

**Professional doctoral students and the doctoral
supervision relationship: negotiating difficulties**

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**Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Education**

**School of Education
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April 2018

Abstract

This research considers the experiences and difficulties that professional doctoral students face and the supervision relationship. Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas are used to understand and make sense of the less visible dynamics that shape the professional doctoral students' narratives. Semi-structured interviews are used to sensitively explore in-depth the nature of difficult experiences. The method of analysis was both compatible with the psychoanalytical theoretical perspective and with the qualitative interview method. The analysis provided an opportunity to listen to and make sense of the professional doctoral students' narratives in four different ways.

The thesis begins with a review of the wider doctoral education research context. Changes, taking place in that context, are considered, looking particularly at the impact of the knowledge economy on doctoral educational research in general and, more specifically, on professional doctoral educational research. Literature within doctoral education highlights supervision models and psychoanalytical supervision models designed for doctoral supervision practice and doctoral student support.

Key findings relate to the professional doctoral students' expectations and the perceptions that shape their difficult experiences. Firstly, professional doctoral students have little knowledge of doctoral supervision before beginning their first doctoral supervision relationship. The professional doctoral students' expectations and perceptions influence their supervision relationships. When the professional doctoral students negotiate their expectations, they experience a productive working supervision relationship. However, when professional doctoral students exclude difficult experiences from their supervision relationships they do not get an opportunity to make sense of their experiences.

Informal pastoral support, such as cohorts, peer groups and families, provide additional space for the professional doctoral students to talk about their difficult experiences. However, this thesis shows that informal support does not provide an academic framework for the professional doctoral student to understand their difficult experience within a doctoral research context. In contrast, this research suggests

that the supervision relationship between the professional doctoral student and the supervisor can offer a supervision space informed by Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas. In this space supervisors and supervisees can explore difficult professional doctoral student experiences in a creative, playful and academic environment.

The thesis concludes by considering the implications for doctoral supervisors and for professional doctoral students. In doing so, I offer recommendations that include points to consider for Higher Education policy, professional doctoral education and supervision training.

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Acknowledgements

I want to say thank you to Professor Julie Allan for the support you gave me through the first two years of the EdD. Thank you to Professor Lydia Plowman, Doctor John l'Anson, Professor Tara Fenwick, Doctor Christine Stephen and Professor Fiona Copland. I will always be grateful to the professional doctoral students who agreed to participate in this study. Thank you for your invaluable time and willingness to explore in depth the difficult experiences that you encountered as professional doctoral students. Thank you to my partner, friends, family and EdD cohort for your support.

Chapter 1: Research context and rationale

1.1 Introduction

In this thesis I focus on the experiences professional doctoral students found difficult to talk about in their supervision relationship. I explain the difficulties they encountered with funding and researching in the workplace. I discuss the professional doctoral students' expectations and how their expectations influenced the supervision relationship. I present the professional doctoral students' perspectives on additional support and what they learnt from their research interview. To do this, I interviewed six doctoral students in depth and identified experiences that they had not spoken about before. I borrowed ideas from Winnicott's psychoanalytical theories "transitional objects and transitional phenomena: a study of the first not-me possession" (Winnicott 1953), "the parent-infant relationship" (Winnicott 1960 cited in Winnicott 1965) and "playing and reality" (Winnicott 2005) to focus on the less visible dynamics that influence professional doctoral student experience. Drawing on the research findings, I set out recommendations which will support professional doctoral students to feel confident about including their respective experiences in their doctoral supervision and research process. In the section that follows I will explain how I arrived at this stage of my research interest.

1.2 My research journey

In the nineteen eighties I became a mother to two children with severe disabilities and it was the conversations with other parents of children with disabilities that influenced my undergraduate research. I was curious for example, about the nature of experience parents talked about in relation to being given the initial news of their child's disability. My curiosity was triggered by their description of the breakdown in communication that often occurred between themselves and the paediatricians giving the news. The research I conducted for my undergraduate dissertation was titled 'telling the news: an analysis of communication and its impact, specifically between professionals and parents who are being informed for the first time that their child has a disability'. I interviewed parents and paediatric consultants, ran focus

groups and sent out questionnaires. Data from my analysis highlighted several themes for example, listening, the impact of giving the initial news of a child's disability, the parents shock response, the language used and honesty. The data further showed that despite the breakdown in communication doctors wanted to communicate effectively with parents when giving the initial news of the child's disability. Further, the parents wanted to understand and make sense of the initial news they were being given. The data however, also showed that the consultant and parent assumed a shared meaning of the information being given and did not talk through their assumptions. This led to what both parent and doctor described as 'a painful experience'.

