual level, referring to the requisite qualities necessary for the chartered professional within the organization, and made specific reference to the essential ability to reflect upon practice. According to the CoP, one of the components of professional practice is a commitment to Continued Professional Development, and whilst there is not a mandatory number of hours stipulated, there is a requirement that police staff will take responsibility for their ongoing development and lifelong learning according to the police regulations 2003 (College of Policing, n.d). The CoP provide a tool kit for ownership of the practitioner's professional development and suggest that it may comprise several activities based around the maintenance of safe ethical, legal and effective practice. This is reflected in their published CPD cycle.



Figure 2.1 Police CPD cycle (College of Policing, n.d).

The CoP advocate the planning of professional development activities using SMART objectives. After any form of action reflection upon performance is necessary, and they describe this as a process of looking back and to both celebrate successful practice and be honest about areas for improvement. This is advocated as central to self-awareness and the need for personal honesty about strengths and weaknesses. Here reflection is associated with self-awareness as it was understood within the nursing literature earlier, however in this context, the emphasis is upon 360° feedback and psychometric testing (College of Policing n.d) rather than mindful practices. The above analysis of the professionalization agenda suggests both the need for EBP and personal reflection for practice development however the relationship between the two is unclear. What is apparent however, is the privileging of scientific knowledge within the current climate of professionalization. The following section considers the debate in policing regarding the synthesis of theory and practice.

2.4.5 Policing degrees; profession or craft? The role of reflection

The CoP educational agenda includes the movement to degree level entry requirements by 2020 (College of Policing, 2015). Rowe, Turner and Pearson (2016) observe the centrality of professionalization and evidence-based practice to the new CoP agenda, particularly in the restoration of public confidence. Whilst the focus may initially appear to be consistent with legitimate and autonomous professional practice, the overall professionalization agenda is for them somewhat confused. All too frequently there is an over simplified association between being a professional and the requirement for a degree, as though professionalism for a police officer will be instantly achieved through the acquisition of the qualification. A number of other commentators' question whether the complex skills required for professional policing could ever be learned through academic learning. Central to this is the tension between the understanding of police work as either a profession or a craft (Rowe et al., 2016). Tong (2017), suggests that there is not always a warm reception for the proposed degree level entry. This is predicated on the arts and crafts approach to police work as a typology in which there is a long-standing privileging of learning by doing. This tradition retains a higher status as the basis for learning according to some individuals and commentators within the service. This is consistent with the broad discourse within the service around the valuing of craft skills such as discretion, judgement and negotiation, which are learned on the job through experience and learned expertise (Tong, 2017). Rowe et al. (2018, p. 282) borrow from Van Maanen (1978) in reinforcing the notion of "learning on the street from personal experience and from colleagues". This tension between learning through practice or theory as potentially competing approaches to practice development is of interest here.

The CoP (2016) describe the new degree level entry to policing which includes three routes:

- Undergraduate pre- joining degree (self-funded)
- Work based apprenticeships
- Conversion programme for degree holders in other subjects

The learning programme bears some similarities to the IDLDP on which I taught the reflective component. Similar to the IPLDP, (as a foundation degree) the apprenticeship degree programme requires the completion of a reflective portfolio. Thus, there is a further requirement for reflective activity. Here reflective practice is therefore the means by which students synthesize education and practice learning through both theory and experience. Again, the nursing and educational literature also widely acknowledges the link between learning and experience and the role of reflection within this process as explored within the previous section (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983; 1987; Kolb, 1984). This does not exclude technical knowledge but rather also acknowledges the role of reflection in bridging the theory practice gap (whether that be personal or intellectual theory). In the next section I consider this in more detail and explore some of the parallels with nursing relating to the value of reflective practice within the new context of professional policing.

2.5 Reflective practice and policing

2.5.1 The adoption of reflective practice.

There is an established acknowledgement of the central role of reflective practice for the provision and delivery of quality effective safe and autonomous practice (Finley, 2008;

Freshwater, 2008; Jacobs, 2016; Johns, 2017; Bass et al., 2017). The embedding of reflective practice within a nursing context is such that it is a mandatory requirement within the nursing codes of conduct The Code (NHS, 2018). Furthermore, there is a consensus that reflective practice is a key component of professionalism (Caldwell and Grobbel, 2013; McDonald, 2013; Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). There are several parallels with some of the more recent developments that I have observed within policing currently and that are documented within the policing literature. The creation of the CoP as the governing body in 2013, is the most significant manifestation of its commitment to the professionalization of the service (Green & Gates, 2014; CoP, 2015, Lumsden, 2017; Holdaway, 2017). Within this is the move to degree level entry requirements, which has been the case within nursing for several years. Policing students will thus be similarly required to engage with reflective activity. The CoP (n.d) also requires police officers to engage with CPD, and central to this they suggest is reflection and self-awareness. The language of reflection and self-awareness is present in both nursing and now policing. Whilst there is an expectation that police practitioners will reflect upon their practice, there are no clear structures for its facilitation or indeed oversight following the initial education programme. Furthermore, the professionalization agenda has also brought forth an emphasis upon evidence-based enquiry as the gold standard of bias free enquiry. There are further parallels here with the history of the privileging of scientific knowledge within nursing also brought about by Project 2000 and the emphasis on evidence-based practice.

The nursing literature, however, widely understands the use of reflective practice for the synthesis of theory and practice and bridging the theory practice gap. Freshwater (2008) refers to nursing as both science and art but suggests that this debate is out of date given

the role of reflective practice in the synthesis of what may appear to be polar opposites (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood). Recent literature within policing debates the changes to the educational arrangements and whether policing skills can be learned through academic study (rather than on the streets). The debates here centre around whether policing is within its identity an art, craft or science, and whether officers learn through doing, or through education (Tong, 2017; Rowe et al., 2016). Much of the educational literature acknowledges that adults learn through practice, but this involved the synthesis of theory and practice via reflection (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983). The new educational arrangements include learning reflective activity as a core element. There is therefore the potential to consider the more widespread use of reflective practice within the policing context for bridging the theory practice gap following the initial educational programme, when understanding policing as both art, craft and science.

Much is written within the nursing literature about the adoption of reflective practice for ongoing learning and professional development and reflection as a reflexive approach centrally bound up with self-awareness (Bleakley, 1999; Bas et al., 2017; Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). Reflection, suggests Johns (2004), is a way of being. Assisted reflection according to his typology of reflection leads to the development of the internal supervisor and thus ongoing reflection as a mindful way of being. Whilst the CoP refer to both reflection and self-awareness, there is little to suggest how either may be successfully achieved following the initial degree programme. There are however a number of strategies within nursing (and indeed many of the welfare professions) for the development of reflective practices such as journal writing, reflective practice groups and clinical supervision. Indeed Freshwater (2008) considers the outcome of reflection and clinical supervision to be reflective practice. I suggest

that there is therefore the potential here to provide an equivalent process to clinical supervision within a policing context in order to explore whether this may allow for the development of ongoing reflective approaches to practice.

2.5.2 The value of reflective practice; changing the culture of

Policing

The policing literature refers to several miscarriages of justice which have historically eroded public confidence in the police and resulted in mistrust (Reiner, 2010; IPC, 2013; Holdaway, 2017). Indeed Reiner (2010) frequently refers to the culture of policing which is reactionary at heart, and there are he suggests ten key characteristics: the need for mission, the love of action, cynicism, pessimism, suspicion of the public, isolation, conservatism, machismo, racial prejudice and pragmatism. Several commentators also identify a tendency towards pragmatism and immediate action (Blakemore & Patterson, 2012; Myhill & Bradford, 2012; Charman, 2017). The process of reform associated with the formation of the CoP, therefore aims to replace the historical culture with one of modern professionalism.

Indeed Neyroud's (2011) vision of modern policing is one that is committed to ongoing service improvement in which policing will be professional, rather than acting professionally. This again bears some similarity to the pace of change within nursing and public failings which lead to the Frances Report (2013). The need for self-aware, responsible practice is thus a professional responsibility in the duty to public safety (The Frances Report, 2013; The Code, 2018; Bostock-Cox, 2015; Timmins, 2015). I consider here whether the development of reflective approaches to practice may allow for the ongoing professionalization

policing at both individual and service wide level, and high standards of safe service received by the public.

The nursing research outlined here, considers the positive effects of reflective practice and clinical supervision in several respects such as increased self-awareness, and mindfulness, often linked to reduced levels of stress and burnout. There is much written about the emotional demands of nursing (White, 2016; Caley, 2017) and the restorative nature of clinical supervision (Proctor, 1986). The stressful and challenging nature of policing is also acknowledged, especially with the increasing expansion of the role and the criminalization of social policy (Millie, 2013; CoP, 2015, Charman, 2017). Indeed Cosgrove (2016) draws upon seminal work by Skolnicks (1966) which suggests that the ongoing exposure to danger coupled with high levels of power and authority inherent within the role, draws the police together for self-protection, given that they can never be certain who they can trust. Charman (2017) reinforces this view by suggesting that the core work of the policing in the detection of crime has historically led to a culture which is suspicious of the public in general.

Both policing and nursing are understood to be complex fast paced, and requiring complex decision making (Christopher, 2015). Discretion is increasingly acknowledged as a feature of policing work (CoP, 2015; Charman, 2017; Tong, 2017). So far, a research project has yet to take place which explores the adoption of reflective practice as a way of being and its effects for not only high-quality service delivery as identified above, but for managing the stresses and challenges of modern practice.

Thus, the potential for the adoption of reflective practices as an ongoing approach to professional police practice throughout the service, coupled with an exploration of its value for both individual and service wide professional development, presents a unique research opportunity, and underpins the aims of this research

2.6 Reminder of the research aims

This cases study research considers police officers' experience of a process of clinical supervision, referred to in a policing context as reflective time-out (the equivalent of clinical supervision in a nursing context) in relation to the following aims:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has considered the literature relating to reflective practice from both a nursing and a police context. It began with some of the definitions of reflective practice and then gave a more detailed account of concepts of critical reflection, reflexivity, mindfulness and

self-awareness, bringing in cognition, emotion and action. This led to an exploration of its association with professionalism and high standards of professional practice.

This chapter has suggested that policing as it stands now is undergoing the process of professionalization which historically took place within nursing. Whilst reflective practice is referred to, there is little within the profession so far which suggests how it may be more comprehensively adopted. Indeed, there is if anything a focus upon positivistic notions of randomized controlled trials and evidence-based practice which have also historically been privileged within nursing. Nursing's much more entrenched adoption of reflective practice as a key feature of professionalism presents an opportunity for policing and thus the potential for the adoption of reflective practice and its value for the professional development of the service is the focus of this research thesis.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter I provide details of the research strategy and methods used to address the aims of the study. As outlined in chapter one, the theoretical framework for the research included a case study design. This was located within a qualitative, interpretivist, reflexive approach to research, consistent with a constructivist ontological and interpretivist epistemological position, underpinned by a postmodern critical lens (Bryman, 2012). Given the complex and deeply personal experience of each individual process of clinical supervision, it was considered essential to use a research approach that allowed for an exploration of complex meanings and subjective experience (Creswell, 2013). I defend the decision to adopt a qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive approach throughout the research. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches to a research enquiry have inherent within them a series of underlying assumptions regarding the researcher's theoretical stance towards the nature of external truth and the possibilities or indeed limits of what can be known about the world through research enquiry (Gray, 2014). An account of the ontological and epistemological position associated within a qualitative research approach is therefore also provided. A justification for a case study strategy will subsequently be made and details of the methods of data collection and analysis will be outlined.

Prior to this, the reader is reminded of the research aims:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

This research project sought to consider the benefits of reflective practice, as provided via reflective timeout sessions, for the professional practice of police officers. The reflective timeout sessions were based upon the principles of reflective practice as they are understood within a nursing context.

3.2 A qualitative research paradigm

A qualitative approach was chosen to be most appropriate for this research. Corbin and Strauss (1990, p. 17) refer to qualitative research as:

The kind of research that produces findings that are not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of qualification. It can refer to research about persons lives, stories, behavior, but also about organizational functioning, social movements or interactional relationship.

Braun and Clarke (2013) further suggest that the key distinguishing feature of qualitative research was its focus upon meanings. It allows, they suggest, the messiness of real-life subjectivity and experience to be examined in an organized way by providing an ordered framework for such meanings to be examined. The central concern is with the understanding of complex phenomena within the specific social context in which they existed, rather than the objective measurement of variables (Mayut & Morehouse, 1994). Dunne, Pryor and Yates (2005) suggest that the distinction between qualitative and quantitative approaches within social research is underpinned by the positivist notion that not only did observable truths exist, but their measurement could be achieved through scientific enquiry. Conversely, qualitative research is rooted in the postmodern skepticism regarding singular truths and understands the social world as complex, ever changing and interpretive. It is the pursuit of understanding individual meaning and context, through discourse or conversation that becomes the qualitative researcher's preoccupation.

A defining feature of qualitative research is the generation of data that can only be understood within the particular context in which it is experienced by the participants (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Unlike quantitative research which may aim to arrive at objective and unbiased knowledge, the qualitative researcher must acknowledge the subjective nature of the participants' understanding of a given concept. They must aim to incorporate such notions of individual experience, context and subjectivity into the analysis of the data produced from the research. It is due to the real-world nature of this research thesis, and the personal and subjective nature of participants' experience thoughts and feelings and reflections as the

subject for exploration, that a qualitative approach to the research was deemed to be the most appropriate.

3.2.1 Theoretical underpinnings

Creswell (2013) refers to the philosophical assumptions that underpin the research process as a set of beliefs or paradigms. These can be broadly understood as the ontological and epistemological position adopted by the researcher. Ontology refers to the series of debates regarding the nature of reality, and the relationship between individuals and the external world (Bryman, 2012). The ontological position of the researcher determines his or her stance on what it is to be, and whether there is an external and objective reality that exists independently from the observer that can be understood through impartial observation. Such “mind independent” truths are consistent with the realist doctrine of thought which underpins quantitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 27). Qualitative research however is based upon a relativist ontology in which there are multiple constructed realities based upon human interpretation of the social world (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Gray, 2014).

This research study employed a qualitative approach which was underpinned by a relativist, interpretivist epistemology, and drew heavily upon the principles of constructionism within qualitative research as its ontological position (Creswell, 2013). Bryman (2012) describes the constructionist approach to research as one that acknowledges the subjective nature of personal truth. Meanings are created through social interaction rather than through the discovery of objective facts that exist independently of social actors, and that can be observed impartially through the research process. Rather, the researcher aims to understand the

subjective experience of the participant and how complex and individual meanings are constructed.

3.3 Ensuring rigour in qualitative research; a reflexive approach

A reflexive approach was adopted throughout this research as a strategy for the generation of knowledge (Berger, 2015). Reflexivity is widely acknowledged to be a central feature of qualitative research (Kotch & Harrington, 1998; Freshwater, 2004; Freshwater, 2008; Taylor, 2008; Forbes, 2008; Berger, 2015). Gray (2014) highlights the need for a reflexive approach to any research undertaking, which should include an acknowledgment of the potential implications of methodological decisions for the outcomes of the research enquiry. There are inevitable consequences associated with the quest for subjective interpretations of the social world which are generally associated with qualitative research. It is acknowledged that the researcher belongs to the reality in which the research takes place, and as a result can never fully be an impartial observer of a social context (Gray, 2014). Indeed, Finley (2003) refers to the importance of personal reflexivity in qualitative research as a challenge to privileging objectivity. Here, the presence of the researcher is transformed from a problem into opportunity (Finley, 2003). Berger (2015, p. 220), highlights the crucial nature of reflexivity in knowledge generation and the establishment of rigour and states:

Researchers need to increasingly focus on self-knowledge and sensitivity; better understand the role of the self in the creation of knowledge; carefully self-monitor the impact of their biases, beliefs, and personal experiences on their research; and maintain the balance between the personal and the universal.

She further states “Questions about reflexivity are part of a broader debate about ontological, epistemological and axiological components of the self, intersubjectivity and the colonization of knowledge” (Berger, 2015, p. 220). The significance of the self and notions of self-awareness are reinforced by the nature of this research and the focus upon the ontology of being a reflective practitioner, considered within the literature. Taylor (2008) further refers to the recognition of the link between research and reflection in relation to ways of thinking and knowing and suggest “Reflection is fundamental to research, because thinking is fundamental to human life and enquiry” (Taylor, 1998, p. 43). Koch and Harrington (1998, p. 882) also state “We suggest that reflexive research is characterized by ongoing self-critique and self-appraisal and that the research product can be given shape by the politics of location and positioning”. I therefore acknowledge the need for a reflexive approach and its significance within a research project in which reflection and the self is the focus. I provide my own reflections upon the epistemological and methodological decisions made as a reflexive account throughout the research. This was intended to enhance rigour and consistency between the topic researched and the approach to the research process. When ensuring rigour within qualitative research, Koch and Harrington (1998, p. 822) further state:

Finally, we claim that if the research product is well signposted, the readers will be able to travel easily through the worlds of the participants and makers of the text (the researchers) and decide for themselves whether the text is believable or plausible (our terms for rigour).

Thus, I provide an account of the decisions I have made throughout this research and my presence as researcher in the generation of knowledge but invite the reader to draw their own conclusion about their plausibility. In the following section I consider the terminology used within qualitative research and argue that notions of rigour are more helpfully understood within the language of trustworthiness.

3.3.1 Trustworthiness

Whilst I present an argument for the suitability of a qualitative approach, Hamersley (1995) observes the historical privileging of a positivist epistemology in which methods of the natural sciences are imposed upon social phenomena, so that they are assumed to be valid; as such quantitative measurements and statistical outcomes have historically been afforded scientific superiority (Hamersley, 1995). Koch and Harrington (1998) provide further support, observing the dominance of the positivist paradigm in traditional research and the emphasis placed upon objectivity, in which the researcher adopts the position of an impartial and detached observer. Corbin and Strauss (2008) question the preoccupation with objectivity and concede that whilst this can only be a myth within qualitative data analysis, this is not in itself problematic. Instead, sensitivity and trustworthiness become the focus, rather than the quest for objectivity. Therefore, the researcher is regarded as having the necessary insight to respond to the data and extract relevant issues from it as a legitimate form of enquiry. Shenton (2004) earlier acknowledged the language of trustworthiness within qualitative research but observed cynicism amongst positivists as to whether this can be achieved. This, he suggested, may be due to an inability to suitably tackle concepts of validity and reliability in the same way as naturalistic research. Measures, however, may

be taken to address these issues and ensure rigour, including the adoption of alternative terminology which distances qualitative enquiry from the positivist paradigm. Shenton (2004) refers to Guba (1981) when advocating four criteria associated with the quest for trustworthy studies. Table 3.1 identifies the four elements associated with quantitative rigour, and the four alternative terms used within this research to ensure equivalent notions of robustness, using the qualitative language of trustworthiness. Thus, the quantitative language of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity may be replaced by qualitative principles of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. A brief description of each is provided in the table.

Table 3.1 Comparison between quantitative and qualitative terminology

Quantitative terminology of rigour	Alternative qualitative terminology of trustworthiness	Description
Internal validity	Credibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparable process to internal validity in quantitative research in which the researcher aims to ensure the measurement and testing of what is actually intended. • Qualitative enquiry considers how consistent the findings are with Reality. • Credibility is considered one of the key factors in establishing trustworthiness.
External validity/ generalizability	Transferability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The extent to which the reader can transfer the findings from the current study to other contexts and situations that they are more familiar with.

Reliability	Dependability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dependability is comparable to reliability in quantitative research. • Closely associated with credibility. • Involves the reader's assessment of the appropriateness processes of data collection and analysis for the quality of the research outcomes.
Objectivity	Confirmability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparable concern to objectivity within qualitative research. • Equivalent process which is concerned with ensuring that the findings reflect the opinions and experiences of the participant rather than preferences of the researcher. • Less concerned with attempting to establish an objective reality as is the aim of quantitative research.

Table 3.2 summarizes the measures which may assist in the maximization of trustworthiness as postulated by Shenton (2004, p. 73) and the specific measures that were taken in this research.

Table 3.2 Summary of measures to ensure trustworthiness

Quality criterion	Possible provisions made by the researcher	Summary of measures implemented within this research
Credibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adoption of appropriate and recognized research methods • Triangulation through the implementation of different methods and a variety of participants • Debriefing sessions between researcher and supervisor • Use of a reflective commentary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The research design was discussed at length during doctoral supervision sessions with research supervisors. • A detailed description and rationale for the research approach, methodology and methods have been provided within this methodology chapter. Decisions were based upon continuous discussion, reflection and academic reading. • A triangulated methodology was utilized and has been justified within the methodology chapter. This is also consistent with Stake (1995) who advocates a rich and varied approach to case study data including multiple sources. • Reflective discussions took place with the researcher's supervisors during the planning of the research, the period of supervision with participants and the data analysis phase of the research • Reflection was a continuous process during the research design and data analysis. A reflective diary was kept throughout the research process. This took the form of a written diary and thus

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of the background, qualifications and experience of the researcher 	<p>thoughts, feelings and personal reflections were recorded. This took place during the planning of the research, during both phases of the data collection process (including during the period of supervision), and during the data analysis.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The rationale for the research was described in the introductory chapter, which included an outline of my twenty-five-year experience of clinical supervision as both a nurse, teacher of reflective practice to police students and author of a book on the topic.
Transferability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of background context and detailed outline of the issue in question so that comparisons can be made 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A detailed description of the inspiration for the study was provided within the introductory chapter. The literature review outlined the existing literature and identified the research gap,
Dependability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detailed description of the methodology to facilitate replication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full details of the research methodology have been provided within this chapter, supported by extensive literature. Further details are provided below of alternative methodological decisions considered during the period of research design and the rationale for discounting them.

Confirmability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Triangulation to minimize researcher bias • Identification of the researcher's beliefs • A recognition of the shortcomings within the research methodology and the potential implications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As above. • A reflexive approach was adopted throughout the research. • This will be addressed in the limitations section of the conclusion.
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3.4 Real world research

In addition to the decision to adopt a qualitative approach for this research, I located it within the context of applied research. Gray (2014) makes the distinction between applied and basic research activity. Any research endeavour, he suggests, is fundamentally characterized by a strategic and systematic attempt to explore potential solutions to an identified problem. Basic research has, as its central concern the clarification or generation of theory and the development of universal principles regarding a particular subject area. Applied research, conversely, adopts a practical approach to solving real world problems and emphasizes measurable outcomes in the context of a specific society, community or organization. The findings therefore may be relevant within a specific context, but less generalizable to other situations or groups. This deviates markedly from the central tenets of basic research, which is concerned with the development of general principles that may be universally applied. Table 3.3 provides an overview of the key purposes of both basic and applied research, as summarized by Gray (2014, p. 3).

Table 3.3 Summary of basic and applied research

Basic research	Applied research
Key purpose	Key purpose
Expand knowledge of social or organizational processes	Improve understanding of specific social organizational problems
Develop universal principles	Create solutions to social organizational problems
Provide findings of value and significance to society	Develop findings of practical relevance to public and all institutional stakeholders

The desire to retain my links with professional practice has remained at the centre of my identity as both a nurse and academic and was a key factor in my decision to undertake a professional doctorate rather than a traditional PhD. As I described in chapter one, the inspiration for this research developed organically from my own professional experience of teaching reflective practice within a policing context, and its potential value for enhancing professionalism within police service more broadly. I considered this to be an opportunity to contribute findings that were of practical value to the policing organization for the improvement of service provision. Due to the 'practical relevance' of this enquiry and its intention to make a positive difference to practice within a real-world context, I considered this research to be firmly located within the applied category.

3.5 Methodological decisions

Significant consideration was given to the development of the research design; a reflexive approach was adopted throughout the process which included detailed discussions during the doctoral supervision process with my supervisors, personal reflections and extensive academic reading. I acknowledge that as a novice researcher my own knowledge developed on the job, and over a significant period, and this was often a very steep learning curve for me. This required a significant expansion of my own knowledge base and this was both enlightening and at times anxiety provoking. Much of my learning therefore related to the development of confidence in my own research decisions. This was assisted by increasing my own understanding of the methodological tools available within qualitative research, and the academic debates regarding their suitability for specific types of enquiry. There was a growing recognition throughout the research process that my methodological decisions were not necessarily right or wrong but could be chosen on the basis of what was felt to be most appropriate once an understanding of them had been established. Whilst a case study design with thematic analysis was implemented within this thesis, several alternatives were initially considered.

3.5.1 The decision to use thematic analysis

My research experience involved the use of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994) as both an undergraduate and Masters level student. Such an inductive approach to the emergence of new knowledge is considered particularly useful with under researched phenomena of which little is already known (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Given the uniqueness of this research study, grounded theory was initially considered. Its central preoccupation however is the development of a consistent theory regarding the research phenomena (Bryman, 2012). The dilemma about its use within this study centred on the concern with the generation of theory. Whilst Gray (2014) highlights this as an advantage for the generation of robust and plausible understandings of a given phenomenon, Braun and Clarke (2013) point out its potentially restrictive nature. Thematic analysis, conversely, is a method concerned with “identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns within the data” (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 81). To this end, one of its major benefits is its flexibility. It was therefore concluded that the implementation of clinical supervision as an intervention should be regarded as the case, and thematic analysis would allow for a more flexible exploration of multiple and complex impressions of it as a process than the quest for a coherent theory. It was on this basis that a case study method with thematic analysis was employed.

3.5.2 Considering evaluation research

Because the purpose of this research was to examine the experience of reflective activity, and this was provided via clinical supervision (referred to as reflective timeout) as an intervention, initial discussions considered the nature of the research as being potentially an example of an evaluation research strategy. Gray (2014) refers to an interest in the use of evaluative research for the assessment of specific interventions such as a new programme or policy which dates to the 1970s. There has, he suggests, been a historical focus upon the evaluation of training and professional development programmes. Given the nature of this research, it may therefore have been considered a form of evaluation of a similar type of developmental programme. Gray (2014), however, refers to the nature of evaluation programmes as being concerned with the desire for specific forms of improvement and change. The process of evaluation therefore aims to measure outputs and the desired results brought about by an intervention designed to elicit that effect. I felt that this did not sit comfortably with this research, which aimed to explore the participants' impressions of the process, rather than measure any predicted outcomes, and therefore did not include any prescribed or predicted effects. To this end it remained my firm belief that whilst there would undoubtedly be an evaluative element to the research, a case study with thematic analysis of participants' views remained the most appropriate design for the research.

3.6 Case study design

Whilst a variety of types of qualitative research were considered, including evaluation research or grounded theory, I defend the choice for the case study approach here. Whilst Punch (2005, p.144) refers to the nature of case study as an analysis in which “one case (or perhaps a small number of cases) will be studied using whatever methods seem appropriate” Bryman (2012) suggests that the key concern with any case study research is the detailed and intense examination of a single case in a setting, phenomenon or situation. This may include an event, a culture, an organization or an institution. Given the detailed nature of the enquiry and its propensity for yielding in-depth understandings, case study research is most often (although not always) associated with qualitative research. The value of case studies in the provision of a detailed understanding of an issue, situation or problem, using a specific ‘case’ as a unit of measurement has also been investigated by Creswell (2013), who suggests that case studies serve as an examination of a particular case within a real-life, contemporary context or setting. As outlined earlier, this research is both qualitative and applied, due to its focus upon issues relating to real world practice within the police service. To this end, case study research was considered to be relevant to, and consistent with both.

The practical approach to case study design is one which must also be considered here and whilst there are many theorists who offer suggestions, the works of Yin (2014) and Stake (1995), who are arguably two of the most influential theorists in case study design, were used as the basis for the case study design within this research.

Yin (2009, p. 13) defines a case as something that “investigates a contemporary phenomenon in its real-world context”. As stated from the outset of the chapter, the research study was considered to be an example of applied rather than basic research (Gray, 2014) and rooted within the context of real-world enquiry. Given the applied and contextual focus of the case study, a case study design was considered a highly appropriate design for this research.

3.6.1 A single embedded case study; a ‘case’ or ‘cases’?

Yin (2014) suggests that case study research begins by identifying what is the case as the unit of analysis. Studies may include single or multiple cases, and may be categorized as one of four different types of case study designs as follows:

3.6.1.1 Holistic case study design

One single case is identified and examined in its entirety as the single unit of analysis.

3.6.1.2 Holistic embedded case study design

This considers one overall single case, however within it there are multiple units of analysis. Yin (2014) provides the example of a single organization in which a practice or policy is to be investigated. This may for example include multiple sources of data such as the opinions of several members of staff.

3.6.1.3 Multiple holistic case study design

Many cases, as multiple experiments, are selected as separate units of analysis.

3.6.1.4 Multiple embedded case study design

Multiple cases are selected as separate experiments, and within each case there may be many additional embedded units of analysis. Yin (2012) provides the further example of a number of hospitals being observed as multiple cases, and within each, a series of members of staff may be interviewed as embedded elements. Figure 3.1 provides a visual representation of the four types of case study design.

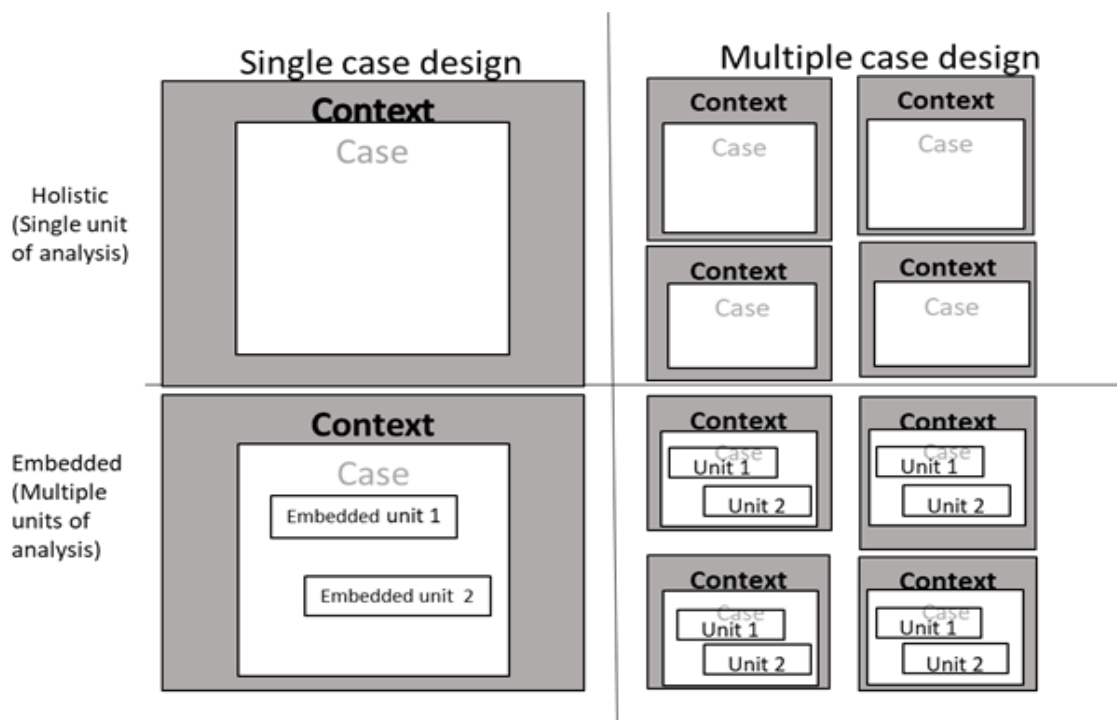


Figure 3.1 Diagram of case study designs

Reflective activity via reflective timeout for five police participants, all of whom were recruited from a single organization in the north of England, was used for data collection. The decision centred on whether to regard each participant as a separate case, and thus consider the research as a multiple case study design. After much consideration, I decided to classify the implementation of reflective activity within the organization as the case, and each police participant as an embedded element. The rationale for this was based largely upon the work of Stake (1995) who considers effective case study research to be the investigation of a bounded case or cases, using as many rich, multiple sources of data as possible. It was concluded that the use of each participant as a separate case may potentially fragment the research findings, whereas the analysis of the process of reflective practice within the organization as the case, allowed for a much broader and fuller analysis from a range of participants' perspectives, as embedded examples, within the overall case. Yin (2014) further identifies that the analysis of case studies may be within case or across case. Single or holistic cases, with a single unit of analysis, analyze data within the case, whereas embedded or multiple embedded cases, consider the data across multiple units. To meet the research aims and objectives, a holistic embedded case study design with cross case analysis was used.

3.6. 2 Exploratory case studies

There are three possible purposes for a case study, which may be descriptive, explanatory or exploratory (Yin, 2014). Descriptive studies, he suggests, generally provide a descriptive picture of phenomena and describe 'what' occurred. Furthermore, Gray (2014) provides the

example of a descriptive study regarding rates of crime amongst 16-21-year olds as an example of their possible use but points out their weakness for explaining 'why' a situation or phenomenon has occurred. Explanatory case studies, however, seek to explain the reasons for the phenomenon rather than simply providing a description of it. The question therefore becomes "how and why" rather than simply what (Yin, 2012, p. 89). Exploratory case studies aim to examine and explore a phenomenon or occurrence and ask questions about it.

This research aimed to understand the experience of police officers who undertook reflective activity in the form of clinical supervision, and their personal impressions of it as a potential aid to professional practice. It was contended that the study had elements of description and explanation but was, to the largest extent, exploratory in nature; exploratory case studies are particularly useful when little is known about a situation or phenomenon (Gray, 2014). Given that a study of this kind which examined the use of reflective activity with policing staff had never previously taken place, I felt that a focus on exploration was further justified.

3.7 Conducting the research; research methods

3.7. 1 Participant inclusion and exclusion criteria

As chapter one suggests, the enthusiasm for the research project developed from my experience of teaching reflective activity to probationer police staff. Although this formed the basis for the research, it must be emphasized that participation was not restricted to staff who had been previously taught reflective practice during the foundation degree programme. Rather, my previous experience inspired a general enquiry regarding the potential

utility of this activity for policing more broadly, and to this end, police officers with or without previous experience of reflective activity were invited to take part. Of all the participants who took part in the research, only two had formal previous experience.

Participants were selected from the participating police force for which permission had been granted. This was based within the north of England. According to both purposive and convenience principles, participants were selected for the following reasons:

- As identified in chapter one, there was, both historically and currently, an established and ongoing relationship between the host university and the particular police force chosen.
- On a pragmatic basis, it was considered that engagement with a local police force may limit the resource implications for the researcher and participants, in terms of overall expenses and time required for participation.

The inclusion and exclusion criteria were stated as:

Table 3. 4 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Participant inclusion criteria	Participant exclusion criteria
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Police officers. • Male and female participants. • In service staff (pre-retirement) of all ages. • Staff from the participating police force. • Senior police staff above officer level. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Those unable to commit to the full six-month supervision process.

3.7.2 The research sample

3.7.2.1 A non-probability, purposive sample

A non-probability, purposive sample was utilized for the research study. Bryman (2012) refers to the conventional use of probability and non-probability sampling for quantitative and qualitative research respectively. Quantitative research generally employs a probability approach in which a sample that represents the research population as broadly and unbiasedly as possible is sought through random methods of selection. Qualitative research, often utilizes non-probability methods in which random selections have not been used, and thus specific units of the population are more likely than others to be selected (Bryman, 2012). Whilst there are many non-probability approaches, Gray (2014) refers to purposive sampling as a distinguishing feature of qualitative research, in which small samples or individual cases are purposefully chosen on the basis that they hold information which is specific to the research enquiry, and which could not be gleaned from any other sources.

Since the research aimed to explore the specific experiences of police professionals, within a qualitative approach, random sampling would not have been appropriate. Rather, specific types of participants were selected according to the principles of non-probability sampling. This decision was based on the participants' status as police officers. In keeping with a purposive approach, these types of professional insights could only be gained from this target group.

3.7.2.2 Sample size

It was originally intended that reflective timeout would be provided for six police officer participants, ideally three of which would be male and three females. A sample of six remained consistent with the principles of a case study design as espoused by Yin (2012). This is further supported by Gray (2014) who suggests that whilst there is no ideal number of cases or participants, between four and ten is generally regarded as a suitable number within case study research. Fewer than four cases may cause difficulties generating themes with an effective level of depth and complexity. More than ten, conversely, may cause the volume of data to become unmanageable and overwhelming.

My first request for volunteers yielded five male participants. A further email request resulted in six more police staff volunteering. Given the exclusive nature of the male representation at this stage, a female was recruited from the second round of volunteers to provide a gender mix. The final sample consisted of six participants, five male and one female. Two male participants, however, subsequently decided not to participate due to time constraints, and one further male and female were recruited from the reserve list. One male recruit withdrew from the study after two sessions leaving five participants. The final sample comprised five participants, three of whom were male and two females.

3.7.2.3 Sample description

The tables below provide more detailed description of the participants however in order to avoid compromising anonymity, the information is presented randomly, and does not relate to the participants in 1- 5 order as they are described within the findings.

Table 3.5 Details of participating police officers

Description	Participant	Participant	Participant	Participant	Participant
Gender	F	F	M	M	M
Age range	40-50	50-60	30-40	40-50	40-50
Rank	Sergeant	Officer	Officer	Sergeant	Inspector
Job area	Analysis	Youth work	Community	Community	Operations
Previous experience of being taught reflection	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Years policing experience	10 +	20 +	5 -10	5-10	20 +

Table 3.6 Details of participating line managers

Description	Line manager	Line manager	Line manager
Gender	F	M	M
Age range	40-50	40-50	30-40
Rank	Sergeant	Sergeant	Inspector
Job area	Community	Youth work	Operations
Previous experience of being taught reflection	No	No	Yes
Years policing experience	10 +	10+	10- 15

3.7.3 Data collection

The range of methods for data collection within a case study research design are multiple and varied (Gray, 2014). Punch (2005) suggests that case study research may employ a diverse range of techniques depending upon what is appropriate within each research situation. Furthermore, Stake (1995) proposes that effective case study research draws upon a range of sources that is as broad and rich as possible. Gray (2014) argues that the implementation of multiple data gathering tools improves the reliability of the research. Reliability, he suggests, refers to the stability of the findings, and this is usually improved by the implementation of triangulated methods of data collection. Triangulation can be defined as “the use of more than one method or source of data in the study of social phenomena so that findings may be cross checked” (Bryman, 2012, p.717). Denzin (1989) identifies four types of triangulation as follows:

- *Data triangulation*

Multiple sampling strategies are used to collect data. This may include, for example, multiple time periods, multiple locations and multiple levels within the organisation.

- *Investigator triangulation*

This includes the use of multiple observers.

- *Multiple triangulation*

This gathers multiple methods, observers and types of data.

- *Methodological triangulation*

This may either be within method or between method. The former utilizes techniques for data gathering within the same methodological approach; the latter employs techniques from both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

3.7.3.1 Multiple, Methodological (within-method) Triangulation

This research used multiple sources of data collection within a qualitative approach and as such constituted a mixture of multiple and methodological triangulation.

3.7.3.2 Data collection tools

To generate as many perspectives and sources of data as possible, two data collection tools were utilized for this research as follows:

Phase 1: Participant semi-structured interviews: post supervision.

Phase 2: Line manager semi-structured interviews: post supervision.

3.7.3.3 Phase 1

3.7.3.3.1 Reflective timeout as an intervention

Each participant was provided with guided reflective activity which took the form of six, one-hour sessions of guided reflection. These took place once per month over a six-month period and were based upon the principles of reflective practice as I had experienced it in nursing. I felt however that the term 'reflective timeout' would make more sense to police

participants and I therefore adopted this as a name for the sessions following the research. All the interviews and reflective timeout sessions with participants were facilitated by the researcher. The reflective timeout sessions were provided for participants as a method of providing structured reflection to police staff rather than being utilized as a data source. The sessions were confidential in nature (except for any disclosures in which malpractice may have been identified or suspected) and therefore were not recorded, collected as data or analyzed. The supervision sessions were therefore merely a tool to aid reflection and did not form part of the analysis. I maintained a reflective diary however during the process. This documented my own thoughts, feelings and observations and I include these reflections with the research findings in chapter four. A full rationale for the decision not to use the reflective sessions as a data source is provided in section 3.9.1.

3.7.3.3.2 Participant semi-structured interview; post supervision

Following the period of reflective timeout, semi-structured interviews were undertaken with participants. Given the personal nature of reflection and indeed some areas of professional practice, in depth interviews were considered an appropriate form of enquiry to examine and probe subjective experiences (Denscombe, 2007). Yin (1994, p. 84) refers to interviews as “an essential source of case study information”. He further acknowledges that in the pursuit of a contextual understanding of practical experience, direct or participant observation within the field can be advantageous. It was for this reason that this was, initially, considered. However, due to the highly sensitive and specialized nature of policing activity, this kind of observation was considered inappropriate, since the emphasis was upon how practice de-

cisions were made, and the levels of reflection involved within the process of decision making. This could only be explained by the individual according to their own perspective, rather than by the observation of action-based practice in which the rationale for behaviours cannot immediately be elicited. In relation to the benefits of qualitative interviews, Arksey and Knight (1999, p. 32) state “Interviewing is a powerful way of helping people to make explicit things that have hitherto been implicit, to articulate their tacit perceptions, feelings and understandings”. Bryman (2012) further suggests that semi-structured interviews are particularly useful for a fuller exploration of participants’ views.

Each participant was interviewed for approximately one hour following completion of the six-month reflective timeout period. The length of each recorded interview varied from 45 minutes as the shortest, to 60 minutes as the longest. Interviews were recorded on a standard recording device and were transcribed by the researcher prior to analysis. Recorded audio interviews and transcriptions were securely stored on an encrypted memory stick and moved to the university secure server. It is noted that European Union General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR) came into force in 2018 (Information Commissioners Office, 2018) and therefore did not apply at the time of the research.

3.7.3.4 Phase 2

3.7.3.4.1 Line manager semi-structured interviews; post supervision

After the recruitment process, with the permission of each participant, their respective line managers were approached, and an information sheet was sent (see appendix 7). Line

managers were not provided with clinical supervision as part of the research, nor did they provide supervision for the participants. Each was requested to take part in what was intended to be a focus group interview, which would take place after all the participants had completed the process of clinical supervision. This was made part of the research design to discuss any observed changes to the working practices of their staff, and thus provide an additional perspective on the potential value of reflective activity for participants from the line managers' perspective. This sought to provide a richer data set and was consistent with the quest for multiple sources of data, as advocated by Stake (1995).

It was noted that there was potential for the police officer participants to feel that their performance was being appraised by line managers and thus it was made clear to participants, during the consent process, that line manager involvement would consist of more general discussions about trends in observed changes to the professional practice of the officer, rather than constituting a critique of their work, which may be more associated with an appraisal process.

Line managers were invited to the focus group following completion of phase 1 (completion of supervision sessions and interview with the police officers). Due to long term sickness and change of job, two managers were unable to participate. Of the three remaining line managers, one requested to be interviewed separately rather than as part of a focus group, as it was felt that the line manager would be more confident discussing what might be confidential issues relating to the staff member. Due to both factors, it was considered more

appropriate to undertake individual interviews with each of the three remaining line managers. Phase 2 of the data collection therefore consisted of semi-structured interviews of a maximum of one hour each (see appendix 8 for interview schedule) with the three remaining line managers. The three interviews with line managers were 35, 45 and 50 minutes in length. The reader is offered a reminder of the data collection process in diagram form here.

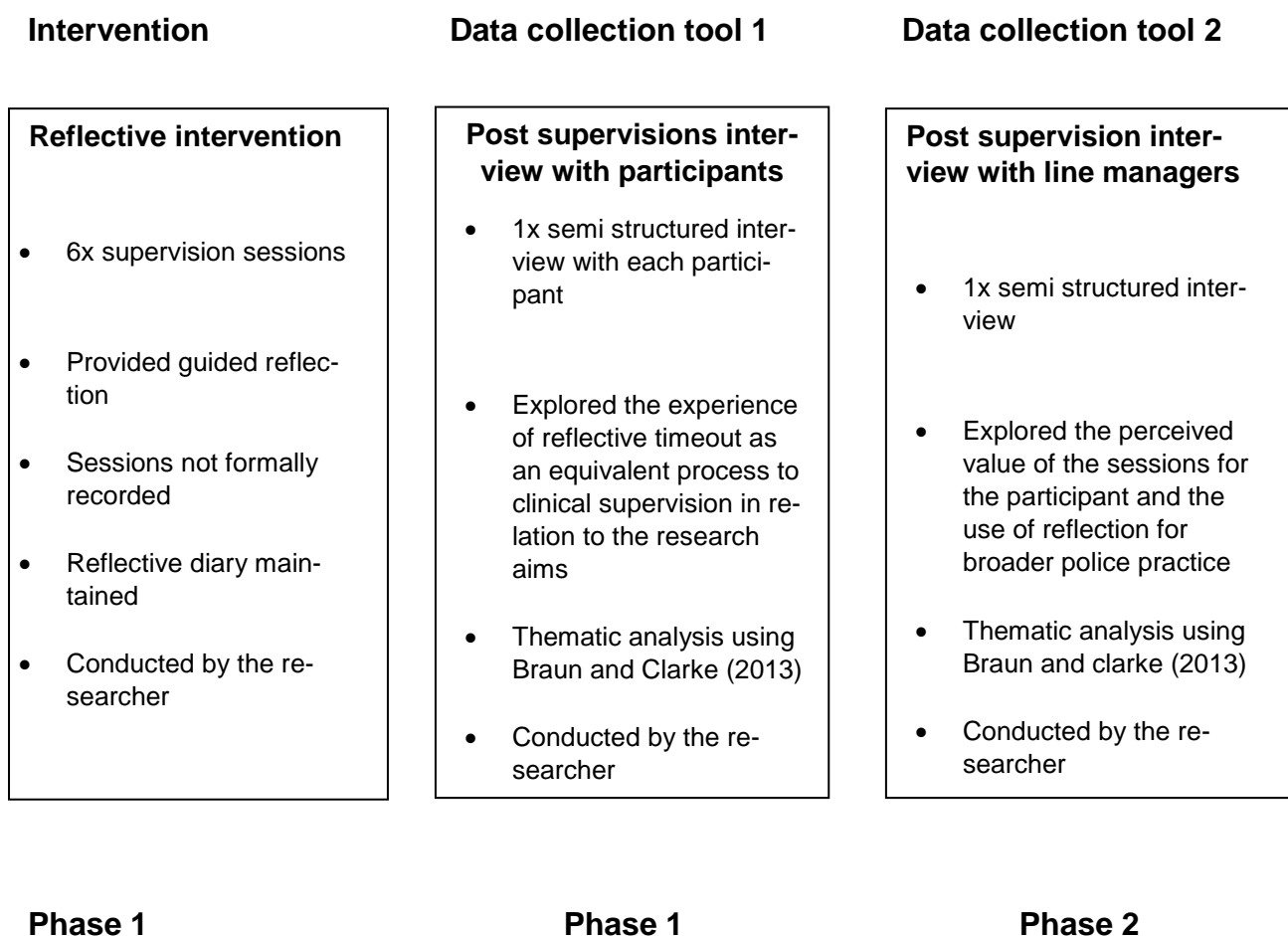


Figure 3.2 Diagram of the data collection process

3.7.3.5 Interview schedules

Prior to the start of the reflective timeout period I met with each of the participants. This meeting served several functions. The research process was explained, and participants were offered the opportunity to ask questions. Consent forms were also distributed and completed by the participants (see appendix 1). It was intended that that the meeting would begin the process of building rapport and a trusting relationship between myself and the participants. The reflective timeout contract was also discussed and agreed. During the meeting participants completed an initial questionnaire which was used to inform the schedule for interviews (see appendix 2). This explored existing understandings and previous experience of reflection and reflective practice and aimed to reflect the research aims for this research. This was designed and undertaken in order to form the basis for the interview schedule (see appendix 3). An initial draft of the interview schedule was discussed with my supervisors during doctoral supervision, from this a pilot interview schedule was produced. This was reviewed by two colleagues, one a fellow lecturer on the IPLDP (and retired police officer) and a female lecturer suggested by my supervisors from a different department. Feedback from both individuals regarding clarity of the questions was received. Content specific advice was offered by the retired police officer who had an extensive knowledge of the inclusion of reflection within the curriculum for the IPLDP. The final interview schedule was constructed using this feedback and the initial questionnaire and was discussed during doctoral supervision to ensure that the nature of the questions reflected the aims of the research project. This initial meeting also allowed for a discussion about the contract and the roles and responsibilities of the supervisor and supervisee throughout the process.

3.8 Ethical considerations

The research required careful consideration of the ethical principles associated with real world research. Gray (2014, p. 68) refers to the overall ethical principles of a study as “the moral principles guiding research”. This, he suggests, requires the research to be undertaken in such a way that it considers more than merely the most appropriate methodological approach, but rather takes a responsible approach to conducting proceedings in a morally defensible way. Behavioural and methodological choices reflect the desire to protect and maintain the safety of those involved in it. Gray (2014) further suggests that ethical principles can be categorized according to 4 central aims:

- The avoidance of participant harm.
- The maintenance of participant privacy.
- The avoidance of deception.
- The securing of informed participant consent.

Punch (2005, p. 277) earlier identified five areas of concern; consent, deception, privacy, confidentiality of data and harm. These are considered in more detail here in turn.

3.8.1 Consent: Permission for study

The process of obtaining access to any organization is inherently political, as identified by Bryman (2012, p. 85). He suggests that permission to undertake any given research will be mediated by an individual or individuals, usually referred to as a “gatekeeper” who has the authority to grant both permission for the study and access to the environment. Such deci-

sions, he suggests, will be centrally bound up with concerns about the motive of the researcher and what may be gained or lost by the investigation. To this end, the gatekeeper may seek to influence the boundaries of the research process, including the focus of the study, due to understandable concerns about how the organization may be represented. The process of access is one which is underpinned by internal (or indeed external) political forces, and generally requires a process of negotiation between establishment and researcher. The outcomes of such negotiations are often referred to as the “research bargain” (Bryman, 2012, p.151).

Initial discussions with existing contacts in the local police force sought to establish the process of requesting permission for the research project. Unlike other organizations such as the National Health Service, the police service did not, at the time of seeking approval, have an overarching external governing body. As such, all operational decisions were the responsibility of the Chief Inspector for each of the 43 respective police forces across the UK. Contact to access police officers for this study was initially made by email to the Chief Inspector of the appropriate police service. The final decision for permission to access the sample was delegated to the highest rank at local operational level, and thus became the decision of the Chief Superintendent for the regional police force.

I approached the Chief Superintendent, as gatekeeper for the research and a subsequent meeting took place. During this, a full outline of the proposed research was provided via a presentation, and a discussion followed explaining the research aim and objectives. The main issues for negotiation revolved around the potential for any identification of malpractice

during the reflective timeout sessions, and its potential impact for the reputation of the service. This proved to be only a minor logistical consideration and details of this are expanded upon in section 3.9.1 of this chapter. Following this discussion, agreement was given by the Chief Superintendent for the research to commence, and full access to staff within the organization was granted. This was considered a rare privilege; however, it may in part have been attributable to the ongoing relationship between the local police service and the University, and the trust which has developed over many years.

By agreement, an initial email was sent to the Chief Superintendent with a request for expressions of interest from staff (see appendix 5). An information sheet with details of the study was attached to the email (see appendix 4). This was forwarded internally to all policing staff within the regional police force via the internal email system by the Chief Superintendent's secretary. My contact details, and those of my director of studies, were included in the information sheet and any individuals potentially interested in taking part in the research project were asked to make direct contact with the researcher via the attached email address. Following this meeting, an application to the School Research and Ethics Panel (SREP) was submitted (see appendix 6) and subsequently ethical approval was received (application number SREP 2012/05).

3.8.2 Consent: The participant consent process

Punch (2005) considers that the principles of informed consent require the provision of sufficient information regarding the specific nature of the research, so that the participant can

make an informed decision regarding their involvement in it. Upon selection, each participant attended an initial meeting as highlighted above, and the details of the research were further outlined and explained in full. Consent was obtained via a consent form which was approved by the university ethical committee (see appendix 1). The participants were offered the opportunity to withdraw from participation at any point in the process up until the write up period of the research.