As I came to the end of my undergraduate research I started to consider whether or not paediatric doctors received training in how to communicate with parents when giving the initial news of a child's disability. I took a step back however, from this question as my first child died just before his thirteenth birthday. A paediatric consultant that I had interviewed for my undergraduate research attended my son's funeral and gently encouraged me to continue with my studies which eventually got me thinking about my next research question.

At the stage of starting my first postgraduate degree I realised that my focus had changed and I was now more interested in how teachers' communication influenced secondary school pupils. The title of my postgraduate dissertation was 'the facilitating teacher: the influence of teachers' communication on the learning processes of pupils'. I collected data from three schools and observed the communication process between teachers and pupils in the classroom and conducted interviews with the teachers and pupils. The data showed that the communication between teacher and pupil in the classroom was influenced by how teachers set outcomes and boundaries, asked questions, created structure and tone and responded to childrens' emotional states. The data further showed that the communication between teacher and student seemed to be influenced by the teachers' knowledge of communication models, their personal epistemologies and for some, their vocation and commitment to teaching. However, the data also highlighted that communication between some teachers and pupils had broken down which resulted in pupils not listening to what was being taught. Some pupils threw

chairs around the room (although they turned and apologised to me for their actions), and on one occasion when I was observing, the pupils locked their teacher out of the classroom. When I interviewed the teachers involved in these incidents they reported that teaching was secondary to what they really wanted to do for example, one wanted to write books and the other wanted to travel. It was at this stage that I began to reflect on whether the disaffection I appeared to be observing was located in the pupils' behaviour or in the school system. This question influenced the context for the next piece of research I conducted.

In 2000, I started a comparative study for a PhD. The focus of the study was disaffection in the school system and I based myself in two schools, one in Britain and one in New Zealand. As a research student I was unprepared for what followed in the field. On arriving in one of the participating schools for example, a teacher committed suicide on the school premises during school time. This meant that I became part of a community entrenched in deep grief. The most obvious action would have been to talk to my supervisor about what was happening. However, I continued with my research and I did not talk about what had happened or the impact it had on my research. When I decided eventually to talk to my supervisor about what had happened, she was understandably, now looking back, curious about why I had not told her about my experiences.

Other difficulties I did not talk about with my supervisor, included a head teacher telling me in confidence that one of the deputy heads had gambled away overseas funding the previous weekend. This meant that I was suddenly in the position of keeping a secret. I was asked out on a date by a participant and because I said no the participant declined his initial offer to be interviewed. When I was interviewing a child at home with his family, it emerged that his father had been on the news as a murder suspect in a police enquiry. This sparked some ethical considerations. For example, the school's head teacher requested that I did not continue to include the child, whom I had interviewed, as a participant in my research. However, I had the consent of the child and his family to interview and include the child's narrative in my research. Further, I received a letter from the family to say how much they appreciated me interviewing the child as he was feeling more positive after the

experience. I decided it was therefore ethical to go ahead and include the participant's transcript in my data analysis.

When analysing the data from my field work I realised that I had been negotiating multiple dilemmas relating to my communication with staff and students in the school system and difficulties that I had not considered as part of the research despite the impact the difficulties had on my experience as a researcher. During the write up stage of my PhD my second son's health deteriorated which meant that I had to step away from my research and focus on his care. In consultation with my supervisor I decided to end my PhD research. My supervisor however, suggested that I consider starting again at some stage due to the circumstances that influenced my decision to terminate my research project. The supervisor suggested that I consider relating my future research questions to my experience as a doctoral research student. After several years when my son's condition had stabilised and I was back at work I thought about what my supervisor had said and applied to do an EdD.

1.3 Change of direction

Initially, after the transition from the taught element of the EdD to the research stage of my candidacy my research focus was on the dilemmas professional doctoral students encountered. Consequently, I framed my research questions and interview questions within this context. It was not until the analysis stage of the research that I realised my research questions and the direction of my research had changed. For instance, I defined dilemma as a situation in which a difficult choice had to be made between two equally undesirable alternatives (Soanes and Stevenson 2005).

Despite sending the participants the definition of dilemma with the research questions before their interview, some of the participants were unable to think about a dilemma that they had encountered. The participants did however disclose for the first time, the experiences that they found difficult to talk about in their role as professional doctoral research students.