3.8.3 Deception

Gray (2014) refers to deception as the presentation of the research as something that is counter to its true intention. An information sheet was sent to all members of staff within the participating police force, with the initial email of invitation, as stated above. Full and transparent details of the nature and intention of the study were outlined including what was required of each participant. After the selection of the participants, a further information sheet inviting attendance was emailed to corresponding line managers (see appendix 7). A full explanation of the process was given prior to the commencement of the project and during the consent process, with reassurance that the findings from the research would be used only for the Professional Doctorate.

3.8.4 Privacy

The right to privacy is protected by the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and is a central cornerstone of democratic society (Gray, 2014). This was especially pertinent to the nature of this study given that policing practice was the focus of enquiry and thus had obvious implications for references to police policy and confidential cases. The supervision

sessions were therefore entirely confidential however, it was made clear during the consent process that I would be required to report any incidences of apparent malpractice directly to the participant's line manager in person. I provide a full explanation for the decision not to use the sessions as data in section 3.9.1. The semi-structured interviews which formed the basis of the data collection allowed participants to explore their views of the process of reflecting via reflective timeout and expand upon their views in a spontaneous way and without feeling that any information had been forced. As also stated by Punch (2005), the voluntary nature of the research and the right to withdraw should be made clear to participants. This formed an element of the preamble during the consent process.

The selected participants were asked to sign a consent form, which included information regarding confidentiality (see appendix 1). Given the sensitive nature of the enquiry related to policing practice, there were obvious implications, as highlighted above, for the disclosure of policing policy and incidents relating to members of the public during supervision sessions. It was made clear that disclosures made during the sessions would be confidential and that, as stated earlier, these sessions were a vehicle for the delivery of reflective activity and did not form part of the analysis. Whilst confidentiality would be maintained where possible, it could not be assured, should evidence of malpractice be identified. A fundamental condition upon which the research was predicated, as discussed with the Chief Superintendent as 'gatekeeper', was that any issues relating to the discovery of malpractice during supervision would be highlighted to the participant and reported to an appropriate party within the organization.

3.8.5 Confidentiality of data

The Data Protection Act (1998) now replaced by the GDPR, (2018) provides instructions for the holding of an individual's data, which may be factual material, or the recording of opinion (Bryman, 2012). The Act makes clear the restrictions for the management of personal data including many requirements regarding its acquisition, recording and storage. It stipulates "Appropriate security measures must be taken against accidental loss or destruction of data and against unlawful or unauthorized processing of personal data" (Bryman, 2012, p. 137).

Furthermore, De Vaus (2001) also emphasizes the need for anonymity and confidentiality within a research undertaking and identifies that failure to honour this is a major area for potential harm to participants. The process of collecting and recording data should ensure that confidentiality is maintained and guaranteed at all times. The use of pseudonyms or a similar system of coding is recommended as best practice for protecting the identity of research participants (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Bryman, 2012). Real names were not recorded throughout the study or transcribed during the data collection process. Instead, these were replaced with participant numbers, which were participants 1-5, and line managers 1-3. Data was transcribed using a password protected computer and stored on an encrypted memory stick in a locked draw which only the researcher had access to, in accordance with the University's policy on data storage.

3.8.6 Harm

Finally, harm, as the fifth area of ethical concern that Punch (2005) identifies is considered here. The principles of clinical supervision (in this research reflective timeout) in themselves suggest that a supportive experience for the participant is intended by its very nature (Esterhuizen & Freshwater, 2008). It was acknowledged, however, that participants would be discussing both professional and personal reflections during the sessions and that, at times, intimate or painful disclosures may be made. Attention to the emotional wellbeing of each participant was therefore important. Gray (2014) suggests that the term harm, may encompass a multitude of perils including not only physical injury, but also emotional harm or mental distress. This may include numerous personal emotions such as anxiety, stress, or any other negative feelings. Participants were reassured that every effort would be made to minimize the risk of harm. The initial meeting and the participant information sheet provided full details of the nature and intention of the study and full information regarding how to access counselling services, should these be required as a direct result of their participation (see appendix 4). It was also intended that the initial sessions with the participants aimed to build a therapeutic and trusting relationship with the researcher, in which each participant felt comfortable, relaxed, and clear on the boundaries of the relationship as well as the intention of the research. This was consistent with both Johns (2009) and Freshwater's (2008) understanding of importance of an effective therapeutic relationship between supervisor and supervisee.

3.9 Details of the reflective timeout sessions

One-to-one guided reflection was provided for participants via monthly reflective timeout sessions. These used the principles of clinical supervision within nursing. There is a broad consensus regarding the value of clinical supervision for ongoing professional development, and the maintenance of safe, autonomous practice within nursing (Cutcliffe, 2018; Bifarin & Stonehouse, 2017; Winstanley & White, 2010; Care Quality Commission, 2013). Indeed, the value of clinical supervision has been acknowledged since the early 1990s both for professional standards and staff wellbeing (Winstanley & White, 2010). White (2016) reinforces its value for the emotional wellbeing of supervisees and the reduction of work-related burn-out. Cruz, Varvelo and Sousa (2013) endorse its benefits as a coping mechanism within clinical practice and for the management of stress. More than twenty-five years ago the Department of Health (DH, 1993) supported the association between clinical supervision and improved quality of professional practice. More recently, the Care Quality Commission (CQC) (2013, p. 6) stated "Supervision is considered to be an essential part of good professional practice by a range of different professional bodies". According to Puffett and Percuis (2017), this advocacy of the use of clinical supervision for ensuring high standards of care is closely linked to the recommendations from the Serious Case Review, following the mistreatment of vulnerable adults as at Winterborne View Private Hospital (GH, 2012). Lyth (2000, p. 728) defines clinical supervision as:

A support mechanism through which they (mentor/mentee) can share clinical, organizational, developmental and emotional experiences with another professional in a secure, confidential environment in order to enhance knowledge and skills.

This process will lead to an increased awareness of other concepts including accountability and reflective practice.

Indeed, much of the literature reviewed in the previous chapter considers the relationship between guided reflection via clinical supervision and reflective practice. My main inspiration in this study was Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008, p. 123) who refer to professional development as “the common theme between reflective practice, reflection and clinical supervision”. Also, they state:

What then is the connection between the clinical supervision reflection and reflective practice? In our view it is the relationship between reflection and clinical supervision that results in reflective practice. Where reflection is a cycle through process (a skill) and clinical supervision is a method that can be used and focus and guide the individual’s reflective process (a structure), and the change that arises from this conceptualized analytic process results in reflective practice (as a way of being).

The understanding of reflective practice as a way of being was a significant feature of the literature reviewed in chapter two. Thus, the relationship between clinical supervision and the development of reflective practice referred to here by Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008, p123) became the key driver for this research, and provided the inspiration the research aims. Here I provide further details of the

delivery of reflective timeout with the aim of enabling the development of reflective practice, and its value for professional development.

3.9.1 Supervision as an intervention

A significant decision within this research was whether to use the reflective time out sessions as an intervention or as a data source. I was mindful of Walsh (2007) whose PhD research, and subsequent paper (Walsh, 2009), investigated the use of clinical supervision within a prison context. In this, the supervision sessions themselves were analyzed as data. This option however proved to be challenging within a policing context. Access to police participants was gained after much discussion with the Chief Superintendent, and involved the development of a trusting relationship, both with him/her and with the participants throughout the period of supervision. There was as an anxiety about the disclosure of police practices which reflected the closed culture of the police referred to in chapter two. As I stated earlier, permission for such insider access to the police was considered a rare privilege, and I felt this in part to have been made possible by the relationship between the police service and the University, which had developed over a number of years since the delivery of the IPLDP. Permission for the supervision to go ahead was granted by the Chief Superintendent on the strict understanding that there would not be any disclosure of police practices discussed within the session. I was advised that without this clear reassurance, participants would be reluctant to volunteer. To this end, I approached the sensitive nature of police disclosures with extreme caution, and an agreement was reached with the Chief Superintendent that the sessions would not be utilized as a data source. Participants and their line managers

were therefore interviewed about the experience of supervision following the period of delivery. In order to capture as much data as possible within the agreed parameters, however I maintained a reflective diary during the process. I therefore reflected upon the development of my relationship with supervisees, my impressions of the changes to their professional identities, as well as my own thoughts feelings and anxieties about the process. I also recorded the date of each session with a brief summary of the issues that had been discussed. This was largely as an aide memoire in order to form a starting point for the following session.

3.9.2 Delivery of reflective timeout sessions

The sessions took place monthly for each participant, over a total period of six months (six sessions in total). This timeframe was considered sufficient for the development of a trusting relationship between supervisor and supervisee, whilst it was difficult to quantify an amount of time that was sufficient for reflective activity to be effective.

A further decision centred around an appropriate person to perform the supervisory role. Given the uniqueness of the research it was felt that the existing skills and resources may not be available for a supervisor from within the police service. I was also conscious of the possibility for this to be perceived with suspicion by participants. I was mindful of the CQC (2013) clinical supervision guideline which describes the purpose of clinical supervision as follows:

The purpose of clinical supervision is to provide a safe and confidential environment for staff to reflect on and discuss their work and their personal and professional responses to their work. The focus is on supporting staff in their personal and professional development and in reflecting on their practice (CQC, 2013, p. 4).

It further states:

Clinical supervision provides an opportunity for staff to:

- “Reflect on and review their practice.
- Discuss individual cases in depth.
- Change or modify their practice and identify training and continuing development needs” (CQC, 2013, p. 4).

Given the emphasis upon clinical practice, the guidance within a nursing context recommends that the supervisor possesses the skills associated with the area of practice (although they suggest that it is not essential). This was therefore a consideration within a policing context due to my background as a nurse rather than a police officer. This issue of the need to build a trusting relationship was a major factor in the decision as to who adopted the role as supervisor. Through discussions with the Chief Constable as the gate keeper for the research, I was advised that a supervisor who was external to the police service would be considered less threatening by staff and that I would therefore be best placed to act as both supervisor and researcher. I was also conscious of Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008) who refer to the identification by Gilbert (2001) that supervision may potentially be a method of surveillance (although they further refer to Clouder and Sellar’s (2004) suggestion that its

use for surveillance may not be unjustified given the historical miscarriages of ethics within healthcare provision). It was due to these factors that I made the decision to provide the sessions. It was also felt that due to my history of working closely with the police, and my experience of participating in, and delivering clinical supervision, I would have the necessary skills to provide structured reflection in such a way that the supervisees may be assisted in reflecting upon their own practices and form their own conclusions regarding areas for professional development.

I was also mindful of Proctor's (1986) model of the three functions of supervision within a nursing context, as formative, normative and restorative. The formative refers to the development of practice abilities and skills. The normative, is concerned with the maintenance of effective standards of practice, and the restorative, is concerned with the emotional support associated with human wellbeing. It was considered that I could assist in facilitation of each of these functions through clinical supervision but due to my position outside the organization there would be an enhanced focus upon the formative and restorative components.

3.9.3 The reflective time out contract

As highlighted earlier, an initial meeting with each participant allowed for the completion of a consent form and agreement upon the reflective time out contract. Understandably, there was no procedure for this within the police. Instead this was based upon my own previous experience and the then, recently published CQC (2013) clinical supervision guidelines for nursing, and the Skills for Care (2006) Agreement guide. The main considerations for each participant and me as the supervisor were:

- Discussion about the commitment to supervision including the negotiation of times dates and location (details below)
- Arrangements for postponement rearrangement or cancellation of sessions- which should allow a minimum of one weeks' notice for either party

Responsibly of the supervisor included:

- The provision of a structured environment which would facilitate reflection upon Practice.
- The provision of a safe and supportive environment with a commitment to the development of a working relationship based upon trust.
- A commitment to assisting the supervisee in identifying areas of best practice and areas for potential improvement.
- A commitment to assisting the supervisee in strategies for applying their learning from reflection within their professional practice.
- A commitment for the supervisees to identify their feelings both personally and professionally.

- Providing support in maintaining emotional welling in the policing workplace.
- The maintenance of minimal and confidential notes in order inform the direction of future sessions.
- Discussion with the supervisee should the relationship be considered unsatisfactory for the supervisor.

Responsibility of the participants as supervisee including:

- A commitment to the supervision process in an honest and open relationship.
- Preparation through the identification of areas of practice and decision making to reflect upon during sessions.
- A commitment to the identification of successful areas of practice and areas for potential improvement throughout the previous month.
- A desire to learn from reflection and apply this to future practice.
- Discussion with the supervisor should the relationship be considered unsatisfactory for the supervises.

3.9.4 The process of reflective timeout

The first participant commenced their sessions at the end of 2013. Subsequent participants commenced the process between January and March and therefore some finished the process earlier than others. All participants engaged in sessions for a six-month period. In total, all reflective timeout sessions took place between December 2013 and September 2014.

Each session lasted for approximately one hour and involved me as supervisor, and the participant as supervisee being supervised on a one-to-one basis. All participants were offered a choice of suitable venues for the sessions during the initial discussion of the research contract. This was usually either a quiet room within their operational environment or another discreet location of their choice. All except one participant chose to attend my office at the University so that they could be physically and emotionally removed from the workplace and to reduce unnecessary interruptions. In keeping with this, all those who attended the university did so in civilian clothing. This was felt to be advantageous so that each participant could be as off-duty as possible and therefore remove some of the barriers to being open and reflective. Due to operational necessity, one participant chose to engage with the sessions in a quiet staff room located within the police station undertaking the sessions whilst on duty and in uniform. The sessions in this instance were occasionally interrupted for a short period of time; however, disruption was kept to a minimum using a 'do not disturb sign' on the door.

3.9.5 Borton's (1970) model of reflection

During the first session, each of the participants was taught a model of reflection to assist them in structured reflective thinking. Whilst there are a host of models which are used within the helping professions such as Rolfe et al. (2001), Gibbs (1988), Driscoll (2000). Borton's (1970) model of What? So what? and Now what? was utilized due to its simplicity, and my experience of using this with police staff previously. This is a simplified version of Rolfe et al.'s more recent model.

At the initial meeting, participants were asked to identify the areas of their practice that were considered to have been most significant in the month prior to the first session. This was so that these examples of policing practice could be discussed during the first session. Participants were subsequently asked to identify the most significant events or incidents during the month, that they would like to bring to the sessions for reflective discussion.

3.9.6 Ending the sessions

At the end of the sixth meeting with each participant, I brought the process to a close. This involved a final discussion about their experience of the process which was unanimously considered positive. We arranged the final interview for a mutually convenient date the following week. Participants were encouraged to contact me in the future, either socially, or if I could be of any assistance in a professional capacity (including potential staff development sessions for example). I also arranged a telephone call follow up for one month after the final session.

3.10 Conducting the interviews

Interviews with participants took place following the period of reflective time out. All except one were conducted in my office, which had been the venue for the sessions themselves. One participant chose to be interviewed in the workplace which had also been the venue for their sessions. Details of the interviews were described for the reader in section 3.7.3.3.2 (participant interviews, phase 1) and section 3.7.3.4.1 (line manager interviews, phase 2).

3.11 Data analysis

3.11.1 The use of thematic analysis

Yin (2014) suggests that the analysis of case studies may take many forms and should be appropriate to the specific requirements of the case study in question. Mathews and Ross (2010) previously suggested that where qualitative interviews are concerned, several forms of analysis may be employed, the most appropriate of which may be (but is not limited to) content analysis, discourse analysis and thematic analysis. They further pre-empted the postulation of Yin (2014) by suggesting that the method of analysis should, however, be tailored to the uniqueness of any given case.

The purpose of the research study was to examine the range of opinions regarding the experience of reflective activity. A method of analysis which allowed for the development of a multitude of personal meanings which may be varied, complementary and contradictory was therefore sought. Thematic analysis was thus chosen as a more flexible data analysis

tool than grounded theory, in allowing for the examination of a wide variety of themes and patterns as experienced by the participants, rather than the generation of a specific theory. It was intended that conducting thematic analysis would allow for the capturing of many diverse and complex feelings that participants may have had about their experience (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

3.11.2 The use of Braun and Clarke's Model

The basis used for the thematic analysis of the findings was underpinned by the work of Braun and Clarke (2013) who provide a structured framework for the analysis of themes emerging from qualitative data. Bryman (2012) refers to the centrality of their early work in providing a structured approach to thematic analysis, which had previously been a somewhat underdeveloped procedure, arguing that what actually constitutes a theme is not always clearly defined within the literature. However, he suggests that themes have the following features:

- A category of meaning which is identified within the dataset by the researcher
- They are consistent with the central concerns of the research and may relate directly to the research question
- They expand upon the initial codes identified within the transcribed interviews
- They form the foundations of a theoretical understanding of the data and make possible a contribution theoretically to the literature, in relation to the research concern.

The process of undertaking thematic analysis follows seven stages, according to Braun and Clarke (2013):

1. The initial process of transcription.
2. The transcriptions are read, and the researcher becomes familiar with the transcribed material, taking note of particular items that may be salient and of interest.
3. A process of coding takes place across the entire data set. Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 206) refer to coding as “a process of identifying aspects of the data that relate to your research question”. There are, they suggest, two specific forms of pattern-based analysis: selective and complete coding. The former involves the reduction of data by selecting a series of examples of the phenomena of interest and extracting these from the overall data sets. This allows the collection of data which is only of a specific type. The latter, complete coding, involves the identification of what Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 206) refer to as “anything and everything of interest or relevance to answer your research question within the entire dataset”. Thus, rather than the extraction of select data, all data that is relevant is coded initially but may be discarded later in the process of analysis. A function of the code is to provide a title, which may be a word or short phrase, which summarizes the relevant feature of the data in relation to the research question.
4. Themes from the initial coding are then identified. Braun and Clarke (2013) observe, however, that this is an active rather than passive process in which the codes are examined so that patterns may be created rather than discovered. This, they suggest,

implies that pre-existing meanings are not simply found within the data; however, a more accurate process involves the researcher in shaping and sculpting the material.

5. The themes are reviewed, and a thematic map is produced of the provisional themes and sub-themes and any relationships between them.
6. The final analysis requires the defining of concrete themes, which includes definitions and the naming of them.
7. The themes are written and compared with themes within the existing literature, as Identified in a previously undertaken literature review.

3.11.3 Manual analysis

Researchers have historically undertaken the long and laborious task of manual coding and identification of themes within the data (Gray, 2014). Both Yin (2013) and Gray (2014) espouse consistent views when referring to the increasing use over the last 20 years of Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS). Gray (2014) considers the following benefits of using such systems as:

- The importation of transcripts directly into the software.
- The scrutinization of the transcripts for words, phrases and sections associated with codes.
- The collection of sections of texts associated with such codes.

Gray (2014) suggests that computer-assisted data analysis can bring with it disadvantages. He refers to Richards (2002) who urged caution regarding what he refers to as “coding fetishism” (Gray, 2014, p. 625) in which the researcher becomes overenthusiastic in their search for codes to the point of addiction, due to the relative ease with which the computer can generate them. Yin (2013) also cautions against the use of computer software where large amounts of various data such as field notes, interviews, focus groups and questionnaires have been used. He suggests that such packages may be unable to handle the volume and variety of data collected. Gray (2014) advises that the ultimate decision regarding the use of computer assisted or manual analysis should be consistent with the volume of the data for analysis. Fewer than ten one-hour interviews may, he contended, be analyzed using manual methods. Larger amounts of data that may be regarded as more substantial and overwhelming may benefit from the assistance of CAQDAS.

This research involved the analysis of a small number of participants’ data, which was eight in total (five participants and three line managers). Due to this, I considered it appropriate for a manual analysis of the data to be undertaken to allow for a fuller and more intimate analysis of the data. The initial codes were manually developed into themes using a post-it note system.

3.11.4 Inductive research; a theory building analysis

De Vaus (2002) identifies two broad approaches to the analysis of case study data, which are theory testing (or theoretical analysis) and theory building (or inductive) techniques. The former, he suggests, has within it a series of specific propositions which are identified

through theory discovered in the literature review. Such postulations are used as the top down basis to identify themes within the research undertaking in comparison to existing known theory. A theory building technique however has, at the outset, merely an initial question, which may include a basic theme. Following the examination of the case or cases, the researcher arrives at a series of themes or propositions as they emerge inductively or bottom up, from the data (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

There is little research relating to the use of reflective activity within a policing context and therefore an approach which allowed for the generation of new themes, with no prior suppositions or prior theoretical assumptions, was considered more appropriate. My analysis of the findings was therefore based upon a theory building approach, which was inherently inductive.

3.11.5 Explanation building

Yin (2014) considers five approaches to the analysis of case study data, as described below:

1. Pattern matching - in which patterns emerge from the data which match with a series of presupposed assumptions. Thus prior to the research, many predictions are made which are based upon what is already known about the subject, and the findings are compared against them with the aim of supporting the theoretical position.
2. Explanation building - which is reminiscent of pattern matching but with a less structured approach. An initial statement or proposition is made based upon the theoretical

position, rather than a more concrete and specific series of theoretical assumptions. The findings from the study are based upon and compared with the initial proposition.

3. Time series analysis - in which data (which may be from dependent or independent variables) is observed so that a comparison can be made between the patterns that emerged over a time scale period, and those that were predicted. Predictions take the form of selected indicators which are consistent with the study objectives.
4. Logic models - which essentially combine both pattern matching and time series strategies. The use of this approach has, according to Yin (2014, p. 155), become of increasing value particularly in “doing case study evaluations and in studying theories of change”. Within such approaches an initial event may yield a result and lead to a final outcome. The pattern matching element of the strategy may therefore compare the variables for the initial intervention and its effects, and the time-series component would measure the final implications and outcomes in terms of overall change over a period.
5. Cross case synthesis - which according to Yin (2014) is appropriate only for multiple case analysis and involves the comparison of data across the range of cases within the research. Multiple, separate cases are therefore compared with each other for areas of replication, dissimilarity or contrast.

When considering a strategy for analysis, the final theory outlined above; cross case synthesis was immediately considered least appropriate due to its concern with multiple, separate, cases rather than a single embedded case which applied here. Whilst each of the others had some merits, I concluded that each one, except ‘explanation building’, was too prescribed regarding the presupposed predictions for a subject such as this, in which little

prior knowledge existed. I wanted the analysis of the findings to take an open minded and less structured approach to the emergence of data from this unique enquiry. The research project was therefore regarded as one that explored the experiences of the participants and was best considered within the 'explanation building' approach to case study research.

3.11.6 Chapter summary

In this chapter I have provided a justification for a qualitative interpretivist, reflexive research approach viewed through a postmodern critical lens. I have further made the argument for a case study design, in which the provision of structured reflective practice as an intervention has been used as a single case, and the participants were considered to be embedded elements. Cross case, thematic analysis was identified and justified as an appropriate approach to the analysis of the data using the systematic approach to identifying themes presented by Braun and Clarke (2013). In the following chapter I present and discuss the research findings.

Chapter 4

Findings and discussion

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided details of the methodology utilized within the research i.e. the methodological decisions and the method of analysis. In this chapter I present the findings from the research and the subsequent analysis. In order to ensure the reliability and trustworthiness of the findings, the reader is first reminded of the methodological approach, the theoretical framework and the research aims.

A significant inspiration for the approach adopted within this research was the work of Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008). They suggest that the facilitation of reflection via clinical supervision may result in the development of reflective practice as a way of being. This led to the implementation of an equivalent process (which came to be referred to as reflective timeout), in order to explore whether this assist policing staff in becoming reflective practitioners. This therefore underpinned the development of the following research aims which explored police officers' experience of reflective time-out:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

In order to achieve them, this research adopted a qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive approach to the construction of knowledge. This was underpinned by a postmodern critical lens in which understandings of the world are socially constructed rather than discovered as objective fact. As discussed in chapter one and two, this also reflected post Cartesian Dualist understandings of identity which as Bulman (2004) suggests are understood as a post-modern construct. Here, notions of the self are associated with self-awareness. Identity is thus fluid and context specific, rather fixed and unchanging. Given these understandings, as stated in the introductory chapter, a constructionist, postmodern lens for this research was considered most appropriate and has been defended throughout this thesis. The data was collected using two data collection instruments, within two phases of the research. These are summarized as follows:

4.1.1 Phase1: Data collection tool 1

One-hour semi-structured interview with each participant following the period of supervision (five participants = 5 x 1-hour semi-structured interviews).

4.1.2 Phase 2: Data collection tool 2

Post supervision interview with participant line managers, of which three were available (3 x 1-hour semi-structured interviews).

The data was analyzed utilizing Braun and Clarke's (2013) framework for thematic data analysis described in chapter three, section 3.11.2.

The chapter begins with a consideration of the findings and analysis of the participant interviews according to phase one of the research. This is followed by the findings and analysis of the line manager interviews as phase two of the research. The findings from both data collection tools are structured and presented according to the aims of the research. The themes are interwoven with my reflections throughout the chapter and it felt natural to integrate the findings, reflections and analysis. I have therefore chosen to present these together, rather than in separate chapters. I include not only my reflections during the supervision process, but also my thought processes during the analysis of this data. I also describe how I experienced the development of my relationship with the participants and my observations of the ongoing transformation to their professional identities as they adopted the principles of reflective practice and developed new insights into their practice.

4.2 A reflexive approach; personal reflections

The idea of delivering reflective sessions based upon the principles of clinical supervision (from my experience within a nursing context) to police officers was initially extremely daunting. This was a unique intervention within the police, and I was fearful of the unknown. Not only this but I also quietly questioned whether I had the fundamental skills required for this new challenge. I decided against using the reflective timeout sessions for research data

collection due to the potentially sensitive nature of the subjects discussed, and the potential that it may impair communication during the sessions. Full details of the rational for this decision were discussed in section 3.9.1 of the methodology chapter. Instead I maintained a reflective diary, capturing my thoughts, feelings and reflections throughout the sessions.

4.3 Participant interviews (Data collection tool 1)

An individual audio recorded interview was undertaken which explored the participants' experiences of the reflective timeout sessions. The duration of the interviews was between 48 and 70 minutes. The interview included semi-structured questions including prompts (see appendix 8). Details of the interview durations are presented in the following table:

Table 4.1 Interview durations, data collection tool 1

Participant	Interview duration (minutes)
1	55
2	50
3	48
4	65
5	70

Following transcription, each paragraph within the data was allocated a number and each line was interpreted using initial codes. The codes were short descriptions of the meaning of each sentence. This was consistent with the model of thematic analysis presented by Braun and Clark (2013). Table 4.2 summarizes the number of codes for each participant.

Table 4.2 Summary of the number of initial codes per participant

Participant	Number of codes
1	153
2	68
3	103
4	206
5	287

4.3.1 Development of the themes

The coding process identified 817 initial codes overall. These were reviewed and grouped according to areas of similarity in meaning. This allowed for the development of initial themes.

An initial thematic map of the relationship between themes and sub-themes was developed. Refinement of the codes continued until no further themes were established and saturation

had been reached (Braun & Clarke, 2013). From this the final themes were developed according to the research aims.

4.3.2 Summary of the research findings; the themes

The original interest in this research developed during my experience as a police educator, teaching the principles of reflection to probationer police officers on the foundation degree in police studies. This was described in the introductory chapter and led to an exploration of whether police officers might be enabled to adopt reflective processes in order to become reflective practitioners. The following table summarizes the findings from the research using data collection tool 1. These are presented as themes and sub-themes, in relation to the research aims.

Table 4.3 Summary of the themes and sub-themes from the research aims 1 and 2

Research aim 1	To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.
Theme 1	Developments in personal and professional identity: the self.
Sub-theme 1	Becoming reflective: increased self-awareness and the development of reflective practices.
Sub-theme 2	The development of emotional intelligence.

Research aim 2	To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within a policing context.
Theme 1	Professional identity: The value of reflective practice for individual and service wide professional development.
Sub-theme 1	Professional identity: the value of reflective practice for being a police officer.
Sub-theme 2	The perceived value of reflective practice for the professional development of the service.
Sub-theme 3	Reflective activity that already takes place within the police service.
Theme 2	Reflective support promotes staff wellbeing.

4.3.3 Research aim 1

4.3.3.1 Theme 1; Developments in personal and professional identity; the self

Aim 1 explored the potential for participating police officers to become reflective practitioners. It was intended that this may be enabled by assisting participants to reflect upon their working practices during monthly reflective timeout sessions. There were two main findings from this aim, the first of which was participants experience of the transition to becoming reflective practitioners.

4.3.3.1.1 Sub- theme 1: Becoming reflexive; increased self-awareness and the development of reflective practices

This sub-theme identified the development of an ability to be reflective, amongst the participants as a process of transition. It starts with participant's understanding of the culture of reaction and immediate action that was described in section 2.5.2 of the literature review. Against this cultural backdrop most participants described their initial lack of previous experience of guided reflection or being reflective. This section observes the development of self-awareness and the facilitation of reflective practice throughout the period of the reflective timeout sessions.

What became clear from the interviews and my observations of the participants at the beginning of the process, was an understanding of the culture within policing. The literature review described the professionalization of policing and the central role of the recently created College of Policing (CoP) for developing standards of policing practice (CoP, 2015). Reflective practice has increasingly become part of the language of policing and there is an articulation of the desire to move away from the old culture of policing to a to one which reflects the modern profession (CoP, 2015). Here however one participant describes the policing environment as one where rapid action, and reaction rather than reflection continue to be accepted norm. A number of police commentators referred to this as a feature of police culture such as Reiner (2010). Participant 5 for example described police work as largely associated with rapid reaction to incidents and not generally with reflection on a day-to-day basis. Here they made the following observation about the nature of police work:

I think the gearing of policing is very much incident based 'Go and deal, come away, go, deal, come away' and the reflective part of it, thinking about what went well, what went less well, tending to be reserved for pretty serious incidents, especially incidents where Police Officer have been injured, to debrief people.

Participant 5

The same participant expanded upon the lack of reflective practices within the culture of policing. What is meant by "I haven't seen it" in this context, is evidence that reflection is not used:

If it is in the culture, I'll be perfectly honest I haven't seen it. It's very very well hidden, it doesn't operate in my particular corner or my particular district and it might be on a dusty force policy document somewhere that people get debriefed and things like that and these things happen.

Participant 5

This participant did recognize the use of reflection on occasions, however it tended to be reserved for major incidents and seemingly situations that had ended unsuccessfully, rather than as an ongoing aid to practice improvement. As suggested above, the literature made similar claims about the history of policing practices. For example, both Reiner (2010) and Myhill and Bradford (2012) identify a tendency towards pragmatism and general action orientation which resulted from long standing custom and practices inherent within its culture.

This supports participant 5's observations about police practices, and what is evident here is for them, the reflective journey began against the backdrop of an environment that was largely non reflective. Indeed, the initial interview established that participant 5 had almost no experience of reflection or reflective practice. They made a final observation in relation to the tendency towards what I consider to be an example of police practices which may be understood as reactionary and non-reflective at times:

That snippet from a Police Commander just spoke volumes, it's...We don't know what to do but we've got to do it' and its well-meaning, it is well meaning.

Participant 5

This quote resonates with my experience of teaching reflection to probationer police officers enrolled upon the foundation degree programme. Waddington and Wright (2010) refer to the street as the stage on which an officer delivers their performance for the public, and this performance of policing, facilitates the maintenance of law and order, and public confidence. Much of my initial work with trainee police officers involved reassuring them that identifying areas for improvement within their practice using reflection, was not an admission of weakness, or an exposure of their lack of suitability for the role. I could see however how this would be of concern, particularly give the added vulnerability of officers who were still within their probationary period and were generally keen to impress. I fully understood therefore why there may have been a tendency to demonstrate a certain level of command over a

situation using an immediate and assured response, even if the solution to the problem was not as clear to the officer than they made it appeared to the public.

To some extent this was also true of the participating police officers who arrived for their sessions early in the process with an initial wariness and a slightly defensive approach to showcasing their competence. I anticipated this, as I documented within my reflective diary at the time. I predicted it as an understandable initial response for a number of reasons. Taking time out to reflect upon professional practice was a new experience for the police participants and was inevitably going to be challenging. Some participants described their lack of previous experience of it. Participant 1 for example explained what they have previously known about little about the idea of reflective practice prior to undertaking the sessions:

I was interested to see if it was useful as a manager to have another technique. I didn't know what the technique involved but I think you have to be open to learning particularly when you are managing people anything that can give you a tool in your toolkit is useful. So, when the email came out, I thought yes this is different. Something new to learn so I didn't know what it entailed but I was interested when you explained to me what it was about.

Participant 1

Participant 4 described a similar lack of experience of reflective practice at the beginning of the sessions. When exploring their previous experiences of reflective practice, they explained:

It's not something that the police really do at the moment, but the council who were like my supervisors then, we had monthly supervision. I didn't feel actually that it was over useful, the supervision that I had but they started sending the managers to do reflective supervision. I don't think it really cascaded down to me before I left and so I was really interested in seeing what it was like.

Participant 4

So again, this participant described how being encouraged to practice reflectively was a new concept and continued with:

I don't think I really had any experience of it to be fair.

Participant 4

Participant 5 also explained their understanding of what reflection was, but again describes having little experience of its use:

So, I knew how you reflected, it had been explained to me before but in reality, I haven't actually really done it.

Participant 5

Not only then, was the idea of engaging with open and honest reflection upon personal practice new to the participants, but it also ran entirely counter to the culture of machismo, pragmatism and immediate action that they had experienced within the police service as described above, and that is referred to throughout Reiner's (2010) seminal writings on the politics of the police, and further commentators such as Myhill and Bradford (2012). Here the police participants were now being asked to engage with new processes associated with exploring their emotions, thoughtfulness, and self-assessment and analysis. The earlier comment by participant 5 illustrated the culture in which the participants began the process and here there is evidence of the action-based approach to policing that Reiner (2010) and Myhill and Bradford (2012) describes:

I think the gearing of policing is very much incident based 'Go and deal, come away, go, deal, come away.

Participant 5

As a civilian member of the public I could understand that police participants may be nervous about the process and wary of me as a stranger. Fook (2006) refers to the reflexive stance of the researcher and their positioning as insider or outsider. Whilst the University had a

close working relationship with this police service, I was conscious of my ultimate position as an outsider to the police “family”. Not only this, but I was also conscious of taking into consideration the particular police culture of suspicion to which Reiner (2010) also refers. Cosgrove (2016) also refers to this when citing Skolnick’s (1966) seminal work ‘Justice without trial’ in which the nature of the role has historically resulted in a culture which is suspicious of the public, and which binds police together as them and us. I was also mindful that improving public confidence was the almost the sole agenda for the police during this period. This was largely for reasons associated with historical miscarriages of justice highlighted in chapter two and the development of the CoP to affect professionalization of the police service (Neyroud, 2011; CoP, 2015). Thus, given these factors I considered it not unreasonable for participants to approach the sessions with caution, and to feel compelled to represent themselves in their very most favourable light.

I reflected upon this frequently during the period of reflective timeout especially following initial meeting, and the first two sessions themselves. I was already conscious of the need to develop a therapeutic relationship based on trust, and this notion of the therapeutic alliance between supervisor and supervisee as it is understood within the context of nursing, is well documented within the literature (Esterhuizen & Freshwater, 2008; Johns, 2009). I made the sessions as supported and relaxed as possible, this was assisted using a venue outside of the policing context and wearing civilian clothing (for all except one participant). I was also conscious of reassuring participants when their practice in a certain situation had been understandable under the circumstances even if the outcome was not ideal. I tried to balance this with other examples of practice where there was an opportunity for a more robust exploration of the learning from an experience, and the improvements to practice that

could be made on future occasions. These types of conversation were initially very challenging for me, and I was already nervous about providing the sessions to a group of staff other than nurses. I recall the first occasion on which I challenged a police participant as to what they may have done differently to improve their practice, and this was so anxiety provoking that I jokingly reflected in my diary that I hoped it was not an arrestable offence! I did however observe the development of the relationship between me and each of the participants in the early sessions. Some participants referred to this during the interviews. Here I drew upon my own experience of supervising staff (and indeed being supervised) as well as being aware of the need for emotional intelligence in my approach to the emotional needs of the participants. Participant 3 referred here to “minimal encouragers” and this was a term that they used frequently throughout the sessions. What was meant here was my own subtle use of body language, demeanor and noises or phrases of encouragement. This was intended to assist in building a trusting relationship which encouraged open and honest reflection, Participant 3 for example explained this here:

Because even though you didn't lead the conversation, the minimal encouragers as I would call them, you know, they bring out more of the conversation means that I explored things in a deeper way than I normally would.

Participant 3

Participant 4 made a similar point about the development of the rapport that developed between us during the period of the sessions:

I found your style really really relaxing. Your whole mannerisms, you made the right kind of positive noises. You know you looked interested.

Participant 4

After the initial process of building a relationship with participants, I began to observe tangible changes in the behaviour of the participants. Although this varied between participants, I became aware of it at around the mid-point of the process. I had reflected that by this time, there had been the development of a trusting relationship between me and each of the participants. Participants had become relaxed and open about their professional practice. The initial defensiveness described earlier was no longer present, and I observed that the ability to learn from their practices was starting to be regarded as an opportunity to develop. The most significant manifestation of the changes to the participants behaviour was in the increased levels of reflection. During the initial meeting participants were asked to bring to the first session three examples of practice situations that they would like to reflect upon. All but one had been unable to think of anything in advance and thus the first session was used to establish some examples of policing situations that could be utilized. By around the third month, however, I observed that participants were reflecting spontaneously on the most significant incidents from the previous month and their learning from them. There was evidence that participants were beginning to experience a personal and professional transition towards becoming reflective as an aid to their development. Many of the participants described the development of their ability to be reflective. Participant 1 for example referred to this during their interview and this supports my own observations:

I know you said when I came to the third session you said I was different; you had noticed a difference. I was talking about it with you and looking at what I did in situations and what I did before I carried out any action, it made me understand how my thought processes and behavior had changed.

Participant 1

Participant 1 further described the changes to their professional practice and an initial scepticism about the process:

I suppose when I started, I was sceptical of what it would deliver for me personally. Not that I didn't think I had things to learn and I was quite surprised by the technique because I was expecting to get a toolkit on 'this is what you need to do' but actually the process helped me learn that from myself and come up with my own tool kit rather than being given something and them saying this technique works so try it. It was more guiding me through and finding my own technique and from early on, I started using the what? So what? And then the reflection on that on the answers.

Participant 1

What had become clear to me during the progression of the sessions was that not only were participants developing the ability to be reflective, but they were beginning to vocalize evidence that they were now reflecting independently. This transition was consistent with the

literature such as Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008) which associates guided reflection via clinical supervision, with the facilitation of reflective practice. There are also links with Johns (2017) internal supervisor in which reflection may begin as an assisted process which leads to mindfulness and being reflective. This is further articulated Participant 3 also explained how the sessions assisted the ability to be reflective:

I was thinking, knowing that I was coming here, particularly in the early stages and thinking of three things as you said as an example to help. Pick three things that have happened. Yes, I did become more reflective.

Participant 3

Participant 5 also expressed a similar opinion about the benefit of the sessions for assisting them in adopting a reflective approach to practice. As their earlier quote explained, this participant had heard of reflection but had little experience of its use. Yet here however they explained how the experience of the reflective sessions allowed them to see the benefits of reflecting for their professional development. They referred to the process of starting to reflect on practice:

I did find that reflections was, it was a forced process to start with. I'd have to sit down, and the monthly meetings were good because, especially the second month and third month, I think. It would be a case of, oh no I haven't thought about being critically reflective this month, quick think of my homework. But yes,

as things went on and the sort of discussions with you went on and, you know, the value became obvious.

Participant 5

During our first meeting, this participant spoke proudly about being educated to degree level and their recent decision to undertake a Masters programme. I observed initially that they approached the sessions almost as an intellectual process. This I considered understandable to some degree given that participants were aware of their participation in doctoral research. In my diary entries I observed that there was an initial approach to reflection as an 'academic job' to be completed during the month between sessions. The participant, for example, referred to reflection during the early sessions as homework as the quote here also shows. In the first two sessions the participant spoke on quite an abstract level about their work with frequent use of academic language and I remember my observation that they were thinking academically, and in my opinion showing a keenness to showcase their intellectual ability. I responded to this by asking questions which also focused on their initial assessments, instincts and feelings during a situation. I began to notice a shift in this participant's approach, not only during the sessions, but also to the way they described their approach to their work, in which there was an increasing emotional connection to their thinking. There appeared to be the development of an ongoing reflective approach to their work which was consistent with the synthesis of thoughts and feelings thinking processes including thoughts and feelings, which were referred to within the literature in chapter two (Bulman,

2013). I also contend here that this notion of emotional connection suggests the development of emotional intelligence which I refer to further within the next sub theme which discusses the development of emotional intelligence (section 4.3.3.1.2).

Participant 4 made a similar point about their reflection during the reflective sessions and how they experienced a transition from supported reflection to an ongoing change to their thinking processes. This represents a further example of the transition towards independent reflective practice and this emerging process of the participants beginning to become reflective:

Obviously on a practical level at first, it was just focused on the next meeting, but I think it did start changing the way I was thinking about things.

Participant 4

Below, participant 4 referred to a change in their approach to their thinking and I see this as a further example of the transition towards reflective thinking that developed during the reflective sessions. This participant volunteered for sessions during a very stressful period at work, having recently moved to a different department. The work burden was frequently described as too high, there was little support and it required the development of a new skill set. They explained this during the interview:

When I worked at the youth offending, it was quite a stressful job, there was an awful lot to it and sometimes I struggled really to keep on top of what was expected of me, I certainly found that coming to these sessions really made a massive difference.

Participant 4

I expand upon the supportive function of supervision for professional development later in section 4.3.4.2 of the chapter however there is an overlap here with the development of reflective thinking and the benefits that the participant experienced. The initial sessions with this participant were challenging for me. I got an immediate sense of their levels of frustration and feelings of disempowerment within their role. This was from our discussions, and my observations of their tense body language and general appearance of being highly stressed. Here they described what they were experiencing at the time of the sessions due to the change in role:

I just found that the burden of it and the extra paperwork it caused just really quite hard to manage. And looking for solutions myself I was not really getting anywhere and I kept going into my supervisor and saying 'I'm not really coping with this and the volume is too high and you know I am getting really behind on my paperwork' and they just hummed and harred a bit and I didn't really offer me any practical support but coming to these sessions made me really think about it

Participant 4

At the beginning of the process the participant appeared stressed and sometimes angry, they frequently became emotional during the sessions. In my reflections on the initial meeting and first session I recognized the need for this participant to feel as though they had been heard and their feelings were being validated. I expand upon this later in the chapter in section 4.3.4.2 when considering the supportive element of the sessions that the participants described. We then started to reflect together on how their situation was making them feel, and then strategies for improving their work situation and developing a feeling of control. Thus, the participant was able to synthesize their thoughts and feelings to develop new insights and learn new ways of practicing. There was also evidence here of the development of an ability to regulate and recognize emotions and I considered this to be a further example of the development of emotional intelligence as a key component of reflective practice and the notion of thinking and feeling being central to self-awareness (Goleman, 1995; Freshwater & Stickley, 2004; Heckemann et al., 2015; McCloughen & Foster, 2017).

The process of transition was a consistent theme throughout my observations during the process of reflective timeout. This was also reflected in the participant's own accounts of their adoption of reflective practice articulated within their post-supervision interviews. Participants began the process with either no experience of using reflection, or from a culture in which immediate action, reaction and non-reflective thinking were the cultural norm (Reiner, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2012). Through engagement with the sessions, participants began to develop the ability to be reflective about their practices with my assistance. As the process continued, this was later replaced with an ability to independently reflect in

a way that is consistent with the development of ongoing reflexivity and reflective practice. By the final sessions, each of the participants were reflecting during the timeout session and also providing examples from their practice of where they were demonstrating independent reflective practice. Descriptions of this included both an ability to reflect after an event, but also a development in thinking skills in which the participants were becoming aware of their ability to think on their feet. This is consistent with Schön's (1983, 1987) distinction between reflecting on and in action however I consider this to be a further example of the development of self-awareness. The first research aim considered the potential for the development of reflective practices via 'reflective time' out as an equivalent process to clinical supervision. This was developed in relation to the literature within a nursing context, which considers the relationship between reflection via clinical supervision for the development of reflective practice (Esterhuizen & Freshwater, 2008). The findings for this theme and the next are considered to relate to and meet this aim. Here there was evidence of ongoing transitions in the personal and professional identity of the participants in which understandings of the self are transformed through ongoing learning and the development of new insights (Jacobs, 2016).

In section 2.3.8 the literature considered contemporary understandings of identity as a post-modern concept in which understandings of the self are context specific and fluid. Centrally bound up with this are the discourses around the nature of reflection within the literature including Boyd and Fales (1983) in which reflection is identified as an internal learning process. Freshwater (2008) suggests that what Boyd and Fales (1983) are referring to here, is the prospect that reflection may change the individual's view of the world. These changes in insights may result in new forms of action. Thus Freshwater (2008) states that what is

fundamental here is that reflection involves more than behavioural changes, but rather conceptual changes to the self. These changes to the individual as a person she suggests, hint that reflective practice is a transformatory process. The notion of reflective practice as a transformation is widely referred to within the literature and the central concept of the ontology of being reflective (Johns, 2017). Reflective practice is largely understood as an ability to integrate new knowledge attitudes and feelings with existing knowledge feelings. The analysis of feelings is an essential element of reflection and is enabled through the development of self-awareness. This is required for the development of new insights or perspectives and the ability to learn from them (Burns & Bulman 2000). In the final interviews, participants described changes which were consistent with the development of reflective abilities and the ability to be reflective. I recognize this from the data and from my observations during the reflective sessions where the development of reflective practice allowed for changes in personal and professional identity and ongoing transformations to their perspectives of the world. I return here to participant 4 for example who described the process of beginning to think differently, and their approach to learning new insights and ways of working as ongoing professional development and improvement. This was described earlier in response to the discomfort they were experience due to work-based stress, and the adaptations they began to make using reflective practice in order to manage and take control of their working environment and manage their professional development:

You know you could do it when you were eating your lunch. You know, you can make a little bit of time in your day without a doubt to just think about how things are going and if you're not happy with it to try and do something about it. Because a lot of us, what we would do instead is spend that time moaning about how badly

it has gone and how much you hate what you're doing or it's not going right. It has made me try and be more solution focused and I think that is the difference

Participant [4](#)

This participant continued:

You know, you don't need to sit down with a pen and paper and make notes, it's literally thinking about things in your head.

Participant 4

Both comments appear to be examples of the development of the types of reflective abilities associated with reflective practice, referred to within literature (Burns & Bulman, 2000) and what I consider to be thoughtful reflective activity associated with increased levels of self-awareness, for improved professional practice.

Participant 5 also described developments in their ability to be reflective both when reflecting on action or during a work situation. Again, these suggest the development of reflective practice in which the participant is learning new insights and increased self-awareness. Earlier, I described the transitions I observed during the reflective sessions in which they began to demonstrate examples of reflection. These were often referred to by the participant as 'Selina moments' as a reference to the reflection that took place with me in the sessions and became part of their approach to reflecting on action and during a work-based situation. They referred to this here:

Yes, these Selina moments where it would be really obvious, it was especially obvious, that things weren't all they appeared to be and by talking and thinking about it while I was doing the job or while I was going there or while I was coming away, the reflection process was really really obvious. Or even the process of reflections creeping up on me in my job, I'm thinking woo let's think a minute, let's think about this again.

Participant 5

Participant 5's following comment, I also take as reference to the development more mindful self-aware approaches to their practice and my interpretation of these is that there are also examples the transition to new perspectives associated with learning from reflection:

It doesn't mean we work any slower, it just means we work more deliberately.

Participant 5

Participant 2 also described the development of a similar ability to be reflective during the period of reflective timeout. I also observed this during the sessions as they began to describe situations in which they had been reflective during their working processes.

Again, you learn, you just keep that skill of reflection in the back of your mind all of the time. It is a skill that you learn and it's nice in a lot of ways and I do it all the time.

Participant 2

Participant 1 also provided a powerful description of the permanent changes to their thinking in relation to how they approach their practice. Again, I interpret these as examples of the development of reflective abilities. Here they explained:

I couldn't not use it now it is a bit ingrained. I can't just make a snap decision anymore because I see the benefits of not doing that.

and

I can't go back to how I was before.

and

I have learnt something I can use, and I know how to use it for myself and I am comfortable and not left thinking what have I missed or what haven't I understood. I can see it has beneficial to me; I can feel that even if I can't put it into words.

Participant 1

Again, the participant's understanding of the development of reflective practice is supported by my observations of development of their reflection from the examples that they brought to the sessions. I commented in my diary that this participant appeared to be developing reflective ways of thinking, and this is confirmed by the participant here as a permanent change. The literature review (section 2.3.8) considered postmodern understandings of identity in which knowledge and the self are socially constructed. Identity is therefore fluid and takes account of context (Bulman, 2004). Reflective practice is centrally bound up with the individual's understanding of self and is according to Horton-Deutsch and Sherwood (2017) associated with the deeply human process of tapping into our (and other's) experience, knowledge and understanding. Thus, reflective practice is further understood as a transformative process (Mezirow, 1981; Freshwater, 2008; Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017). Transformative learning has been described as emphasizing "the process of change in understanding ourselves as well as our revision of our beliefs and behaviours" (Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017, p. 20). This sub-theme has considered the evidence of the change in participant identities which included the transition towards becoming reflective as an understanding of self, and the ongoing transitions in learning and lived experience. There appeared also to be another element to the transition in the identity of this participant which I came to understand to be the development of emotional intelligence which is considered in the following section 4.3.3.1.2, sub-theme 2.

4.3.3.1.2 Sub theme 2: The development of emotional intelligence

Sub-theme 1 identified the development of mindful practices associated with reflection, and an increase in self-awareness amongst participants. As a continuation of this, sub-theme 2

considers the development emotional intelligence. Thus, this second sub theme relates to the changes to identity experienced by the participants and the development of emotional intelligence as a key component of becoming reflective. This is widely referred to within the literature (section 2.3.9) as a feature of reflective practice (Freshwater, 2008; Heckman, 2015; McCloughen & Foster, 2018). I am mindful of Walsh's (2009) publication and PhD research (2007) in which clinical supervision with prison nurses facilitated the development of emotional intelligence for the management of emotional labour. This idea of the demands of emotional work required when caring for people is well understood within the nursing literature (Kinman & Leggetter, 2016; Khamisa, Oldenburg, Peltzer & Dragan, 2015). There is also a longstanding acknowledgement of the damaging effects of policing work. Clarke-Miller and Bradley (2013), for example refer to the body of literature which identifies stress as a key issue within the police service. They refer to its impact on staff and their families, and high levels of alcoholism, domestic violence and health problems which may be both mental and physical. I often thought about the wellbeing of the participants when reflecting on the reflective timeout sessions. Whilst I have not included examples of the participants' practice in the findings, participants provided graphic examples of the situations to which they had been exposed when providing examples of their learning and improvements for future practice. The range may have been anything from repeated investigation of missing persons, to suicide or fatal road traffic accidents, not to mention the general unpredictability of any given day. Participant 4 also displayed symptoms of stress and the emotional demands of the role, and I was initially concerned that this participant had begun the reflective sessions in a state which was very close to emotional burn out. From my work with the police over the past twelve years I have been witness to the culture of policing documented within the literature in section 2.5.2, particularly Reiner's (2010) extensive writings about the culture of masculinity. Certainly, from

my experience of working with probation police officers, there was an association with the expression of emotion (or emotional difficulties) as a sign of weakness. Throughout the sessions, participants became much more comfortable about opening up emotionally, and I reflected that this began as participants began to feel safe within a relationship based upon trust. It may also have been as a result of the process of becoming reflective and the association with emotional intelligence referred to within the nursing literature (Heckenman, et al., 2015; McCloughen & Foster, 2017; Goleman, 1995). Participant 1, for example, referred frequently to the emotional demands placed upon them, primarily by other staff, particularly from the team that they managed. From only the second session however they began to refer to changes in the way that they engaged emotionally with situations. I initially reflected upon this being associated with a development in personal confidence. Whilst I observed an element of this during the sessions, the interview with this participant allowed me to understand this as relating to a development in understanding feelings, and management of emotions. They explained this here:

That is when I discovered the, what if I do nothing?