It was at this point that I realised the idea I had been using previously of dilemma had changed to one of 'difficult experience' that is, an experience that appeared to be troublesome (Thompson 1995) and uncomfortable for the participants to talk

about. Difficult experiences seemed to emerge for participants when they were up against a professional, academic and personal threshold (Meyer and Land 2006, Wisker 2012). When the participants had understood and made sense of their difficult experience for example, the threshold (tension) seemed to disappear. In this study I define a difficult experience as an experience that the participants found troublesome and uncomfortable to talk about.

The literature on professional education also highlights the difficulties that doctoral students experience across a wide range of circumstances. For example, the influence of the knowledge economy (Kot and Hendel 2012, Kumar and Dawson, 2013) on doctoral education research and the relationship between higher education and industry (Park 2005, Research Councils UK, 2013). The literature also, points to different supervision models and psychoanalytically informed supervision models that are available to doctoral supervisors (Gatfield 2005, Halse and Malfroy 2010, Rafferty's 2000) in relation to theory and practice (McCulloch and Loeser 2016). Additionally, the idea of power relations (Manathunga 2007) embedded in doctoral student experience is discussed within the context of the doctoral supervision relationship (Kelly and Lloyd-Williams, 2013, Damrosch 2006, Hemer 2012). However, although there is ample literature (written by supervisors) about doctoral students and supervision (Wisker 2012, Froehlich 2012, Morris 2011), there is scant literature, written by professional doctoral students about their difficult experiences.

Recently, there has been a growing interest in doctoral education research that focuses on understanding the supervision experience. My own interests parallel this more general development. For example, I noticed that as cohort peers on the professional doctoral programme we appeared to have different difficulties that we were managing inside and outside our role as professional doctoral students. One of the difficulties which I experienced, was finding out that my initially allocated doctoral supervisor, with whom I had formed a good working relationship, was leaving to go to another university. I was informed that I would be allocated a new supervisor and I was devastated by this news. However, I also thought there might be some positive impact on my research interest and ideas from changing supervisor. I was allocated two new supervisors that had an impact on my research interest and ideas, as although they worked in the education department the questions they posed in

relation to my ideas were different and influenced the direction my research took. I did not talk to my new supervisors about the emotional impact that having to change supervisor had on my confidence to go forward, which on reflection I realise was because the experience was just too painful to talk about. When talking to my peers I became aware that some experiences which were difficult to discuss, appeared to be a common experience among other professional doctoral students. It was not until the data analysis stage that I realised that the difficulty I had experienced in terms of the change in supervisors was reflected in the participants' narratives.

1.4 Professional context for the research

Professional doctoral students are typically mid-career professionals who have specific responsibilities that set them apart from students on traditional doctoral programmes such as the PhD which is a preferable route for students who want a career in academia. EdD (doctor of education) students, for example, tend to be part-time and hold professional positions in education. Some hold managerial positions. Therefore, the professional doctoral student typically negotiates personal and professional demands in the workplace alongside their roles as researcher and student. My own experience illustrates the kind of competing demands experienced by professional doctoral students. When I started as a professional doctoral student for example, I had to balance study with the professional demands of my role as a part-time counsellor in the student support department of a Scottish university. My role was to provide student counselling to undergraduates, postgraduates, students on leave of absence and returning students.

Other competing demands as a professional doctoral student included maintaining relationships with my cohort from the start to the end of the professional doctorate as the consistency of contact was important since we provided academic and personal support to each other. At the same time, I had to negotiate diary times, meet the programme requirements and establish a good working relationship with my doctoral supervisors. There were also personal demands, such as caring for my son who had a severe disability and managing the team of registered nurses whom I employed to facilitate his needs and to provide medical care when I was working. Further, I had to nurture the relationship with my partner, friends and family and

respond to unexpected crises. I had to deal with the financial implications of being on a zero-hour contract, working part-time, having a long journey to work and the uncertainty all this brought. The nature of my son's life limiting condition meant that I was often called away in an emergency and on some occasions, I had to write assignments in hospital medical libraries in order to meet the programme deadlines.

1.5 Wider professional doctoral context

Professional doctorates are distinguished from PhDs in one important way, on a professional doctorate, students undertake a series of assessed modules. These modules are organised in a similar way to Master's study, which most candidates are familiar with. Once the modules are complete, the professional doctoral student must focus on their extended study, which comprises of between 50,000 to 60,000 words. The transition to the individual, self-motivated study approach requires contrasts with the modular approach, where working in a group, working to deadlines and regular contact with module tutors is the norm. Many students find the transition from the modular approach to the self-motivated extended study stage difficult due to the loss of regular contact with their peers and the close relationships that they have formed. At this transition stage the professional doctoral student is required to engage in new relationships with their allocated supervisors and arrange informal peer group support outside the university. However, due to the geographical distances between professional doctoral students and their competing demands, peer contact can often be lost.

1.6 Developments in professional doctoral education

Since I began my doctoral research, doctoral education has become more diverse. When I started, the focus in education literature was on doctoral student experiences within an ethical context. France, Bendelow and Williams (2000) discussed '*Ethical dilemmas and tensions in practice*' for example, and Tickle (2002) wrote about ethical dilemmas in educational action research. Further, McNamee and Bridges (2002) addressed the ethics of education research in terms of the guilt related to whistle blowing, potential conflict and the relevance of accountability. However, the literature has expanded now beyond this interest in ethics to questions about ethical

practices for the supervision process itself. Examples include Wisker's (2012) text on *The good supervisor*, and Cherry's (2012) paper on *The paradox and fog of supervision: site for the encounters and growth of praxis, persons and voices*. Nevertheless, as I will show in more detail in chapter two of this thesis, there is still relatively little literature on the supervision relationship exploring these nuanced dynamics from a psychoanalytical perspective. Most studies are concerned with the doctoral supervisors' perceptions of the doctoral student experience. Some examples of this approach include Celik's (2013) writing about the contribution of supervisors to doctoral students in doctoral education and Halse and Malfroy's (2010) re-theorising of the doctoral supervision as professional work. Much less is written from the students' perspectives, with the notable exception of Ismail, Majid and Ismail (2013). However, their discussion focuses on research students' perspectives, rather than those of professional doctoral students and they do not discuss students' difficult experiences, the focus of this study. There is, therefore, a gap in the literature, which this study seeks to address through exploring the less visible dynamics of professional doctoral students' experiences that they find difficult to talk about in supervision.

1.7 Research aim and questions

The following aim and questions were developed out of my interests in students' experience of doctoral research, and my particular interest in the unique challenges presented by the professional doctoral context and the subtle, often unconscious, dynamics of the supervisor relationships.

The aim of my thesis was,

- To explore professional doctoral student experiences and the less visible dynamics that shape their difficulties.

The research questions I used to address my aim were,

1. During the course of the thesis preparation, what difficulties do professional doctoral students face?

2. What are the expectations professional doctoral students have of the supervision relationship? Are these expectations met?
3. What support might enhance professional doctoral students' experience with regard to discussing difficulties in the supervision relationship?

1.8 Significance of the research

My unique contribution to knowledge is to examine the doctoral supervision relationship from the perspective of professional doctoral students using ideas from Winnicott's theories as a framework. Some of the psychoanalytical ideas that I borrow from Winnicott's theories include "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89), "illusion-disillusionment" (p.96), "holding phase" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) and "potential space" (Winnicott 2005, p.144). My findings will lead to suggestions for training supervisors and supervisees in Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas to help capture the less visible moments that influence experiences and difficulties professional doctoral students face. The training will provide a psychoanalytical understanding of the dynamics that influence the supervision relationship. Understanding the dynamics that underpin the supervisor and supervisee relationship will provide an opportunity for both parties to consider the process of supervision. I am aware that doctoral students and doctoral supervisors are interested in Winnicott's ideas as there was always full attendance at my research presentations.

1.9 Structure of the research

Chapter two presents literature on the nature of contemporary doctoral education, the nature of doctoral supervision and the nature of doctoral student experience. I discuss psychoanalytical theoretical perspectives in other contexts. I explain the journey that informed my decision to use Winnicott's ideas and my rationale. To conclude, I present Winnicott's psychoanalytical theories and ideas that frame this thesis.

Chapter three explains the psychoanalytical approach that frames this study and the research methods I used to generate data for the analysis. I discuss the steps I took to ensure trustworthiness and to represent participants' narratives as accurately as possible. To conclude I present the ethical considerations that emerged through the research process.

Chapter four explains my decision to use a transcription method to collect the data. I describe my search for a compatible method of analysis. To conclude, I discuss my decision to use Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method of analysis and explain how I applied the method.

In chapters five, six and seven I highlight my findings and I revisit the research questions. I draw on Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas to make sense of the participants' narratives and their contributions. I make suggestions in relation to including Winnicott's ideas in supervision training and the supervision relationship.