They continued by explaining how they began to give the responsibility back to others from managing situations, rather than continuing to shoulder the emotional burden:

So, a situation might arise where normally I think right, I have got to take action and what am I going to do the reflecting afterwards. Right this has happened what are the possible options thinking about what I have learnt from how I have

reacted before that. If I do nothing and then picking which option which sometimes was to do nothing, it was quite interesting to see how many times in saying "oh right this is the right option" it didn't need me to go storming in and trying to sort things and make it right and I wasn't the only person responsible for making a positive outcome so people can actually do that for themselves and I let them.

Participant 1

Participant 1 also powerfully referred to the development of a personal shield as they perceived it, for emotional protection. They named this "the bubble" and frequently joked that they would be bringing their bubble with them to the next session:

I mentioned before I ended up with a bubble around myself whereas before I would get emotionally involved.

Participant 1

Participant 1 described changes to the way that they recognized, responded to and managed their emotions in what I consider to be an example of the development of self-awareness:

I would take it home and worry about it and be concerned about that person. A couple of days later they would be fine and I would be worrying about something on their behalf so this idea of having this bubble would make it easier for me to react to emotions so instead of diving in there and getting involved, I felt I had a

protective shield around me and it was okay for me to feel that way and more productive and useful not to get that involved, and to be objective and stay in the bubble and think as a manager rather than as a friend rather than someone who is emotionally involved in this. Rather than jumping in and making the decision, taking a step back.

Participant 1

This suggestion that the “bubble” assisted in understanding that it is “okay to feel that way” suggests the development of an ability to acknowledge and understand their feelings and emotion associated with reflective practice and the development of emotional intelligence literature (Heckenman et al., 2015; McCloughen & Foster, 2017; Goleman, 1995). Here they provided a further example of the changes to the way that they responded emotionally to work situations:

I always thought I had to be emotionally involved or react straight away to be effective. Being able to reflect before I made the decision made me realise I didn't need to be like that. I found it a lot easier being a manager since learning that for myself.

Participant 1

There are a number of implications that I take from the above comment. There is a clear transition in the understanding of feelings and the management of emotion and this for me is consistent with the development of emotional intelligence. There is also the suggestion here that this participant had developed the ability to reflect for action as an anticipatory

practice. This was referred to in the literature in section 2.3.3 as a possible function of reflection by Burton (2000) and was a criticism of Schön (1983) who they suggest failed to identify this (literature review, section 2.3.3). It is also acknowledged by Merriam and Lillyman (2012) who consider the possibility for anticipatory action. What also appears here again, is that this notion of the recognition of emotion as part of becoming self-aware as a reflective process and the involvement of emotion in this given that reflective practice involves the synthesis of thinking feeling and action (Bulman, 2013).

Whilst Participant 1 demonstrated the most graphically what I understood to be the development of the ability to recognize and manage emotion associated with the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence, I observed further examples of this which are central to the development of reflective abilities described within the previous sub theme. As suggested earlier in section 4.3.3.1, Participant 5 for example demonstrated a shift from what I considered to be intellectually thinking initially, to becoming more aware of their own emotional responses to situations. This enabled them to begin discussing the emotional impact that their role had upon them and the implications for management of situations. During the interview they also described their use of reflection in their interactions with others, and how this enabled them to understand other peoples' points of view. I understand this to be a further example of the development of emotional awareness:

I think it shows people that you have given it some genuine thought and their choice is, you know it's more of a discussion, more of an agreement between you and them and sometimes you walk away without recording anything because nothing's happened and its being able to explain to them, and it's just

developing that sympathy, developing a sympathy with them. I guess the reflection just lets you, by thinking things through afterwards, before, during you get the ability to see things from others' perspectives and because you've used that in a structured way, and a professional way it doesn't hobble you. You don't get paralyzed because the other person thinks you should do something. You just know that this person might be thinking that so your overall outcome might not change but the way that you tell that person, you can tell someone without it feeling like their being told.

Participant 5

Likewise, Participant 4 started the process in a state of heightened emotion and the stress and frustration they were experiencing was immediately evident. This participant however became able to manage and improve their own situation and this was of benefit to their wellbeing and improved their professional practice, thus this enabled personal and professional development. I discussed this earlier when considering the value of reflective practice for their professional practice, but this was also associated with the development of self-awareness and the recognition of emotion in order to take positive action. Participant 4 explained this here when discussing the value of the sessions:

It was like a case of kind of like, well a bit of off-loading which was very helpful but it also did really make me think about it and it made me look for, you know like solutions cos you get stressed out and stuff and you become very problem focused and you can only see the negatives and then you find it very difficult then to try and find ways to get out of it. But coming to these sessions, trying to

reflect on what you have done made me have a look at what I could do to try and sort of like the work I was doing and look for solution.

Participant 4

I consider this to be a further example of the development of an ability to recognize and manage emotion through the development of an ability to be reflective about work practices. The literature review in section 2.3.9 suggested there were a number of elements to reflection including the synthesis of various ways of thinking which included their emotions and there is much in the contemporary literature about the connection between cognition, thinking and feeling (Bulmer, 2013; Finley, 2008, Horton-Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017). This was referred to in sections 2.3.6, 2.3.8 and 2.3.9 of the literature review for example. It is my understanding here that these examples of the participants' ability to understand and manage their emotions through the development of self-awareness demonstrates the development of emotional intelligence which is a key element of reflective practice (McCloughen & Foster, 2017). Here I summarize the findings from this aim (aim 1).

4.3.3.2 Summary of the findings from aim 1

The first aim of this research explored the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice. This involved the use of an equivalent process to clinical supervision which I initially referred to this in section 1.1 of the introduction as reflective timeout. It has then been referred to using this term throughout the thesis. This is an entirely new term for enabling police reflection which has developed from this research thesis and serves as an illustration of how this work has generated new knowledge. This is expanded upon

further in section 5.4 of the concluding chapter. Theme 1 identified the transition that participant underwent in the development of reflective thinking and thus the types of transformations to the self that are brought about by learning new insights. There is much in the literature which suggests the transformative nature of learning (Mezirow, 1981), and the centrality of reflective practice to this process (Charman, 2017; Bass et al., 2017). The findings from the interviews and my reflective observations during the sessions, identified two key developments amongst the participants which related to transitions in their sense of identity. This involved becoming reflective and the ongoing transformative process of meaning making, and understandings of self and identity construction referred to within the literature in section 2.3.8. The first of these was the development of reflective practices as a transformational process. Whilst I referred to both personal and professional identity in the section, much of the findings and discussion considered the participant's sense of self and transitions to identity associated with ongoing learning and the development of self-awareness. Section 4.3.4.1 explores the perceived value of reflective practice for professional development. This includes in section 4.3.4.1.1, a much fuller expansion of the changes to professional identity associated with the use of reflective practice as a new feature of the role, and the changes to the participant's sense of what it means to be a police officer in the modern professional climate.

The second theme related to examples of the development of emotional intelligent as which is an inherent element of becoming reflective. I emphasize this here and although it was my feeling that the development of emotional intelligence was a significant enough feature of the data to warrant a specific discussion, I by no means wish to dichotomize this from the overall process of being reflexive in reflective practice. I consider the implications of the

development of emotional intelligence for resilience and the management of potential stress and burnout in the concluding chapter when considering the implications of the research for practice. Section 4.3.4 below, considers the findings from aim 2 of the research which was to explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing’.

4.3.4 Research aim 2

Research aim 1, explored the feasibility of the facilitation of reflective practice via guided reflective practice. This took the form of what I termed reflective timeout. The themes were outlined at the beginning of the chapter in section 4.3.2, table 4.3, a reminder of this is provided here:

Table 4.3 Summary of the themes and sub-themes from the research aims 1 and 2

Research aim 1	To explore feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.
Theme 1	Developments in personal and professional identity: the self
Sub-theme 1	Becoming reflective: increased self-awareness and the development of reflective practices.
Sub-theme 2	The development of emotional intelligence.

Research aim 2	To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.
Theme 1	Professional identity: the value of reflective practice for individual and service wide professional development.
Sub-theme 1	Professional identity: the value of reflective practice for being a police officer.
Sub-theme 2	The perceived value of reflective practice for the professional development of the service.
Sub-theme 3	Reflective activity that already takes place within the police service.
Theme 2	Reflective support promotes staff wellbeing.

In aim 2, I explored the perceived value of reflective practice within a policing context as an acquired change to their personal and professional identities during the process. There were two key areas that developed as themes within this research aim. Theme 1 contained three sub-themes.

4.3.4.1 Theme 1: Professional identity; the value of reflective practice for individual and service wide professional development

The findings from research aim 1 considered the adoption of reflective practices during the period of reflective timeout. This involved the transitions in participant's identities associated with reflection and the development of new insights. Sub theme 1 explored the facilitation of reflective practice and the development of self-awareness. Sub-theme 2 considered the development of emotional intelligence as a key concept associated with reflective practice.

In aim 2, the first sub-theme of theme 1 discusses the value that participants placed upon the development of reflective practices for ongoing professional development. This expands upon what I consider to be the changing professional identities of the participants in which reflective practice came to be understood as a valuable element of what it is to be a police officer. Whilst I consider the participants understanding of the value of reflective practice for their professional role in this section, it is emphasized that identity is understood as complex and I have by no means intended to dichotomize professional and personal identity, which continue to be understood as interrelated concepts.

4.3.4.1.1 Sub-theme 1: Professional identity; the value of reflective practice for being a police officer.

Participants described their experience of the reflective timeout sessions, and this was consistently regarded as a positive experience by all of them. Participant 3 for example said that they had found the sessions enjoyable and explained the impact that reflective practice has had for their professional development:

Because of this process I'm now doing something markedly different. I don't think it's monumentally changed what I do but it has had benefit in helping me to improve what I do.

Participant 3

Participant 3, above, referred to changes which have taken place due to the process and whilst this undoubtedly involved changes to their view of world, they also express here that this had enabled them to change and improve their performance. Earlier in section 4. 3. 3.1.2, I referred to my own learning about the complexity and demands involved in policing work through the practice situations that they reflected upon. Whilst I am again conscious of confidentiality, I observed this participant's management of a particular type of policing activity which formed a core element of their work on a repeated basis. This particular type of investigation was complex and upsetting for all involved. Not only this but they appeared to be exposed to it on a seemingly relentless basis. The participant reflected upon an example of this type of situation from their working month, during almost every session. I became increasingly mindful of the frustration that this particular type of event was causing them. There is of course a further element here of the identification and management of emotion, as described within the previous theme. Throughout the course of the sessions however, I observed that the participant had prioritized these situations as an area for professional improvement. Initially they reflected on these during the sessions and then increasingly throughout their ongoing practices. The participant began to develop professional strategies for solving these investigations (and managing the emotional impact). They de-

veloped an ability to achieve a positive outcome more often, and more quickly. The participant often expressed an increase to their own sense of professional satisfaction due to their service to the public but also their own sense of closure when the situation was resolved. Participant 3 explained this during their interview:

The self-evaluation was excellent really because like I say, you have the confidence to say what went well and what didn't go well. I know for a while the sessions, because of my role, a lot of my work is very similar, lots of incidents we discussed [subject removed] for an example, but you know articulating with you how I dealt with certain things, I may have bored you with [subject removed] whatever, but they were usually the things that quite regularly test myself and the vulnerability of the organization. I could see how I developed with the management of those situations and how I became more competent, more relaxed.

Participant 3

Below, Participant 4 also described changes in the approach to their work in which they began to practice reflectively. I again interpret this as an example of the development of reflective approaches to their work, and with the changing sense of professional identity in which reflection has come to be understood as valuable to their role as a police officer. They described the sessions as “massively beneficial” and further explained:

I've got a Deputy as well now which that's relieved some of the pressure, but it has made me look at all aspects of my life and think "How can I do things differently" which before I was just fighting an uphill battle but not really making any attempt to try and change things. But that's because you're so busy focusing on what you're doing, you're not really giving yourself time to think about it, so it has made me do it.

Participant 4

There is a further expression here of the participant developing a reflective approach to their professional work. This relates to some of the changes described in theme 1 in the transition to becoming a reflective but here the participant refers to the benefits for improving their practice.

It has made a difference, not massively because I've only been doing it a short period of time, but I do think a little bit more about what I've done, what I've achieved and how I've done it. But it has made me more task focused as well where, you know, I try and look at things, how I've done it and then look at whether I could have done it better, how I could have improved that. But also, for like new challenges to see what the best way is to try and get on top of that, so I think it definitely has.

Participant 4

The participant clearly expressed the changes to their thinking and again there appears to be a development of a more reflective approach to situations. There is also an articulation of how their thinking is now reflective and committed to ongoing improvements to their professional (and personal) performance. I understand this to be an example of how reflective practice has become part of professional identity. Many of the key writers advocate reflective practice for ongoing learning and professional development in nursing (Horton- Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017; Bulman, 2013; Caldwell & Grobell, 2013; The code, 2015; Jacobs, 2016; Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). The participant here expressed their experience of an equivalent value within a policing context. I reflect here upon my own experience of this participant's development during the reflective timeout sessions. I referred to the participants' professional situation during this period in their career earlier in theme 1. They were faced with what was experienced as unreasonable work demands due to a recent redeployment. The participant began the process in what I feared was a state of near burnout and the initial sessions were both emotional for them, and unsettling for me. The use of the word "challenge" in the above quote however is interesting because around halfway through the process, the language the participant used began to change. During the sessions we had initially allowed time for them to feel validated and heard before working together upon solutions. It was during this process that Participant 4 began to refer to examples of when they had independently used terms such as "solutions", "overcoming challenges" and "improvements" during the previous working month. I observed that the key breakthrough for them was when their reflections upon their situation lead them to write a detailed letter to their line manager outlining their concerns. This included a proposed action plan with detailed solutions, rather than merely an expression of grievances. As requested, this resulted in the deployment of an assistant to aid this participant with the demands of the role. The

effects were both practical and symbolic in terms of reducing their stress but also their feeling of being valued. From my reflective diary I noted that at this point they increasingly demonstrated a reflective approach to their practice. The participant also attended the sessions expressing an increase in confidence and job satisfaction and a reduction in fatigue.

Participant 5 also explained how the sessions had enabled them to enhance their practice and there are further references to affirming work practices on an ongoing basis:

Really, I found it really really valuable, to the point where I would, you know the availability of a counsellor for want of a better word, someone, a sounding board to mull over incidents which is hugely valuable, and it is like the coaching and mentoring thing. You don't necessarily need to know the ins and outs of the job. It's the process of having someone saying, "well why did you do that?" Just at the moment the thing that springs to mind was our conversation about [subject removed] that I did, and I think I started by saying "he didn't look right" so I stopped him, and it was through the process of "well why? What was he doing?" It was all in my head and it's just about drawing it out and knowing. Reflecting sometimes, it doesn't have to be about learning new stuff, it can be about affirmation of the skills that you already have because for that particular thing, I'd describe it as my radar going off "yes you're up to no good" and its by going through it, though things that lets me know what I was thinking. And that's actually become useful in training new officers, new specials, because that then gives me the tools to say, "well why doesn't he look right?"

Participant 5

There are a number of issues that I take from this participants' understanding of reflection here. There are further examples of the facilitation of reflective practice through guided reflection and this was discussed earlier in section 4.3.3.1.1. This then appears to have become an ongoing process. The participant also described what appears to be the process of reflecting on action in order to make explicit, the types of tacit knowledge referred to by Schön (1983). There is a further recognition of the use of reflective practice for improved effectiveness within the policing role, and thus a shift in professional identity which involves reflective practices.

The literature review, section 2.5.2 described the culture of policing as historically action based, non-reflective and suspicious of the public. Sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 considered the introduction of the CoP, and the changing identity of the service as a professional organization (CoP, 2015). Sections 2.3.8, earlier explored notions of identity and how the self has been understood throughout this these. Theme 1 of aim 1, considered the transitions in participant identity and the facilitation of reflective practice through guided reflection. I reiterate here that I have by no meant intended to dichotomize notions of personal and professional identity given the interrelated nature of the two. This sub-theme has however expanded upon how the transitions in identity associated with the adoption of reflective practices, impacted upon participants' sense of professional identity, and their perception of the value of reflective practice within their professional role. In sections 2.3.5 and 2.3.6 of the

literature review, concepts of critical reflection and reflexivity argued the interrelated nature of the individual and an awareness of the social, cultural, political and organizational context in which they understand their identity (Bass et al., 2017; Freshwater, 2008; Eby, 2000). The following section considers the police service more broadly as an organization. Here participants explored how the adoption of reflective approaches to practice (through guided reflection) would benefit the service as a whole. There is therefore a further argument for the more widespread adoption of reflective practice to enable a reflective culture as a key element of policing identity in its development as a profession. This is considered next.

4.3.4.1.2 Sub-theme 2: The perceived value of reflective practice for the professional development of the service.

The previous section 4.3.4.1.2 described the benefits of reflective practice as a tool for self-analysis and improved performance. In this sub-theme participants explored their perception of the benefits of a more widespread adoption of reflective practices for service development. Participant 5 for example explained the demands of the role, and how reflection may assist not only performance, but the way that officers are perceived. This relates to the discussion in section 2.4 of the literature review, which considered historical miscarriages of justice and the restoration of public trust (Reiner, 2010; Neyroud, 2011):

I think for police officers it's a really useful tool because quite often we find ourselves thrown into circumstances where you don't have time to think, you have to react and sometimes you do things and if you were to think about it afterward.

Oh, dear perhaps I should have done that a little bit more differently. So, we very often don't have time to think about beforehand, but I think reflective practice in those circumstances would be a very useful tool. And I know that a lot of the time Officers get criticized, you know for the way they deal with things, so I think if they had a bit of time to reflect, you know, we could all benefit from it.

Participant 5

Participant 4 explained a similar opinion about the benefits at service wide level and provides further support for the value of reflective practice previously suggested by Participant 5.

I honestly think that the Police Service as a whole would really, really benefit from it. Yes, we all get a bit stuck in our ways, you like to be in your comfort zone but you've got to look outside the box. There are so many challenges out there for all the emergency services, well for everyone not just the police. You know new things are coming in all the time and there is more and more burden on everybody. It doesn't really matter what line of work you are in now, there is always performance figures you know, and you're driven, everyone is and anything that can be introduced to make it more bearable has got to be helpful, it's just got to be.

Participant 4

Participant 4 referred to the benefits of reflective practice for ongoing service improvement across the emergency services, and here are obvious parallels with the nursing literature which considers the widely acknowledged benefits of reflective practice for safe and responsible nursing practice. Caldwell and Grobbi (2013) for example advocate the use reflective practice for positive practice outcomes and increased standards of patient care. The Code (2018) makes clear the central and mandatory nature of reflective practice for ensuring high standards of practice associated with professionalism, safety, effectiveness and promoting trust. McDonald (2013) also refers to the essential nature of reflection and the associated ongoing learning from experience which is associated with developing and maintaining competence. There are also parallels within the literature in 2.3.10, relating to the need to maintain safety and increase public trust following the public failures which led to the Francis report and following a number of miscarriages of justice within the police service (Holdaway, 2017), such as the investigation into Hillsborough disaster, the Stephen Lawrence enquiry and the over representation of black and Asian minority ethnic groups in the stop and search statistics (Holdaway, 2017; IPC, 2013; Reiner, 2010). This was discussed in section 2.4.1. It is possible to suggest therefore from some of the similarities in the literature, and the opinions of the participants, that a more widespread and visible adoption of reflective practices may improve police standards of practice and assist in the restoration and maintenance of public trust in the police. This possibility as an implication for practice is also considered in the concluding chapter when appraising the unique contribution of this research (section 5.4).

Participant 5 made a further point about their impression of the value that more formal systems for reflecting would have for the service as a whole. Here they suggested again that

reflective practice may become a critical process within policing which takes account of personal performance and an evaluation of the broader professional environment. There is a further suggestion therefore that reflective practice may have overall value for the ongoing improvement to policing and the professional development of the service. The participant here was referring to both an awareness of the situation and reflection after the event. It appears again here that there is an acknowledgement of the potential for greater levels of self-awareness for safe and responsible practice delivery at service wide level. They made the following point about the potential impact of the reflective sessions if they were available on a wider scale. Here again they refer to the value of critical reflection. Thus, it is suggested that, by allowing individuals to examine the broader organizational context, the widespread adoption of reflection and critical reflection therein would benefit the overall organization:

I think it's valuable because if tomorrow everyone in my district went through a similar process and was able to listen without feeling criticized and evaluate their particular process or the district's process in a critical way, I think it would be massively valuable, massively valuable.

Participant 5

Participant 5 made a further point about the value for them, of the process of reflective timeout and the implications for the service more broadly:

Yes, that's the main thing I take away from this. The ability to think critically about my performance, others performance, the forces performance, things that need changing.

Participant 5

Participant 5 therefore referred to the benefits for themselves but importantly there is also an acknowledgement of new insights into the organization as whole. What is most interesting is the participant's use of the word 'critical' in both of the two above quotes, for understanding the need for environmental change. The literature in section 2.3.5, considered critical reflection as a process of locating oneself within the broader social cultural and political environmental context (Bass et al., 2017; Freshwater, 2008; Eby, 2000) and understanding the power dynamics inherent within the environment (Freshwater, 2000; Reynolds, 2011; Hurley et al., 2009). There is also much written about reflective practice as a transformational and emancipatory process and its use for organizational change (Johns, 2017; Bolton and Delderfield, 2018). Likewise, there is a frequent acknowledgement of reflective practice as central to professionalism and professional identity within nursing (Bolton & Delderfield, 2018; Bass et al., 2017; Thompson, 2017; Johns, 2017; Bulmer 2013, Jasper & Mooney, 2013; Freshwater, 2008). In theme 1, I proposed that through the equivalent process of clinical supervision for the delivery of structured reflection, participants were able to become reflective practitioners. It is possible therefore that the development of reflective practice may be associated with the professional identity of police officers, and that this may be of benefit for the professionalism and ongoing improvement and professional development of the service as a whole. Participant 5 for example made a further comment about the collective value of reflective practice for improved service delivery. There is reference

again to the fast paced and complex nature of policing referred to within the literature (Neyroud, 2011, Waddington & Wright, 2010) and the historical tendency for immediate action and reaction (Reiner, 2010) but also for the value of critical reflection upon the service. This above quote provides an insight into this participant's understanding of the broader context in which they work and their interest in the policing environment more broadly. I suggest that this relates to the role of critical reflection for locating the broader social and political context rather than simply the individual (Bulman, 2013; Thompson & Thompson, 2018). This is an important point as it relates to Christopher's (2015) postulation that contemporary policing in the modern global and politically dynamic context, can be a critically reflective organization (if it wishes to be). In the concluding chapter in section 5.3.3, I consider the implications of more widespread adoption of reflective practice and thus how critical reflection may be important for understanding the governmental and politic context in which police policy and practice operates. Thus, critical reflection may provide the broader social and political context for understanding individual practice but also become key to affecting social and professional movement within the organization and affecting positive social change for service improvement and development at an organizational level.

This sub-theme has considered the perceived value of reflective practice for policing as an organization and there has been an argument for the more widespread adoption of systems of reflection within the shifting culture of policing. Whilst the value of reflective practice for the developing professional identity of the police has been discussed, in sub-theme 3, participants describe systems of reflection that already exist within the service.

4.3.4.1.3 Sub-theme 3: Reflective activity that already takes place within the police service

The previous section considered the perceived value of reflective practice for the police service. Here, sub-theme 3, considers instances where reflection already takes place. Whilst participants identified the value of reflective practice for being a professional police officer. There were however also a number of instances where reflective practice was not only recognized as valuable for ongoing learning and professional development, but it was identified that some form of it was already in use. From my work with the police, both during this research and with probationer police officers, I had become increasingly aware of the use of debriefing and either its use for structuring group reflection, or as a structure where this may be further developed. This did tend to be after significant or major incidents or certainly where things had not gone to plan. However, I have observed over the years, the increasing use of debriefing, on an ongoing and routine basis, often through the daily morning meeting. Here the participant described the use of debrief as a form of collective reflection for identifying potential improvements to practice:

Definitely lots of reflection after the event because for instance there is some cause of action and an officer is carrying that out they will have a debrief they will go through things look at what the outcomes were in some cases mistakes have been made so they will look as to what they can better there is a lot of reflection after the event.

Participant 1

Participant 2 also explained the existing use of reflective practice referred to by the previous participant. They also referred to the increased use of debriefing as a method for cooperate or group reflection as a learning tool. They stated:

We are constantly learning, and we all need to get better at what we are doing, and no one is perfect. By reflecting and looking back or de-briefing, we call it and the police are getting more into de-briefing.

Participant 2

This participant also referred to an increasing acknowledgement of the need to learn from practice within policing. This provided an example of reflective structures that already exist within policing as an element of the continued modernization agenda. I expand upon this further when referring to the line manager interviews. Whilst Christopher (2015) alludes to the potential for the policing organization to be reflective, until now the existence of reflective structures already within policing have been paid little or no attention within the literature. When describing the process of review, Participant 2 again described processes that they consider to be broadly reflective:

They have always done it but now they do it a lot more. They realize the importance of going back and starting again; really saying we went out, this was the plan, the plan to do this and it went pear shaped and we didn't expect this to

happen so next time when we look at it we will account for things that might happen.

Participant 2

There is again an understanding of instances of where reflecting upon events for professional improvement may already take place. This theme has therefore considered the value of reflective practice for professional identity and professional development. Sub-theme 1 considered the changes to participant's professional identities associated with the adoption of reflective practice within their role (and an acknowledgement of the value of it). Theme 2 considered the widespread adoption of reflective practice and the perceived value for overall professional development and service improvement. An argument was made for the use of reflective practice as part of the transition in the culture of policing in which it adopts a professional identity. Theme 3 below considers the participants understanding of the value of the reflective time out sessions for emotional support and personal wellbeing.

4.3.4.2 Theme 2: Reflective support promotes staff wellbeing

The previous theme considered professional identity and the value of reflective practice for individual and service wide professional development. Theme 3 considered the value of the reflective timeout for emotional support within a policing context. There is much written about the demanding nature of professional roles including both nursing (White, 2016) and policing (IPC, 2013; Neroud, 2011; Waddington & Wright, 2010). There is far less acknowledgement however of the emotional impact that the demands of the policing role have on

individuals. This contrasts with the health professions for example in which the benefits of clinical supervision for staff wellbeing are widely endorsed (White, 2016; Wallbank, 2013; Bayliss, 2014; Calvert, 2014; CQC, Bond & Holland, 2010; Proctor, 1986). Much of the relevant literature refers to Proctor's (1986) threefold understanding of the functions of clinical supervision, which include the restorative function of staff support.

In this section of the chapter I report participants' expressions of the benefits they experienced from the sessions, for emotional support and wellbeing. This continues from the findings of themes one which identified the development of emotional intelligence for assisting with the identification and management of emotion within policing as a demanding role. Thus, the sessions were considered to have had a positive impact upon participants' ability to better maintain their own wellbeing and manage stress and the potential for burnout. There was also a further (related) element of the sessions which related the process (practically and symbolically) of feeling supported. As well as supporting participants in identifying areas for professional development, and assisting in becoming reflective (linking self-awareness, mindfulness and emotional intelligence). I also wanted to foster a relationship with each of the participants based upon trust and kindness for the provision of support and human care.

All the participants regarded the reflective sessions as a positive experience on a number of levels. Above, the value of the reflective practices (which developed during the period of reflective timeout) was considered for ongoing professional development. Here however the participants recognized the therapeutic value of the period of reflective timeout for

providing emotional support. Policing is generally acknowledged as a challenging role which involves repeated exposure to traumatic and unpredictable situations (Waddington & Wright, 2010; Millie, 2013; Cosgrove, 2016, Christopher, 2015). Many of the recent policy documents also highlight the increasing demands of the role including rapid and ongoing changes to procedure and reductions to resources (CoP, 2015). As discussed earlier, there is much written within the nursing literature about the emotional demands involved in caring for patients. Much of the literature considers the role of reflective practice for promoting emotional wellbeing and reducing stress and burnout, including Proctor's (1986) understanding of the restorative function of supervision, which is frequently cited. Whilst I acknowledge that policing and nursing are different roles, from my experience of working closely with policing staff over a number of years I recognize a simulator level of physical and emotional burden in both professionals. There has been far less attention however to the benefits of providing emotional support for policing staff other than discrete periods of counselling following a traumatic event. Earlier in section 2.5.2 I also referred the culture of machismo in policing and the downplaying of the emotional needs of staff (Reiner, 2010). Here however participants emphasized the value of feeling supported. Participant 1 for example explored their feelings about the impact of being offered support:

I think you know I found it very worthwhile and I have enjoyed the counselling side of it has opened up the idea. I have always been of the idea that I can cope and don't need to discuss anything with anyone else or if I had it would be with family so it is nice to discuss things with someone with no emotional buy-in or connection with the situation and I found that really useful and the techniques you have mentioned along the way I have started to use.

Participant 1

In the findings from the research aim 1 section 4.3.3.1.2, discussed earlier, I described how this participant developed strategies for the management of their emotional responses to situations and the development of what they referred to as “the bubble”. This acted as a shield for self-protection and the management of stress. I regarded this as associated with emotional intelligence as well as self-awareness. During the sessions I also observed an increase in this participant’s confidence when expressing their feelings about work situations particularly the worry about whether they had done the right thing. I see this again as related to the development of emotional intelligence, as well as feeling supported in general. All the participants (understandably) were somewhat cautious during the early sessions and I was anxious about whether I would be able to overcome this given that the whole experience was new to most of the participants, not to mention outside their culture norms. I observed that this participant was particularly wary during the initial meeting and I reflected a great deal on the ways I could build their trust in me. I should acknowledge that I had not intended to provide counselling in its most traditional form, but rather structured assisted reflection as stated throughout the research, although there was inevitably a degree of overlap due to the supportive nature of the sessions and the interrelationship between the professional and personal identities. The above quote from participant 1 in which they refer to “counselling side”, I understand to mean their feeling about the value of the therapeutic nature of the process.

Participant 4 also explained how they had found the sessions helpful for their emotional wellbeing. This supports much of the literature which advocates the use of clinical supervision within a health context for staff wellbeing (White, 2016; Wallbank, 2013; Bayliss, 2014; Calvert, 2014; CQC, 2013; Bond and Holland, 2010; Proctor, 1986). They found the supervision process valuable on many levels, the most significant for them was the support that they received in managing their stress levels. This was partly achieved through acknowledging the participant's distress and as I stated earlier, allowing them to feel as though they had been heard. Throughout the sessions however I assisted the participant in exploring ways that they could manage their work pressures by reflecting upon both their emotions and the practical changes that they could make. They described the impact of this:

I'm really grateful for the opportunity to get involved in it and it really has assisted me. You know, like I said earlier, and I want to say this for the benefit of the tape. You know, I went through that really difficult 6 months and this process really did make a difference to me.

Participant 4

Here the participant endorses the value of the reflective sessions and the positive impact that it had upon them. This partly related to the developments in new ways of thinking associated with the development of reflective practice which was discussed earlier. There is also evidence of the restorative function of supervision referred to by Proctor (1986) for assisting staff in surviving the demands of the work environment. The participant also made the following observation about what I interpret as the therapeutic feel to the sessions and

the feeling of being listened to and supported, in a similar way to Participant 1. I referred to the first section of this comment earlier. However, I reconsider it here also in this context:

I found your style really, really relaxing. Your whole mannerisms, you make them the right kind of positive noises, you know you looked interested. What you do seem interested in, and I'm sure you are, but that whole sort of experience has really been positive for me and it made me feel that I was supported where I haven't felt like that in my own job and like as an extension of my work, you know, it really did get me through a really difficult period and I was lucky that it fell when it did.

Participant 4

This participant made a final comment about their perception of the value of supervision for enabling reflective practice across the service. Here they referred to their lived experience the increasing pressure within the policing environment which recent policing documentation refers to, and the results of this for an increase in staff sickness and a reduction in morale throughout the service (Neyroud, 2011). They also make the association between reflective practice and the management of the demands of the role as beneficial for all staff:

Well I think it's something that they really need to look at. The expectations of Police Officers are so much higher than they ever were. I'm not saying that we've always done a good job but I think everybody always works to the best of their

ability but the pressures now in like the modern like policing it's very difficult. There's less staff to do things and more people go off sick, morale is at an all-time low and I think that they need to look at something to try and help people cope with like their daily business and I think reflective practice would be an excellent tool to do it.

Participant 4

It is noted here that when Participant 4 referred to the benefits of reflective practice, it was in relation to its facilitation through the reflective timeout sessions. It is also contended however that the development of reflective practices associated with self-aware and emotional intelligence were initially facilitated through reflective timeout but became ongoing processes which impact positively upon the wellbeing of the individual beyond the period of guided reflection. Participant 5 expressed a similar view of the value of reflection and the reflective sessions for the reduction of work-based pressure and suggested that a process which made an increasingly stressful working environment more bearable would be of universal benefit. The participant thus stated:

It doesn't really matter what line of work you're in now, there's always performance, figures you know, and you're driven, everybody is, and anything that can be introduced to make that more bearable has got to be helpful, it's just got to be.

Participant 5

There is a further articulation of the value of the sessions for allowing the development of reflective thinking from participant 4. The reflective thinking is what was being referred to in this next quote as a “tool”. They also referred to this in turn, to the merits of this for managing the unpredictability of the job. This notion of challenging work, which is unpredictable by nature, was identified earlier and is well documented within the policing literature (CoP, 2015):

I mean people that I work with and a lot of my police colleagues, you know they go into work every day, you never know what you're going to face, especially if you're on front line policing, you know it can be a very stressful job and I think to have a tool to help yourself while you're out there doing it, it would be massive it really would.

Participant 4

The emotional benefits of supervision reported by the participants support the widespread understanding of its importance for the overall wellbeing of public professionals. Wallbank (2013) for example highlights the demanding nature of public sector work and recommended the use of reflective activity via clinical supervision to assist in the management of stress, and the reduction of professional burnout. Bayliss (2014), also refers to similar benefits for stress reduction in earlier work. Calvert (2014) further concurs and advocates the importance of reflective practice for the emotional wellbeing of professional staff. The Care Quality Commission (CQC, 2013) earlier sanctioned the mandatory use of clinical supervision within the health professions as an aid to managing the demands of the role. Morrison

(2001) further considers one of the key functions of clinical supervision as being the provision of a mechanism for personal support. Bond and Holland (2010) provides further endorsement of this and referred to the restorative functions of supervision as posited by Proctor (1986).

In the following section of this chapter, I turn to the interviews with line managers. There will be a further emulation of the perceived value of supportive supervision by line managers which supports those expressed here by the participants. This will therefore be considered in more detail in the final chapter I which I argue that given the nature of the work that police undertake, there would be a supportive function to developing equivalent mechanisms of the providing supervision for policing staff. It will be further argued that there are beneficial implications for the reduction in stress and burnout which would benefit the individual and overall service as a whole and may result in reduced staff sickness and increased productivity. The practice and policy implications of this will be considered in section 5.3.6 and 5.3.7 of the final chapter however here I summarize the findings for research aim 2.

4.3.4.3 Summary of the findings from aim 2

Aim 2 of the participant interviews was to explore the value of the reflective practices that may have developed during the sessions. Here participants articulated their positive experiences of the process and the value of developing reflective approaches for ongoing learning and professional development. This was identified as being of value for the individual and wider service delivery. It was argued that this represented a change in professional identity in which reflective practice came to be understood as valuable to their role a police officer. There was a further identification of the supportive element of the sessions and the

benefits for emotional wellbeing which overlapped with the development of emotional intelligence. The next section revisits both of the aims of the research, now in relation to the interviews with line managers of the participants (Data collection tool 2, phase 2).

4.4 Line manager semi-structured interviews (Data collection tool 2)

After the period of reflective timeout sessions, I interviewed the participants (Data collection tool 1). The following section considers the findings from the line manager interviews (Data collection tool 2). I wanted to explore the line managers' perspectives on the value of reflection in relation to the aims of the research. Of the five line managers approached by the researcher, two had left the organization. Individual interviews took place with each of the three remaining line managers. The duration of the interviews was between 45 and 55 minutes. As with the participants, interviews with the line managers also included prompts (see appendix 8). Details of the duration of the interviews is shown in the following table.

Table 4.4: Table of Interview durations, data collection tool 2

Line manager	Interview duration (minutes)
1	45
2	55
3	50

Following transcription, each paragraph within the data was numbered and each line was interpreted using initial codes. This was in keeping with the model of thematic analysis presented by Braun and Clarke (2013), and was the same approach used for the participant interviews. Table 4.5 contains the number of initial codes identified for each participant.

Table 4.5: Table of Initial codes from data collection tool 2

Line manager	Number of codes
1	50
2	120
3	83

The table below summarizes the findings from the research using data collection tool 2. These are presented as themes according to the aims of the research. Aim 1. Whilst the data for the line manager interviews was not as extensive for that of the participants, the findings were similar. Line managers also observed changes to the participants associated with becoming more reflective and self-aware (aim 1), They also recognized the value of reflective for both the wellbeing of staff, and professional development within the service.

Table 4.6: Summary of the themes from the research aims 1 and 2

Research aim 1	To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context
Theme 1	The development of reflective practices
Research aim 2	To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.
Theme 1	The value of supervision: staff wellbeing and stress management
Theme 2	The value of reflective practice: service development

4.4.1 Research aim 1

4.4.1.1. Theme 1: The development of reflective practices and self-awareness

The following section relates to the perceived value of the timeout sessions for the facilitation of reflective practice from the line manager perspective. I explored this with the line manager for participant 4. The line manager clearly recognized they had found it a positive experience

Oh, without a shadow of a doubt.

Line manager for Participant 4

The line manager went on to describe the changes that they have observed to the participant's professional performance. Here they describe an increase in the participant's concentration and their ability for self-analysis. The participants previously described changes to their professional practices with the development of their reflective ability. What this statement appears to add, is a further observation about the development of reflective practices and improvements to their performance:

In the time I've known them up here, they, well they've obviously got to grips with the job itself, they have an ability to stick with one job longer rather than flit so I have noticed that. They are self-critical.

Line manager for Participant 4

They further alluded to this as being attributable to the supervision process:

And so, whatever they have learned from the work they have done with you, they've [gender reference removed] clearly taken it on board.

Line manager for Participant 4

In the literature in chapter two, section 2.5.2, referred to the tendency towards a culture of reaction within policing which was also identified within the literature (Rainer, 2010; Blake-more & Patterson, 2012; Myhill & Bradford, 2012) however here there is an observation of the development of a more reflective approach to the participant's work, as described by the participant's themselves. The line manager for participant 2 provides a further example of this in their observation about the conscious nature of their reflection:

At the time, I probably think that I thought it was just that that's the way that they operated. On reflection now, knowing that the process they were going through I could see that they consciously wanted to take time to talk about it, and to come in and speak to me and then wanted to buy time, didn't wanna make a decision about things, wanted to go away and think about it and then come back.

Line manager for Participant 2

The line manager for participant 2 also observed the following change in behaviour relating to their ability to express themselves.

I think it, I would say it probably changed them as a person in terms of how they approached things and how freely they would share what was going on around them, you know, internally and externally about what was going on.

Line manager for Participant 2

This appears to be an observation about the increase in emotional intelligence associated with transitions in participant identities which I referred to when discussing the participant interviews. Whilst the benefits of reflective practice were frequently referred to by participants, this line manager raised a caution about the ability to be reflective and how this may single the participant out for being different:

I think the other thing is because the environment that policing is in terms of a peer group it's very difficult for it not to be apparent to others that when you're stopping and thinking about things or you want some time to reflect or your language and the way you talk to other people, it can be starkly different from some of those around you. Now that might be great in the long run, but it might make the individual feel a bit isolated because they feel different and it might make others react to them slightly differently because they're going, well that's a bit different, I didn't expect that. And much as you could look, you know, from a third party, stand back and go that's brilliant, I like the difference, I embrace, you know, someone doing things in a different way it can also be seen as a negative.

Line manager for Participant 2

Whilst significant benefits of reflective activity were identified by both participants and line managers, the above statement suggested a potential negative implication of the process. The line manager further stated:

For the individual, I think that's another pressure and if you appreciate the fact that other people are looking at you and thinking, they think I'm different, you know, it's a team mentality, it is, you know, a group of individuals working collectively. If you feel different it can be an uncomfortable place.

Line manager for Participant 2

They therefore considered the potential implications for operating differently. This further resonates with the transitions towards reflective ways of practicing described within the participant interviews (data collection tool 1). Whilst recent changes within the police have seen an increased imperative for systems of professionalization, the literature referred to an underlying culture of pragmatism, immediate action and reaction which is referred to here (Reiner, 1985; Neyroud, 2011; Myhill & Bradford, 2012). Bolton and Delderfield (2018) also refer to the discomfort of challenging taken for granted assumptions and this, according to Hargreaves and Page (2013), requires courage. Again, the concluding chapter considers more widespread adoption of reflective practices as recommended by the CoP (2015) as an integral feature of professionalism which may begin to move beyond non reflective cultures where participant 2's displays of reflective self-awareness become regarded less frequently as outside the cultural norms.

4.4.1.2 Summary of aim 1

Two of the line managers observed changes to the participants that they line managed. Participant 4 for example was observed to have adopted a more thoughtful approach to

practice. There is further evidence that supports the development of self-awareness and reflective approaches to practice. This supported the notion of the development of self-awareness referred to by the participants, and in nursing research such as Dawber (2013) in which the benefits of clinical supervision groups included increased confidence and self-awareness for positive patient outcomes. Participant 2 was described as having become more self-aware. This was considered to be both positive and potentially negative in setting the participant apart from the cultural norms within the service. The following section considers the second research aim relating to the perceived value of reflective practice for policing.

4.4.2 Research Aim 2

4.4.2.1 Theme 1: The value of supervision; staff wellbeing and stress management

In the previous findings from the participant interviews (section 4.3.4.2) participants referred to the benefits of the sessions for emotional support and wellbeing. What the line manager interviews add here is a much greater expansion upon some of the types of situation that police officers might encounter and the often-traumatic nature of the work. In the discussion of the participant interviews I omitted description of the types of cases because they related to real situations that we had discussed during our sessions. I have included the following description of the types of work police officers may encounter since it is a hyper-athletic account of policing situations. It also powerfully acknowledges the trauma that may be experienced by front line staff, which has not always been well acknowledged within the service. Line manager for Participant 2 for example described the potential for traumatic responses to dealing with death:

So staff that have dealt with something really traumatic, whether it's, you know, if they go to a sudden death and it's a child or a knock-down or a particularly gruesome one, you know, even the most straightforward of deaths, a dead body that's been there for quite some time can be really traumatic for somebody who's not experienced that.

Line manager for Participant 5

They also referred to the impact of dealing with a stressful situation for staff over a sustained period and the high levels of resultant stress related illness. This line manager further suggested, however, in their capacity as a line manager, that they provided a form of reflective supervision with staff. They made the following comment about its use as a tool for staff welfare and managing the build-up of stress:

I think it's hugely useful, mainly because I've also seen, policing's always had, it's almost been a standing joke outside of policing, the number of officers that end up with sickness problems because it is a stressful job, there are stressful situations that happen, okay they might not happen day-in, day-out, but the collective impact of those things over time can have a massive impact on somebody

Line manager for Participant 5

This line manager referred to the incremental buildup of stress and the demands of policing as a stressful job. I referred to this earlier in section 4.3.4.2, when referring to the participant interviews, and it was also a feature of the literature in section 2.5.2, which considered the challenging nature of the role (Waddington & Wright, 2010; Millie, 2013; Christopher, 2015) and the continued exposure to danger which has historically contributed to the insular culture of the police, as referred to by Cosgrove (2016). I remember this being referred to within nursing and particularly prison health, as the drip drip drip effect which was chronic and insidious, and often considered far more damaging on an ongoing basis than a one-off traumatic event. The line manager for Participant 3 further confirmed the difficult nature of the role referred to by the line manager for participant one. However, they referred to a culture in which unpleasant situations were accepted as part of the role, and there was both a historical and current expectation that fitness for practice involves an ability to cope with adverse situations:

I mean we dealt with some quite nasty things, but it was pretty much, look, that's happened, get over and get on with it. And then I suppose initially when I joined the police, I think there was a bit of that 'cos there's a lot of old-time bobbies that say that's just the job, if you can't, if you're not up to it don't join the job, you shouldn't've joined the job.

Line manager for Participant 3

In the section 4.3.4.2, I described the participants' expression of the value of the sessions for emotional support within a stressful role. I suggested that there is much within the

literature about the demanding nature of nursing (Bulman, 2013; Bolton & Deldifield, 2018) and the restorative function of clinical supervision for the management of stress and reduction in potential burn out (White, 2016). I also argued that whilst it is acknowledged that policing is a high pressure demanding job (Waddington & Wright, 2010; Millie, 2013; Christopher, 2015) there has historically been much less acknowledgement within the profession, of the trauma that may be caused to staff, or the need to support staff emotionally (on an ongoing basis rather than with standalone counselling sessions following a specific event). As I suggested in the participant interviews, section 4.3.4.2, this may be considered surprising given the nature of the role and the tasks that officers are expected to perform. Indeed, the above quote adds an account of not only the challenging nature of the role, but confirmation in this line manager's opinion of the expectation that police officers just 'get on with it'. It is my contention therefore that there is further evidence here of the value that similar systems of reflective practice may have (referred to as reflective timeout in this policing research) for the wellbeing of policing staff. This as I will argue in the final chapter may have implications for the wellbeing of staff working in stressful and sometimes traumatic conditions on an ongoing basis and the development of resilience (not to mention the positive effects for the quality of service delivery, staff retention and a reduction in the incidence of staff sickness as overall benefits to the service).

The line manager for Participant 4 for example also advocated the value of reflective supervision for supporting staff. They considered their role in supporting staff, by allowing them to express their feelings. Here they refer to systems for supporting staff which already exist. They stated:

So to sit down with staff and encourage, either for me to do it or for, to say as an Inspector you can sit down with your Sergeants and your PCs and talk them through, how are they feeling, offer them the opportunity either to discuss it with you or they can have some counselling through occupational health.

Line manager for Participant 4

Whilst the line manager for participant line manager 4 describes their own practice in providing staff support, the line manager for participant 5 also refers to the importance of supporting staff as a concern across the whole organization:

It might not always work for everybody, but I think it's certainly important enough to encourage it to happen to a degree consistently across the board, it might just limit the one or two that maybe don't feel that comfortable in talking about how things have impacted or how they impact on others, just to release that valve a little bit before it goes wrong.

Line manager for Participant 5

I suggest here that there is further support within this statement for the development of systems of staff supervision across the organization for the maintenance of staff welfare, and a reduction in levels of stress and burnout. In the final chapter sections 5.3.6 and 5.3.7 I consider the potential for the implementation of similar systems of supervision as they are

currently understood within nursing, within a policing context. I also discuss the policy implications of this. The following section considers the perceived value of reflection as articulated by the line managers for ongoing learning and service development and overall standards of practice.

4.4 4.2 Theme 2: The value of reflective practice: service development

Section 4.3.4.1.1 considered the participants' opinions on the value of reflective practice their professional development. Line managers also supported this. However, what the line managers' interviews add is a further articulation of some of the structures for reflection which already exist. Except for Participant 5, all participants and line managers identified the formal debrief as a form of reflective tool. This was used to identify areas for practice improvement following events or specific incidents. This was articulated as being effective as a tool for reflection to various degrees. Participant 5 in section 4.3.3.1 for example suggested that debriefs are often only employed after a negative practice outcome or a staff injury. The line manager for Participant 4 however, referred to ad hoc debriefs following an incident, and more regular reflective discussions during daily meetings each morning. They stated:

I think the police do this on a regular basis, we have debriefs after operations and, you know, we do briefings at the beginning of every shift and obviously look back at what's been done the previous shift.

Line manager for Participant 4

Line manager for Participant 5 also referred to their own formal use of team debriefs as a source of reflective learning for ongoing service development (although Participant 5 suggested this tended to relate to mainly serious, rather than daily incidents):

Yeah, I would say we, it depends obviously which department you are in here I tend to get them back in and I'd say right, what's happened today. Because some of it I've got to report on anyway and some of it I'll force it upon my, like I go on a morning meeting.

Line manager for Participant 5

There is an acknowledgement of the inclusion of debrief for the promotion of reflective thinking in simulation-based learning for student nurses (Decker et al., 2013; Tutticci, Ryan, Coyer & Lewis, 2018). Clark and McClean, (2018), also advocate the value of debrief following serious ward-based incidents such as cardiac arrest. Furthermore, Gardiner (2013, p. 166) refers to debriefing as the 'linchpin' of post experience learning and has its roots in a number of American professions such as education and aviation, and the Military (initiated during World War II). The potential for future explorations of the use of existing structures for police debrief in a more formally reflective way for service learning and development are considered in the recommendations section of the concluding chapter.

The line manager for Participant 2 referred to a more general interest in the use of reflective thinking as a feature of policing. They described the development of techniques for organizational learning that were based around reflective activity for professional improvement. These were usually targeted at higher grades, as a component of the leadership process for career development:

I've been through a fair bit of leadership development, fortunately in the police I've had the benefit of going on a number of courses where, maybe not explicitly, but definitely the theme has been to encourage reflection on your own practice, on your own experience.

Line manager for Participant 2

There is much written about the development of reflection, and self-awareness as a leadership skill (Stonehouse, 2015) and indeed emotional intelligence (Heckman, et al., 2015). There is therefore evidence of this as a feature of leadership programmes as a feature of police management training and education. The line manager for participant 5 also described their understanding of the process of reflection as a tool for learning and the function of it for continued professional improvement:

So, my understanding is that it, in simple terms, it's the ability to step away from the context and the working environment and to just rewind a little bit and under-

stand what's the impact on me. How have the experiences and the working scenarios, how have they impacted on me? What have I learned from it and, moving forward, what would I do differently? And what strategies maybe do I need to put in place to cope with it better?

Line manager for Participant 5

Participant 5's line manager also observed the value of reflective activity within policing as tool for organizational learning, and for other areas of their life. This was a similar emulation to participant 4. They further suggested that reflection is not only valuable for policing but already used within the service:

Absolutely useful in policing. I think it's useful in every day-to-day life to be fair, you know, to look back on, things, in personal lives and within a working environment. You know, I think the police do this on a regular basis.

Line manager for Participant 5

Of the three line managers interviewed, there was unanimous support for the value of reflective practice for both the emotional wellbeing of staff, and for personal and organizational development and learning. There was also an identification of some examples of where it may already be in use. This supports the participants' understanding of its use for personal and service professional development. I summarize below the findings from aim 2 of the research from the line manager interviews (data collection tool 2).

4.4. 3 Summary of the findings from aim 2

Line managers were asked their opinion about the value of reflective practice and here there were two themes. The first related to the challenging nature of police work and the value of supporting staff emotionally through what I understood to be reflective discussions. The second theme related to the overall value of reflective practices for the police service and this identified not only a positive opinion of its value for service development, but examples of where it was considered to be already taking place. I consider the implications of this in further detail in the concluding chapter.

4. 5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the findings from the research according the aims. Both data collection tools were considered in turn. These were the participant interviews (Phase 1, data collection tool 1) and then the line manager interviews (Phase 2, data collection tool 1). The themes and any subsequent sub-themes were therefore presented for both according to each of the research aims. Section 4.3.3 considered the participant interviews (data collection tool 1). There were two research aims:

Aim 1: To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context (Section 4.3.3)

For aim 1, two key sub-themes were identified. Sub-theme 1 (section 4.3.3.1) described changes in identity associated with becoming reflective. This included an ability to reflect for ongoing learning and the development of new insights and, the development of self-awareness. Sub-theme 2 (section 4.3.3.2) described the development of emotional intelligence as an integral component of reflective practice.

Aim 2: To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing (4.3.4).

The findings from aim 2, naturally followed from this. There were two emergent themes. In the theme 1, there were three sub-themes. In sub theme 1 (section 4.3.4.1.1) participants considered changes to professional identity associated with becoming a reflective practitioner. There was a reconstruction of their understanding of what it was to be a police officer in which reflective practice for service delivery and ongoing professional development became understood as a valuable element of their role. Sub-theme 2 (section 4.3.4.1.2) explored the perceived positive benefits of reflective practice for overall service delivery. In sub-theme 3, (section 4.3.4.1.3) participants described examples of where reflective activity already takes place within the service.

Theme 2 of aim 2, explored the positive effects of reflective practice and the reflective timeout itself, for staff wellbeing in a stressful and demanding role (Section 4.3.4.2).

Section 4.3.4 contained the line manager interviews for 3 of the participants (data collection tool 2). This was according to the same research aims. The findings supported the participant interviews.

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context (Section 4.3.3)

For aim 1 of the research, two of the line managers observed changes to the participants, consistent with the development of self-awareness and reflection (section 4.4.1.1).

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing (4.3.4).

For aim 2 two sub-themes were identified. Sub-theme 1 further supported the participant interviews, identifying examples where reflective activity already takes place. This included the widespread understanding of the use of police debrief as a reflective meeting following policing events. Sub-theme 2 (section 4.4.1.2) provided a more graphic understanding of the nature of policing work and further supported the participant's view of the value of reflective supervision for staff support and wellbeing. This chapter has considered the findings from this research. The final chapter contains the conclusion which considers their implications.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented the findings according to the research aims for both phases of the research. The final chapter of this doctoral thesis concludes the research, it includes a discussion of the extent to which the research has met the research aims; the implications of the research for police, practice, policy, education and research; alongside the unique contribution of this research and limitations of the study.

5.2 Meeting the research aims

In this research I provided reflective timeout for five police officers, based upon the principles of reflective practice within a nursing context. As discussed throughout the thesis, a key inspiration for the development of the research aims was the work by Esterhuizen and Freshwater (2008) who proposed that the facilitation of reflection through clinical supervision may enable the development of reflective practice. Such systems of reflective thinking may become a key component of a practitioner's professional identity in which reflection becomes a way of being. From this assertion, the research aims were developed as follows:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

In order to address these aims, the research adopted a qualitative, interpretivist and reflexive approach to the construction of knowledge. This was underpinned by a postmodern critical lens which regards knowledge and ways of viewing the world, to be constructed within the social context in which they are understood, rather than discovered as objective fact. This reflected the qualitative approach to research associated with understanding subjective meanings and experience as discussed in chapter three (Bryman, 2013). It was also considered to be consistent with postmodern understandings of identity as discussed within chapter two in which the self is considered fluid and context specific rather fixed and unchanging. In the following section the aims are considered in turn, and the extent to which the research has achieved them. I consider both data collection tool one: the participant interviews, and data collection tool two: the line manager interviews.

5.2.1 Research aim 1

This aimed to explore feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context. This research was inspired by the widespread acknowledgement of the value of reflective practice for professional development within many of the welfare professions. In the first aim I explored the potential for the facilitation of ongoing reflective practices via a period of guided reflection. The literature including Freshwater

(2008), suggests that structured reflection via clinical supervision can facilitate reflective practice for ongoing professional development. Likewise, Johns (2004) refers to levels of reflection in the development of the internal supervisor and mindfulness reflection as a way of being. I therefore implemented a similar process of guided reflection with the aim of promoting reflective practice but couched in terminology 'reflective timeout' which better reflected the nature of the policing role. The findings identified an overall theme in relation to the changes of identity experienced by the participants during the process of reflective time out. This was both expressed by the participants themselves during their interviews and observed in my own diary notes of the process. There were two key features of this and although I have described them separately, I fully recognise the interrelated nature of them in terms of the way that participants came to recognise their sense of self. Firstly, participants described what I recognised to be a transition in which they became reflective throughout their practice, and this was supported by my own observations. This involved the development of self- awareness and mindfulness and the synthesis of thinking feelings and action. The development of reflective practices became evident within the reflective timeout sessions and as an ongoing activity throughout the participants' ongoing professional practice. In turn, examples of this transition to reflective thinking were described as a process which took place following policing situations as reflection on action. This was also coupled with evidence of the development of an ability to be self-aware and mindful prior to and during events. I considered both of these to be consistent with much of the contemporary literature which describes reflective practice as a state of being, centrally bound up with mindfulness and self- awareness (Finley, 2008; Caley, 2017; Jacobs. 2015). It is also con-

sistent with the facilitation of reflective practice via guided reflection referred to by Freshwater (2008) and the development of the internal supervisor for reflection as being mindful (Johns, 2004).

Likewise, as an interrelated element of the transitions in identity, participants described or displayed what I recognised to be the development of emotional intelligence. This related for example, to Participant 1's account of the bubble as a protective shield against over-investing emotionally, and the development of Participant 4's ability to recognise and manage the emotional demands of their role. Here there was an account of the development of emotional awareness and the ability to regulate emotion and identify the needs of others. Similarly, I also observed the development of Participant 5's ability to connect emotionally and during the process I noted a transition from intellectual responses to an intermingling of both intellectual thought and feeling. I therefore consider that both of the elements of the transitions in identity identified within this research, are consistent with the literature which describes the principles of reflective practice. To this end I therefore argue that this aim has been met.

I also suggest that there is further evidence of the satisfaction of this aim from the line manager interviews. I must acknowledge however that the data which supports this is less extensive and the potential for this to be considered more comprehensively in the final section of this chapter. Two line managers however did describe observed changes to the behaviour of the staff that participated. This was consistent with a transition towards more reflective and mindful approaches to their professional practice associated with the development

of self- awareness. Whilst albeit to a lesser extent, I consider the line manager observations to also provide further support that aim one of this research has been met.

5.2.2 Research aim 2

It was my intention to explore the perceived value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development, having first attempted to facilitate its development. In section 4.3.3, participants described positive outcomes from the period of reflective timeout. There were two elements to this. Sub theme 1 identified the overall value of reflection for professional development for both the individual and the overall organisation. What was evident throughout the findings here was a recognition by participants that reflection had allowed them to make ongoing improvements to their policing practice. This was both in terms of their assessment after an event, but it was also described as having been beneficial for more mindful and confident decision making whilst undertaking their work. I argued that this represented a change to professional identity related to the first aim, in which reflective practice came to be understood to be a valuable element of being a police officer, for ongoing professional development. In section 4.3.4.1.2 participants further described how more widespread use of reflective practice amongst staff, would benefit the organisation overall in the delivery of a more effective and professional service. It was argued that this may assist in facilitating a new culture of policing in its transition to a professional identity.

Line manager interviews from data collection tool 2 further supported the value of reflection for individual professional development and It was also suggested that this could have positive outcomes for the quality of service delivery. What the line manager interviews in section

4.4.4.2 added however was an insight into some of the examples of reflective practice that already take place within everyday policing and the positive value that this has. Both participants and line managers with only one exception, referred to the use of debrief as an organisational learning tool. Two of the line managers in section 4.4.4.2 also described the reflective discussions that they already have with their staff and the positive implications of this for ongoing learning and professional development. I contend that the emergence of the evidence which suggests that reflective practice would be valuable for ongoing professional development within the service, has allowed me to meet this aim of the research. I make further recommendations for future research, regarding the exploration of structured debrief as a more formal process of group reflection in section 5.6.2 in this chapter.

The second sub theme was concerned with the perceived benefits of the sessions for emotional wellbeing. This overlaps with the findings from aim 1 which identified the development of emotional intelligence for both the recognition and management of participant feelings. There is wide acknowledgement of the benefits of reflective practice within the nursing literature and this included the restorative function, often attributed to Proctor (1986). Participants recognised their improved sense of well-being, and this was expressed during their interviews in section 4.3.4.2 for example. I also observed this as their supervisor, and in the findings chapter I provided a particular example of this in relation to participant 4, again in section 4.3.4.2. Line managers provided a further account of for the supportive function of supervision and their commitment to the delivery of their own version of it in section 4.4.2.1. What the line manager interviews added however was a much more graphic description of the challenging and often traumatic nature of policing work (section 4.4.2.1). There is well documented within policing literature (Reiner, 2010; Millie, 2013; CoP, 2015)

but there appears to be much less acknowledgement of the potential long-term effects of this in terms of harm to staff. I suggested in the previous chapter that this seems surprising given the nature of the policing role. However, it presents an opportunity to consider the value of equivalent systems of supervision within a policing context, for the emotional well-being of staff and the reduction of burnout and stress. This is already widely recognised within the welfare professions (White, 2016) and this will therefore be addressed in the following section as both an implication for policing practice, and a recommendation. In summary, this aim of the research was designed to explore the value of reflective practice for policing. The findings identified that participants and line managers considered it to be of value for both professional development and emotional wellbeing. It is therefore my contention that this research aim has been met with the emergence of these two findings.

5.3 Implications for police practice, policy, education and research.

This study resulted in key finding which have significance for police practice across the three areas of policy, education and research which will each be presented.

5.3.1 Police practice; reflective practice as an aid to professionalisation.

The policing literature identified a rapid period of modernisation within policing in which there is a movement towards an overall professionalisation of the service (Neyroud, 2011; IPC,

2013, Turner & Pearson, 2016; CoP, 2015). This draws parallels with a similar process of reform undertaken within the 1980s and 1990s in which the use of reflective practice became a significant feature of nursing practice (Boud, 2010; Jasper, 2013). The Police Vision 2025, (National Police Chief's Council (NPCC), n.d), documents the police's most recent 10-year strategic plan. There is an acknowledgement of the need for a radical transformation of policing brought about by rapid national and global developments, increasingly diverse and complex communities, and limited resources. Here the language of professionalism and the acknowledgement of policing as a profession is consistent throughout the document. "By 2025 policing will be a profession with a more representative workforce. That will align the right skills powers and experience to meet challenging requirements" (NPCC, n.d, p. 8). Central to this vision is the enabling of "consistent professional practice" which is based upon ethical principles. The strategy documents the approaches to the fulfilment of this vision and a central component is its commitment to Continued Professional Development (CPD), education and training. Indeed, one of the methods by which this will be achieved is stated as follows "Create independently validated frameworks for Continued Professional Development for all in policing, helping them gain recognition for their skills to progress their careers and fulfil their potential" (n,d, p. 9). There is further explicit reference to policing as a profession within the Code of Conduct, which as the first "whole service" document, was implemented in 2014 (CoP, 2014, p.1). It states, "The police as a profession has a duty to protect the public and prevent crime" (CoP, 2014, p. 1). It further expects of its employees "You are responsible for your own professional behaviour and to ensure that you are able to deliver the highest standards possible, you must have a good understanding of the contents of this code (CoP, 2014, p. 2). As I discussed within the literature review in section 2.3.10, I draw parallels with the developments within nursing during the 1980s and 1990s,

including the introduction of externally provided diploma level education, and the widespread adoption of reflection as a key component. I suggest here that there is scope for a more formal adoption of systems of reflection within the service as a key component of professionalism and the broader professionalisation of the service. The next section considers the ways that this would be of benefit.

5.3.2 Police practice; professional development for service improvement

The findings from this research identified the potential benefits of reflective practice for the police service. These may operate at both individual and organisational levels, in the overall professionalisation of the service. The research has also identified systems of reflective activity which are not only already taking place but are reported by staff to be of benefit to the organisation. This research contends therefore that reflective practice is valuable for the professional development of the individual and for the service that they provide. Implementation of such systems of reflective practice on a wider scale would in turn have broader implications for ongoing improvements to service delivery, and are consistent with the overall identity of policing as a profession

5.3.3 Police practice; critical reflection for social movement

The nursing literature widely refers to the levels of depth to reflection, which includes critical reflection (Bass et al., 2017; Freshwater, 2008). This notion of critical reflection suggests that the professional practitioner is not only self-aware, but mind-full of the social, cultural and political context in which they are located. Such systems of critical reflection are central

to an awareness of the broader professional environment and can affect social and cultural change within the organisation. I suggest that the use of reflective practice and in particular the development of critical systems of thinking, may assist with the transitions which are currently taking place within policing. This was articulated within the findings by participant 5 (section 4.3.4.1.2) who identified the main benefit of the process as being the ability to think critically about not only their own practice, but also about the practice of their colleagues and about the overall service. I suggest that there is therefore scope for a more detailed exploration of the value of reflective practice, and the adoption of critical reflection for affecting social movement and organisational change as policing continues to evolve as a profession.

5.3.4 Police practice; reflective practice; nursing and then policing. art meets craft

Seminal educational theorists such as Dewey (1933), Schön (1983) and Kolb (1984) have provided us with a now entrenched understanding of the way that adults learn through doing. Central to this are reflective processes which link theory to practice. Much of the nursing literature refers to the tacit forms of knowing which are bound up with the development of knowledge and professional artistry (Schön, 1983). The literature considered some of the strategic developments within policing and in particular the movement to degree level education as a key element of the professionalisation process. There are again echoes of the processes undertaken within nursing during the 1980s and 1990s. Degree level education will be adopted by the police as an entry requirement by 2020 (CoP, 2015). However, the literature questions whether policing skills can be learned through education or instead can

only be developed through practice. Current discourses centre around the development of police skills as police 'craft' (Rowe et al., 2018; Tong, 2017). This implies that education and practice learning are understood as distinct from each other. This dichotomization was considered in section 2.3.8 of the literature review which discussed Cartesian Dualism and the separation of mind and body. It is proposed however that reflective practice is the means by which practitioners bridge the theory practice gap (Horton, Deutsch & Sherwood, 2017). Allowing the principles of reflective practice may allow for policing craft which is learned through practice but underpinned by theory, education and good quality research-based evidence. Thus, reflective practice can be understood as the central process by which the theory practice gap may be addressed when considering professional policing as both craft and science.

5.3.5 Police practice; reflective timeout for staff wellbeing

Reflective timeout is an entirely new term and concept for policing. This developed through the undertaking of this research. In section 5.4, I considered this in relation to the unique contribution of the research. The policing literature also acknowledges the challenging nature of policing (Reiner, 2010; Neyroud, 2011; CoP, 2015), and there was an articulation of some examples of this from the line manager interviews (section 4.4.2.1). Whilst participants were not explicit about this within their interviews, I became more fully aware of the demands of the role from the practice examples during the reflective sessions. Although counselling is clearly available to staff, currently there seems less acknowledgement of the long-term damage that may be caused to staff due to the ongoing exposure to challenging

and traumatic events. This may also be coupled with the demanding transformations referred to in the Policing Vision 2025 (NPCC, n.d) involving reduced resources and the need for continuous change. Participants and line managers identified the value of reflective support for staff wellbeing. I take this to be as a result of the combination of generally feeling supported, as well as the effects of the development of emotional intelligence and self-awareness associated with guided reflection and the facilitation of reflective practice. I therefore contend that formal systems for supervision within policing may not only advance policing practice but safeguard staff against the stresses of the role and assist in the development of resilience. In section 4.4.2.1 I drew parallels between the demands of nursing and policing. Thus, there is an acknowledgement of the high pressure and demanding nature of the nursing role (Bulman, 2013, Bolton & Delderfield, 2018). I have argued throughout this thesis that surprisingly, there is only a recent acknowledgement of the stressful and sometimes traumatic nature of police practice job (Waddington & Wright, 2010; Millie, 2013; Christopher, 2015). The reflective timeout sessions were considered beneficial by participants, not only for the facilitation of reflective practice, and for emotional wellbeing (both as a result of the supportive function of the sessions, and the benefits of the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence that the sessions facilitated). In section 4.4.2.1, I therefore contended that the facilitation of reflective practice through reflective supervision such as 'timeout' may benefit staff by reducing the risk of burn out and stress and increasing levels of resilience. This was also referred to in section 5.4 of this chapter. Whilst I fully acknowledge the resource implications, this may be offset against the benefits for staff of an increased sense of wellbeing, and reduced stress or burnout. This may have implications for staff retention, productivity, and ultimately a reduction in the cost staff sickness.

5.3.6 Summary of the implications for police practice of this research.

The research findings satisfied aim 1 by identifying changes in participant identities bound up with becoming reflective and ongoing transformations and learning. There were several elements to this:

- It was evident that guided reflection had facilitated reflective practices, and this was a change in the approach to thinking and feeling. Through guided reflection, termed 'reflective timeout' in this research, participants were facilitated in developing an ability to become reflective and employ reflective approaches to their professional practice.
- Associated with reflective practice was an increase in self-awareness and emotional intelligence and hence a synthesis of thinking and feeling.

There are implications for the professional practices of policing staff in their contribution to professional practice and professionalisation of the service. These are considered below. There are also clear benefits for staff including increased job satisfaction and ongoing professional development for the individual. I argue here (and below) that the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence can assist in the reduction of stress and burnout. Given the nature of the role and the increasing demands placed upon staff (Reiner, 2010; Neyroud, 2011; CoP, 2015), it is a key contention here that the introduction of more widespread reflective practice could become central to the development of resilience.

In research findings for aim 2 identified the value of the sessions for emotional wellbeing. They also considered the overall value of reflective for professional development (having first been facilitated via the reflective timeout sessions). The findings identified changes to the professional identities of the participants in which reflective practice came to be understood as a valuable element of their role for service delivery, and ongoing professional development.

The findings relating to aim 2 as an exploration of the value of reflective practice therefore have several implications for benefits to policing practice which are significant to the new professional vision of policing 5 evident within the 10-year plan. The Police Vision 2025 (NPCC, 2015):

- The potential for the adoption of reflective approaches to practice, consistent with reflexivity and associated with professionalism in other associated welfare professions, for safe, responsible and ethical practice.
- Increases in self- awareness for the promotion of responsible and safe professional practices.
- Ongoing learning for the professional development practitioners.
- Ongoing professional development for service improvement.
- The adoption of systems of critical reflection consistent with Christopher's (2015) contention that the policing is capable of becoming a critically reflective service.

- The importance of critical reflection for understanding the social and political context of contemporary policing and for affecting ongoing social and professional movement and development within the service.
- The development of emotional intelligence for self- awareness and the enhancement of relationships with colleagues and the public.
- The development of resilience as it is understood within other welfare professions such as nursing for staff welling and job satisfaction.
- Reflective and mindful practices for the development of emotional intelligence and resilience for the reduction in work related stress and potential burnout.
- Finally, it is argued that the professionalisation agenda has brought with it a privileging of evidence-based practices as the gold standard of scientific knowledge. This draws parallels with a similar history of the consideration of science knowledge as superior to practice wisdom and experience in nursing. It is argued that there may be an acknowledgement of the value of both evidence-based practice and professional artistry and wisdom. Reflective practice can thus be understood in terms of its value for learning from personal and technical theory and for bridging the theory practice gap.

5.3.7 Implications for police policy

There is the potential for the development of police policy which may allow for the formal adoption of systems of reflection for professional development within policing. This may take the form of a strategic approach to the delivery of reflective sessions, however, I acknowledge the resource implications of this. I am also mindful of the culture of policing and the view from participants that a supervisor from within the profession may be viewed with suspicion. The use of external supervisors on a widespread scale has obvious resourcing and logistical implications. There may also need to be a consideration of the suitability of such individuals for discussing police practice. It may be useful to raise the profile of reflective practice and the ways that the police service may benefit from its incorporation into policy. These discourses may take place through publication, or through discussion with the service at local, regional or national level in terms of the CoP. There may also be an exploration through discussions with the CoP as to how the more formal requirements for reflective practices may be adopted, and the most effective strategies for its implementation.

This may allow for a consideration of whether some of the existing structures within policing such as the training and education and the daily debrief may be reimagined so that they incorporate more formal structures for allowing reflection to be taught or practice. There may be the potential for this to be embedded into policy with few resource implications. The following section further considers the implications of this study for police education and future research.

5.3.8 Implications for police education and research

5.3.8.1 Publication

I consider the findings from this research to be of interest to policing. This relates to the value of reflection for both ongoing professional development as a key feature as any profession and the implications for staff wellbeing. I consider dissemination at educational level through conference delivery and publication, to be a forerunner to the potential development of policy around reflective practice. This may allow for it to be formally adopted for the ongoing development of the individual and overall professionalisation of the service.

Christopher's (2015) discussion paper contended that policing can be a reflective practice (if it wishes). I not only endorse this view but welcome the opportunity to formally respond with the supporting evidence from this research. This process of dissemination will start with targeted publication within policing journals. This may be coupled with further opportunities for research considered after the following section.

5.3.8.2 Local collaboration: education sessions

There is currently an established relationship between the university, the local police service and the CoP. There is therefore the opportunity for more formal discussions with the CoP regarding the potential for more structured approaches to reflective activity within the service and the benefits that these may have. Education sessions about the value of reflective practice for professional development have already taken place locally, and there is scope

for this to be extended. There is also the potential for direct contact with the college, in order to discuss the development of policy.

5.3.8.3 Future research: A larger scale study

This thesis provides a further opportunity for post-doctoral research. There is the potential for a larger scale study which may examine the potential value of reflection in greater detail. Larger scale research may therefore be undertaken which focuses upon the professional identity of staff and the transitions that may take place as a result of reflective practice. The implications for the development of emotional intelligence may also be more fully explored as the observations of this within a policing context were unique to this research.

5.3.8.4: Future research; exploring the use of reflective debriefing

There is also an identified opportunity to explore the extent and value of the reflective activities which are already taking place. The line managers in this research (section 4.4.4.2) identified forms of reflection which already take place within policing. Both participants and line managers identified the use of debrief as a form of group reflection. Debrief is also acknowledged as a tool for professional learning in many professions such as nursing, aviation and the military (Decker et al., 2013; Tutticci, Ryan, Coyer & Lewis, 2018). This presents an opportunity to consider whether staff may be assisted in adopting a more formal approach to debrief as a reflective activity, using a structured reflective model. Any positive outcomes from this may then be explored. It is possible therefore to approach or liaise with the CoP to explore whether a formal exploration of the value of this may take place.

I am currently liaising with the local training department and the Chief Superintendent of the regional service. Teaching sessions are currently being delivered to staff by the researcher and there is a further opportunity to explore the impressions of staff, and the extent of the perceived value of reflective practice. Finally, negotiations are underway with the Chief Superintendent for me to provide him with reflective timeout. Thus, it is intended that any merits of reflective practice may be experienced at an influential level. This unique opportunity may form the basis for collaborative research between the university and the local police service and be instrumental in influencing policing policy and practice. The unique contribution of this research is considered in the following section.

5.4 The unique contribution of this research

In section 5.3.5 I argued that 'reflective timeout as a structure (and term) is an entirely new concept in policing. Its introduction allowed for the facilitation of reflective practice. This research examined and documented this transition. This has been a unique undertaking within the police service. What resulted was a transition in personal and professional identity, in which the participants developed an ability to be reflective and came to identify reflective practice as being valuable to their role. It has been argued that a more widespread adoption of such systems of reflective practice may contribute to a more reflective culture of policing in its transitioning identity to professionalism. This research and the dissemination of it, has presented a unique opportunity to contribute to the professionalisation of the police service and the shift culture widely referred to by Reiner (2010) from insular, suspicious and

based upon rapid action and reaction, to the aspiration of the CoP (2015) as professional, evidence based and reflective.

In section 4.3.4.1.2, I drew parallels between nursing and policing in the need for responsible practices and the restoration of trust. Caldwell and Grobbi (2013) for example associate the use of reflective practice with positive practice outcomes and better standards of patient care. Likewise, The Code (2018), makes clear the mandatory nature of reflection, and associates it with safety, professionalism, effective practice and the promotion of trust. I argued that there were similarities with the policing literature (section 2.4.1) which documented a history of public mistrust due to the historical culture of policing and a series of community outrages such as the Stephen Lawrence murder investigation, the handling of the miner's strike, the investigation of the Hillsborough disaster and the Brixton Riots (Holdaway, 2017; IPC, 2013; Reiner, 2010). Thus, in section 4.3.4.1.2, I suggested that a more formal, widespread and visible adoption of reflective practices may assist not only assist in the improvement of police standards but may also contribute the restoration and maintenance of public trust. Whilst the CoP refer to reflective practice there are not as yet formal structures for its implementation other than the new degree level training programme. This research is unique in the sense that it is the first to examine the use and benefits of reflective practice for professional standards within other welfare professional and relate them directly to policing. It is also unique in documenting the successful development of reflective practices associated with professional identity. To the best of my knowledge, this research is the first to associate and then test, the value of more formal approaches to reflective practice for a culture of reflection, professionalism, the restoration of public trust and a range of associated benefits for policy and practice referred to in section 5.3.6 of this concluding chapter.

The reported benefits of the sessions for staff support was a unique feature of this research. In section 5.3.6 I also argued that this assist in the development of resilience. This may be of tremendous value to the service given the demanding nature of the job and the challenging times ahead that the police will face. I consider that this research has also provided a unique understanding of how staff welfare may be better supported within a policing context. This may have implications for overall staff wellbeing better staff retention, a reduction in burnout and stress, and fewer days lost to staff sickness.

I contend that this work has also made a unique contribution to criminal justice research. It is acknowledged that previous doctoral research has been undertaken which explored reflective practice within policing. This however has tended to examine the use of reflection for staff who had previously been introduced to the principles of it, generally through the initial training programme. This research was unique in the sense that, to the very best of my knowledge, an equivalent system of clinical supervision (adapted as reflective timeout) has never been implemented within a policing context, and this was a first. Thus, the experience of supported reflective timeout was entirely new to participants. The process of supported reflection delivered through equivalent systems of supervision, allowed for the development of reflective practice, as is suggested within the nursing literature (Esterhuizen & Freshwater, 2008). There was therefore a demonstration that policing staff were able to develop the ability to become reflective. Not only this, but this process of transformation was both observed and described by participants. This research was unique in its observa-

tion of the changes that took place during the process in which participants became reflective and developed emotional intelligence. This had implications for the professional identities of the participants in which reflective practice became associated with their role as an officer. The potential for such changes to professional identity have not been explored within a policing context until now. The research provided a unique opportunity to consider the following in relation to the research aims:

Aim 1. To explore the feasibility of using guided reflection for the facilitation of reflective practice within a policing context.

In relation to aim 1, this research uniquely identified the development of reflective practices amongst the police participants. This constituted a change to their personal and professional identities in which reflective practice became considered part of the policing role. The research also uniquely identified the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence which was enabled through guided reflection.

Aim 2. To explore the value of reflective practice for enhancing professional development within policing.

The findings from this aim suggested the positive value of reflective practice for individual and service wide professional development. Whilst recent policing literature associates re-

flection with professional policing, this research was unique in observing the perceived benefits for the police service in practice. Likewise, this research identified the benefits of reflective practice for staff wellbeing, and the development of resilience as it is already understood within other helping professions.

Thus overall, the findings suggested that police staff adopted the principles of reflective practice and that this was beneficial to their practice. This I argued, signified a change in professional identity in which reflective practice became associated with professional practice and ongoing professional development. Whilst there is increasing literature and policy which value reflection within policing, there are few which have tested its use and this is the first which has observed its development through formal structures of supervision.

5.5 Limitations of the study

Whilst a relatively small sample size was used for this research, Yin (2014) advocates the use of small sample sizes or single case studies for qualitative research where little is known about a topic. As discussed in chapter three, Gray (2014) also advocates a sample of between four and ten participants which is consistent with this research.

There is also an acknowledgement of the potential implications of conducting both the clinical supervision sessions and the participant and line manager interviews, all of which were undertaken by the researcher. The decision was subject to much discussion during the initial period of research design. Since the post-supervision interviews were carried out by

the same researcher who conducted the reflective time out, it is conceded that a heightened opinion of the value of the process may have been described by participants. This may have resulted from the closeness or relationship that developed between me as supervisor, and the participants during the supervision process, and thus a loyalty to the researcher and over willingness to please. It was felt that I would be more likely to deliver all of the sessions than any other supervisor. There was a concern that this may be too resource intensive for any other supervisor and that a change in provider would compromise the relationship and the overall process. It is noted, however, that all participants expressed views that were broadly consistent with each other and formed the basis for several repeated themes. These were further supported by existing literature and the views of the participants' line managers. It is stressed that the researcher had no previous contact with the participants' line managers and thus there was no specific loyalty to the researcher or imperative to please by extension.

Finally, it is noted that the process of recruiting volunteers may have yielded participants who were inherently more proactive, and thus more receptive to the process than an average police officer. Whilst this is acknowledged, the reported benefits of the process (and the identification of reflective processes that already exist) appear persuasive enough to suggest that reflective activity whilst not suitable for all staff, may have positive effects for a significant number. The acknowledgement of the limitations however, and indeed the outcomes of this research which suggests the positive value of systems of reflective practice for police professionalization and the wellbeing of staff, provides an opportunity for future research as discussed in section 5.3.8.3.3 . I conclude this thesis with my own thoughts.

5.6 Concluding thoughts

This research identified changes to the participants' identities during a period of reflective timeout. These related to a development in both the ability to be reflective, and the development of self-awareness and emotional intelligence. Theme 2 of the participant interviews considered in more detail the transitions in professional identity associated with the development of reflective approaches to police practice. Here there was a transformation in what participants considered being a police officer to be. Reflective practice therefore became understood as a valuable element of the policing role. This was considered to be of value to the participants and the wider police service for continued professional development and staff wellbeing and support. Overall it was argued that the more widespread adoption of reflective approaches to practice would be of benefit to individuals within the police service. This in turn could result in a reflective culture within policing central to its transforming identity as a profession.

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Appendix 1



CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project:

An investigation of the value of reflective practice for the professional development of qualified police officers.

It is important that you read, understand and sign the consent form. Your contribution to this research is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged in any way to participate, if you require any further details please contact your researcher.

I have been fully informed of the nature and aims of this research

☐

I consent to taking part in this research study

☐

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time prior to the research 'write up' period without giving my reasons for doing so ☐

I give permission for my words to be quoted (by use of pseudonym) ☐

I understand that the information collected will be kept in secure conditions for a period of five years at the University of Huddersfield ☐

I understand that no person other than the researcher and my supervisors will have access to the information provided. ☐

I understand that my identity and the identity of colleagues or members of the public will be protected by the use of pseudonyms in the report and that no written information that could lead to my being identified will be included in any report. ☐

If you are satisfied that you understand the information and are happy to take part in this project please put a tick in the box aligned to each sentence and print and sign below.

Signature of Participant: <hr/>	Signature of Researcher: <hr/>
Print: <hr/>	Print: <hr/>
Date:	Date:

<hr/>	<hr/>
-------	-------

(one copy to be retained by the research)

Appendix 2

Initial Questionnaire

Police Participants.

You are asked to complete the following questionnaire in order to assess your current opinions about reflective practice. It would be most helpful if you could provide as much information as possible when answering the following questions:

1. What do you understand the term ‘reflection’ to mean?

2. What is your understanding of ‘reflective practice’?

3. How do you cope with stressful work situations?

4. Do you currently reflect upon your work practice? Please circle Yes/ No

Please expand upon your answer:

5. Do you think it may be useful to reflect on practice? Please circle Yes/ No

Please expand upon your answer:

Please feel free to add any further comments below:

Thank you taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Please return to:

Selina Copley
Ramsden Building R3/11
Queensgate
Huddersfield
HD1 3HD

Appendix 3

Interview Schedule: Police Participants

Semi-structured interview questions (post clinical supervision)

1. How long have you been a police officer?
2. Can you tell me what you knew about reflective practice before you started supervision?
3. What was your experience of reflective practice at work before you started supervision?
4. How did you find the experience of supervision?
5. Can you describe the effects that reflecting on practice during supervision has had for the way that you work now?

6. Do you think that reflective Practice is a useful tool to help guide how police officers work? (Prompt with 'could you expand upon this?')

General prompts

Could you provide an example?

Could you expand upon this?

Could you explain this a little?

Appendix 4

General Email to police staff.

The following information was sent to police staff. It was sent initially (by agreement) to the Chief Superintendent who then circulated it to staff by internal email. The information sheet for staff will be attached.

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. I am Senior Lecturer in Criminology at the University of Huddersfield. I have previously taught on the Foundation Degree in Police Studies. My input included teaching reflective practice to probation police officers as part of the Foundation Degree programme. I am also the author of a recent police text book on this topic entitled 'Reflective Practice for Policing Students'

As part of my Professional Doctorate in Applied Criminology, I would like to investigate the potential use of reflective practice for serving police personnel and am therefore approaching police staff to take part in the study. I have included an information sheet which provides details of the study and what volunteers are required to do. If you would like to take part, or require any further information please do not hesitate to contact me directly.

Appendix 5

An investigation of the value of reflective practice for the professional development of qualified police officers.

INFORMATION SHEET (Participant)

You are being invited to take part in this study. Before you decide to take part it is important that you understand why the research is being undertaken and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with me if you wish. Please do not hesitate to ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

What is the study about?

I am a Senior Lecturer at the University of Huddersfield and also a part time student undertaking a Professional Doctorate in Applied Criminology. A part of my doctorate is to undertake a research study and as such the purpose of this study is to explore the potential value that reflective practice may have for the professional development of police personnel. Many professions use reflection as a tool to assist them in their own continued professional development. Reflective practice can be described as the ability to assess personal performance by thinking back to professional situations that have taken place and to consider any changes or improvements that could be made in similar situations in the future.

Increasingly, police training and education requires probation police officers to appreciate the principles of reflective practice and its application to their practice. Police personnel are currently not

required to take part in this activity as part of their professional role, even though they may already reflect upon situations informally.

The study involves providing clinical supervision for policing staff on a one to one basis. This includes meeting with the researcher for one hour per month to reflect upon professional situations that have taken place during that month. You will be assisted in considering what went well, what did not go as well, and explore any potential changes in your future practice if a similar situation arose in the future.

The provision of clinical supervision is a tool for assisting reflection and does not form part of the data analysis, but is rather the method that has been chosen to assist you in undertaking guided reflection. Following the period of supervision, I would like to interview you to discuss your impressions/thoughts/feelings on the supervision sessions and how the use of clinical supervision and reflection may affect your practice in the future.

How much time is involved?

Participants will be expected to attend the clinical supervision sessions for one hour per month, over a six month period. At the end of the period of supervision you will be asked to take part in a final interview which will take approximately one hour.

Why I have been approached?

All police staff within West Yorkshire have been approached and offered the opportunity to take part on a voluntary basis. Participants will be randomly selected from the list of volunteers. Your line manager will also be approached and asked to take part. Your line manager will only be involved as a member of a focus group; they will not be taking part in clinical supervision sessions. The focus group will explore the value of reflection and if there have been any changes to officer's practice as a result of undertaking this process.

Line managers for all participants will be invited to meet as a group and discuss any general impressions of the effects that the period of clinical supervision has had for professional practice. Line managers will be asked to anonymise the examples that they give. You will therefore not be referred to personally nor will the feedback involve personal criticism or form part of any appraisal system.

Do I have to take part?

It is your decision whether or not you take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form, and you will be free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason until data analysis commences. A decision to not to take part, or to withdraw from the study will be fully respected and will not be questioned in any way. Not taking part will not affect your role as a police officer.

What will I need to do?

If you agree to take part in the research you will initially be asked to complete a short written questionnaire. This will explore your initial understanding of reflective practice as well as your opinions regarding its use. This will take approximately 10- 15 minutes to complete.

Following this, you will be assisted in undertaking a period of clinical supervision. This will involve meeting with the myself at a location that is convenient for you, for one hour per month over a period of six months. This process will be used as a tool in order to assist you to take part in structured reflection.

At the end of this period, you will be interviewed by the myself for approximately one hour in order to explore your impressions of reflection, and the effects it has had (if any) for your professional practice.

Will my identity be disclosed?

It is very important to emphasise that clinical supervision will only be used as a tool for assisting you in reflecting upon professional practice. This will be an entirely confidential process and any information disclosed will not be divulged, or recorded, nor will it be used within the findings of the study (except where legal obligations would necessitate disclosure by the researchers to appropriate personnel).

Only your initial questionnaire before the period of clinical supervision, and your interview after it, will be analysed and used as part of the study's results. The questionnaire will be completed as a paper document, and your interview following the period of supervision will be recorded using a digital recording machine and later transcribed by the myself using a password protected computer. All information disclosed within the questionnaire or the interview will be kept confidential, except where legal obligations necessitate disclosure by the researchers to the appropriate personnel. Your real name and any names relating to colleagues or members of the public will be removed from all documents. Sensitive information relating to police policy or procedures will not be included in the study.

What will happen to the information?

All information collected from you during this research will be kept in secure conditions at the University of Huddersfield and any identifying material, such as names will be removed in order to ensure anonymity. It is anticipated that the research will published in a journal or report. A copy of the final thesis will be stored in the University of Huddersfield Repository. your anonymity will be ensured in all publications, although it may be necessary to use your words in the presentation of the findings and your permission for this is included in the consent form. A final report will be submitted to the Chief Constable for West Yorkshire Police.

Who can I contact for further information?

If you require any further information about the research, please contact me on:

Name: Selina Copley

E-mail: s.copley@hud.ac.uk

Telephone: 01484472728

Names of supervisors

Supervisors:

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Appendix 6

THE UNIVERSITY OF HUDDERSFIELD
School of Human and Health Sciences – School Research Ethics Panel

OUTLINE OF PROPOSAL

Please complete and return via email to:

Kirsty Thomson SREP Administrator: hhs_srep@hud.ac.uk

Name of applicant: Selina Copley

Title of study:

An investigation of the value of reflective practice for the professional development of qualified police officers.

Department: Behavioural and Social Sciences

Date sent:

Issue	Please provide sufficient detail for SREP to assess strategies used to address ethical issues in the research proposal
Researcher(s) details	Selina Copley Senior Lecturer in Criminology Department of Behavioural and Social Sciences School of Human and health Science Professional Doctorate (2009 intake) Student number: U0675284015
Supervisor details	

	<p>Main supervisor:</p> <p>Dr. Karen Ousey PhD, RGN, FHEA Reader Advancing Clinical Practice School of Human and health Science</p> <p>Co-supervisor:</p> <p>Dr Kathleen Chirema Principal lecturer School of Human and Health Sciences</p>
Aim / objectives	<p>Investigation overview:</p> <p>The research aims to investigate and explore the potential benefits of reflective practice for serving police officers via clinical supervision. An interest in the relationship between reflection and enhanced professional practice within a policing context has developed as a result of a trajectory of change within policing and broader educational policy, which now requires student police officers to demonstrate their ability to reflect, as a component of the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP). Whilst reflective activity constitutes a key element of police training, there is as yet no formal requirement that it is used to enhance practice throughout a police officer's subsequent career. Indeed a research project which introduces reflective activity into a policing environment and monitors its effects has yet to be undertaken.</p> <p>Professions such as nursing, have for several years required practitioners to engage in reflective activity as a vehicle for self-directed professional development (Jasper 2003). This proposed research project therefore intends to consider, investigate and explore the potential benefits of the equivalent activity for qualified police officers, and the question is thus:</p> <p>Can the use of reflective practice develop and enhance the professional practice of police officers throughout their careers?</p> <p>Specific aims:</p>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To explore the potential benefits of reflective practice made possible via clinical supervision, for the professional practice of in service police officers. 2. To explore the perceptions of the police officer's line managers regarding any changes to (the police officer's) professional practice, following a period of clinical supervision.
Brief overview of research methodology	<p>Project overview</p> <p><i>Interviews with participant police officers</i></p> <p>Before starting clinical supervision, participating police officers will be asked to complete a questionnaire. This aims to explore their understanding of reflective activity and their impressions of it. After the completion of the supervision period, one, one hour semi-structured interview will be undertaken with each police officer participant and analysed by the researcher. The experience of clinical supervision and any perceived benefits for individual clinical practice will then be explored. The pre supervision questionnaires and post-supervision interviews for each participant will be analysed using grounded theory. This will involve coding emergent themes, sub dividing and refining categories of meaning and an interpretation of meaning (Arksey & Knight 1999). Given the personal nature of reflection and indeed some areas of professional practice, in depth interviews are considered an appropriate form of enquiry in order to examine and probe subjective experiences (Denscombe 2007).</p> <p><i>Focus groups with line managers</i></p> <p>Direct line managers (sergeant status) for each of the participants will take part in a one hour focus group after the completion of the final supervision session with the police officers. Focus groups are also considered appropriate for the reasons identified above. Again, grounded theory analysis will be utilised in order to explore any observed changes to the police officer's practice brought about by supervision. It is noted that there is the potential for police officer participants to feel that their performance is being appraised by line managers and thus the use of focus groups will allow a more general discussion about trends in professional performance rather than individual critiques.</p>

It should be reiterated that supervision will be used as a means of providing structured reflective activity only. The exploration of its effects will be examined using interviews with participating officers and focus groups with their line managers. The supervision sessions are therefore merely a tool to aid reflection and will not form part of the analysis. Consent will be obtained however prior to any element of the process commencing.

Clinical supervision

It is intended that clinical supervision will be provided for four police officers, two of which will be male and two female. Participants for both genders will be randomly selected from a list of volunteers. Should an equal gender mix prove difficult due to only men, or women volunteering, all participants will be randomly selected. The sample size chosen is considered to be a manageable number given the resource implications of clinical supervision being provided by the researcher. Clinical supervision has been chosen as a means of providing guided reflective activity for the participants so that its effects, if any, may be explored. Whilst Jasper (2006) highlights a range of methods available for assisting reflective practice including portfolios and reflective diaries, Todd (2005) observes the use of clinical supervision as being a well-established process within healthcare professions, for the progression and enhancement of professional practice. She further describes the process of supervision as a relationship between supervisor and supervisee, through which the supervised practitioner is assisted in reflecting upon previous events in order to assess personal performance and inform future improvements. Since the introduction of formal reflective activity is a new concept within policing practice, clinical supervision is considered the most appropriate method, rather than an unsupervised activity such as diary writing for example. It is thus intended that supervisees can be closely assisted in reflecting upon practice, and that maximum engagement can be ensured.

Period of supervision

The clinical supervision will take place on a monthly basis, and will initially be for a period of six months. It is envisaged that this time frame will be sufficient for the development of a trusting relationship between supervisor and supervisee. Whilst it is difficult to quantify an amount of time that is sufficient for reflective activity to be effective, Freshwater (2005) refers to the need for the development of a therapeutic alliance between supervisor and supervisee in a similar way to the relationship between

	<p>therapist and patient. The period of supervision may be extended should the initial six sessions be felt by the participants to be insufficient; however this will be largely dependent upon the availability of the participants and the supervisor. It is also acknowledged that an increased time scale will have implications for the overall completion of the research.</p> <p><i>Delivery of supervision</i></p> <p>Each supervision session will last for approximately one hour and will involve a supervisor and a supervisee on a one to one basis. Following discussions with West Yorkshire Police, it was agreed that the researcher will also deliver the supervision sessions for all four participants, thus totalling four, one hour sessions per month for six months.</p> <p><i>Sample.</i></p> <p>The sample will include four police officers and their line managers (sergeant grade). Line managers will not be supervised but will take part in one post supervision focus group, facilitated by the researcher in order to discuss any observed changes to the working practices of their staff. The sample will therefore include a maximum of four line managers; however it is possible that managers may be responsible for more than one of the participants and thus the number may be fewer. Since a case study design will be utilised, it is considered appropriate to use this sample size. Hence a sample size of four police officer participants and up to four line managers is considered appropriate enough to yield a detailed overview within the area of enquiry. It is intended that the participating police officers and line managers will be selected from within West Yorkshire Police (WYP). This is for the following reasons:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is an established relationship between WYP and the University of Huddersfield following the joint delivery of the Foundation Degree in Police Studies. • Having implemented the above foundation degree, WYP are heavily committed to recent training arrangements which involve the requirement that new police officers have the ability to be reflective. It is possibly due to this that permission to undertake the research has already been granted; likewise it may also increase the likelihood that police officers and their line managers volunteer to take part.
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engaging with a local police force may limit the resource implications for the researcher in terms of travel arrangements. <p>Clinical supervision will be provided by the researcher in a location mutually agreed with supervisees. Rooming provision can be made within the university, however it will be suggested that sessions take place within an interview area within the participant's police station, to reduce resourcing difficulties for the policing staff. It should be stated that the supervision merely constitutes a mechanism for reflection. Data for analysis will therefore not be collected from the sessions, but rather from the questionnaires before starting supervision, and the interviews and focus groups after its completion.</p> <p><i>Approach, methodology and analysis.</i></p> <p>A case study methodology will be used with grounded theory analysis, both of which are consistent with a qualitative research approach. Dan & Kalof (2008) refer to the suitability of qualitative research for the detailed description of phenomena, and in situations where little is known about the subject. No enquiry has taken place that pertains to the value of reflection for police officers. Likewise, an investigation of this kind would require a detailed account of professional practice and associated thoughts, feelings and values. It is for these reasons that a qualitative approach is deemed appropriate.</p>
Study Start & End Date	Start Date: December 2012 End Date: June 2013
Permissions for study	Permission has successfully been agreed by the Chief Constable for WYP, as there is no external governing body associated with the policing profession. Participants will be made aware of their right to withdraw from participation, They will however be informed that once all supervision sessions have been completed and the data is being analysed, they will no longer be able to withdraw their data. .
Access to participants	Participants will be recruited on a voluntary basis. It is intended that there will be an equal gender mix and where possible a range of ages within the sample. Chief Superintendent

	<p>John Robins for Kirklees has been approached and permission to allow staff participation has been granted. An email will be sent via to the Chief Superintendent John Robins, who will forward the e mail asking for potential participants. Individuals who would like to volunteer will reply directly to me.</p>
Confidentiality	<p>Selected participants will be asked to sign a consent form including information regarding confidentiality. Given that the nature of the enquiry relates to policing practice, there are obvious implications for the disclosure of policing policy and specific incidents relating to members of the public. It will therefore be made clear that disclosures made during supervision will be confidential. Whilst confidentiality will therefore be assured where possible, it will be stated that this cannot be guaranteed should evidence of mal practice be identified. Discussions relating to the reporting of mal practice have taken place with the Chief Superintendent.</p> <p>The supervision sessions are intended as a means of providing structured reflection and will not form part of the analysis. Therefore issues discussed during the course of the supervision sessions will remain confidential and will not contribute to the findings of the study.</p> <p>Clinical supervision and interviews will take place within a setting which will be negotiated with the participants. It is likely however that this will be a private office or interview suite at the police station that each participant is based. As previously stated, there is also scope for the supervision to be undertaken within the university setting. No real names will be recorded throughout the study, but rather pseudonyms or numbers. Transcripts and tapes will be stored according to the university's policy on storage of data. This will include the storage of data within a locked draw which the researcher only will have access to. Data will be transcribed using a password protected computer, and stored on an encrypted memory stick.</p> <p>Data collected for analysis from the semi-structured interviews and focus groups will be anonymised. Real names will not be included within the data. Likewise, any names relating to members of the public or data relating to sensitive police practice or policy will be removed if disclosed during the interviews and focus groups.</p>
Anonymity	<p>See above</p> <p>Participants will be anonymised using numbers: Participant 1-4 and line manager 1-4</p>

Psychological support for participants	Given the potentially therapeutic nature of clinical supervision, it is intended that the process itself will be supportive. Counselling however will be made available to participants using the Police counselling service via occupational health.
Researcher safety / support (attach complete University Risk Analysis and Management form)	See attached form.
Identify any potential conflicts of interest	No conflict of interests.
Please supply copies of all relevant supporting documentation electronically. If this is not available electronically, please provide explanation and supply hard copy	
Information sheet	Attached
Consent form	Attached
Letters	Attached
Questionnaire	Attached
Interview guide	Attached
Dissemination of results	Thesis; peer reviewed publications; presentations at local and national conferences, university research conferences, university repository. Also a final report will be submitted to the Chief Constable for West Yorkshire Police.
Other issues	
Where application is to be made to NHS Research Ethics Committee / External Agencies	Police permission attached
All documentation has been read by supervisor (where applicable)	Yes read by Karen Ousey

All documentation must be submitted to the SREP administrator. All proposals will be reviewed by two members of SREP.

If you have any queries relating to the completion of this form or any other queries relating to SREP's consideration of this prop

An investigation of the value of reflective practice for the professional development of qualified police officers.

INFORMATION SHEET (Line Manager)

You are being invited to take part in this study. Before you decide to take part, it is important that you understand why the research is being undertaken and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with me if you wish. Please do not hesitate to ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

What is the study about?

I am a Senior Lecturer at the University of Huddersfield and also a part time student undertaking a Professional Doctorate in Applied Criminology. A part of my doctorate is to undertake a research study and as such the purpose is to explore the potential effects (if any) of structured reflection, for the professional practice of police personnel. Many professions use reflective practice as a tool in order to continue developing and improving professional practice. Increasingly, police training and education requires probation police officers to appreciate the principles of reflective practice. Although many professionals think back upon situations they have been involved in informally, police staff are not required to take part in this activity as part of their professional role.

The study involves providing clinical supervision for policing staff on a one to one basis. This includes meeting with the researcher for one hour per month to reflect upon professional situations that have taken place during that month. Participants will be assisted in considering what went well, what did not go as well, and things that you would repeat or do differently if a similar situation arose in the future.

Following the period of supervision, participants will be asked to assess the value (if any) of reflective practice undertaken during clinical supervision, for their own continued professional development.

Line Managers

Line managers for all participants have been invited to meet to discuss any general impressions of the effects that the period of clinical supervision has had for the professional practice of the staff who have undergone this process. None of the information that is discussed in the supervision sessions will be disclosed to you, likewise, any general observations that you discuss will remain confidential (except where legal obligations would necessitate disclosure by the researchers to appropriate personnel such as in the event of the disclosure of mal practice).

A copy of the information sheet sent to prospective participants has been attached for your information.

Why I have been approached?

You have been approached because a member of staff for whom you are line manager expressed an interest in the study.

Do I have to take part?

It is your decision whether or not you take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form, and you will be free to withdraw at any time, until data analysis commences. A decision to not to take part, or to withdraw from the study will be fully respected and will not be questioned in any way.

What will I need to do?

If you agree to take part in the research you will be asked to take part in an interview for approximately one hour, which will be recorded and later transcribed. During the interview, opinions relating to any observed changes to the general practice of the participants that have undergone clinical supervision will be explored. It is important to emphasise that the staff that you refer to will need to be named.

How much time is involved?

The interview will take approximately one hour of your time.

Will my identity be disclosed?

The interview will be recorded using a digital recording machine and later transcribed by the researcher using a password protected computer. All information disclosed during the interview will be kept confidential, except where legal obligations necessitate disclosure by the researchers to appropriate personnel. Your real name and any names relating to colleagues or members of the public will be removed from all documents. Sensitive information relating to police policy or procedure will not be included in the study.

What will happen to the information?

All information collected from you during this research will be kept in secure conditions and any identifying material, such as names will be removed in order to ensure anonymity. It is anticipated that the research will, be published in a journal or report. However, should this happen, anonymity will be ensured. It may be necessary to use your words in the presentation of the findings and your permission for this is included in the consent form. A final copy of the thesis will be stored in the University of Huddersfield repository.

Who can I contact for further information?

If you require any further information about the research, please contact me on:

Name: Selina Copley

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Supervisors:

Dr. Karen Ousey PhD, RGN, FHEA

Reader Advancing Clinical Practice
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Co-supervisor:

Kathleen Chirema
Principal lecturer
School of Human and Health Sciences
Harold Wilson Floor 3, 28
Tel: 01484 473404

Appendix 8

Line managers

Semi-structured interview questions (post clinical supervision)

1. What do you understand by the term reflective practice?
2. Do you think it would be useful to encourage in police Practice?
3. What are your impressions of the effects supervision may have on police who have taken part?
4. Do you think it has affected their Practice? (If so how?)
5. Do you think clinical supervision is a useful tool for policing staff to use? If yes can you state the reasons why it was useful?