In chapter eight I respond to the research questions set out in chapter one. Further, I bring together the analysis of chapters five, six and seven and offer a broad insight into professional doctoral student experience and the supervision relationship.

In chapter nine I explain that I believe that the primary implications from this thesis analysis are for the practice of doctoral supervision. I therefore present suggestions for practice mostly directed at supervisors and some recommendations. I offer questions to consider for future research and to conclude I reflect on my research experience.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the literature that compliments and contextualises my research from different perspectives. This thesis focuses particularly on the nature of doctoral student experience within doctoral education. The literature is considered broadly and on the fringes of this perimeter. Throughout the chapter, the literature is unpacked to construct an understanding of what influences the doctoral student experience and the supervision relationship and how the doctoral student experience is defined in different areas of doctoral education. Making sense of the different constructions, which emerge in the literature review, is essential to understanding how to move forward with the intention of improving doctoral student experience.

The literature review begins by considering the nature of contemporary doctoral education. I present literature that highlights the impact of the knowledge economy on doctoral education. I then go on to explore the nature of doctoral supervision, supervision models and some psychoanalytically informed models that shape supervision approaches. I explain the nature of professional doctoral student experience and discuss power relations and dynamics that occur in the supervision relationship. The final section, presents literature relating to psychoanalytical theory in education research. I discuss literature on psychoanalytical theories that are typically used in education research and their value, or not, to this thesis. I describe my reasons for borrowing Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas and some of the factors that influenced my choice of theoretical perspective. I present literature on the use of Winnicott's ideas in other professional contexts. The psychoanalytical ideas drawn from Winnicott's theories, "transitional objects and transitional phenomena: a study of the first not-me possession" (Winnicott 1953), "the parent-infant relationship" (Winnicott 1960 cited in Winnicott 1965) and "playing and reality" (Winnicott 2005) will be explained. The chapter concludes by highlighting the gaps in the literature on doctoral student experience.

2.2 The nature of contemporary doctoral education

Changes, which have occurred nationally and internationally in doctoral education, have had an impact on the nature of supervision approaches, the supervision relationship and the doctoral student experience. A key factor, relating to the changes, is the general policy shift towards a knowledge economy, this is an idea dictated by a growing competitive global market. I define the knowledge economy as the “production...of knowledge-intensive activities” (Powell and Snellman 2004, p.201) that advance industry.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2014) forum concluded that there is a need for a “coherent policy approach to harness the economic benefits of data driven innovation” (accessed on 22.1.15) in other words, a focus on how and what “data collection...[and] analysis” (p.15) can contribute to the economy. Usher (2002) suggests for example, that the knowledge economy has been complicit in redefining knowledge from epistemology to an economy of knowledge that is, an economy in which the production, distribution and use of knowledge is the main driver of growth, wealth and employment across all industries (OECD 1996, APEC 2000). The idea of the knowledge economy underpins the Research Councils UK (2013) aim to guarantee that *“the needs of business and industry are reflected in...forward strategies, including training and research translation”* (p.6). The integration of industry and research infers that doctoral education is a commodity. Peters and Besley (2006) claim that doctoral education enhances innovation and prepares the workforce for competition in the global market economy. The authors’ claim suggests that the drive for a knowledge economy is based on the Research Councils UK (2013) assumption that *“research achieves impact through researchers’ transferable knowledge and skills in collaboration with the public, business, government and the third sector”* (p.1). The government’s focus on the knowledge economy and how it can fuel the global market however, does not seem to consider the nature of professional doctoral student experience when producing the fuel.

2.2.1 Doctoral study

Although the explosion of literature on the knowledge economy does not appear to answer the above question, it does focus on areas relating to professional doctorates and the workplace. For example, Kot and Hendel's (2012) study investigates collaboration and employability and the emerging vocational emphasis in doctoral education that has influenced a growth in professional doctorate programmes, particularly in British and Australian universities since the early 1990s. These include professional doctorates in education (EdD) (Loxley and Seery 2012), engineering (EngD) (Clark and Wilkinson 2012), and business and administration (DBA) (Banerjee and Morley 2013). Costley (2013) argues that the growth of the professional doctorate is linked to the emphasis on developing relationships between Higher Education institutions and professional communities. Bob Burgess, founder of the UK Council for Graduate Education (UKCGE), claims that this is why professional doctorates "*fit the spirit of the age even more now than they did in the early 1990's*" (Gill 2009 p.2). The timescale suggests that change in emphasis in doctoral education has been a gradual process that has been influenced by a change in universities' policies and practices. We might, therefore, wonder if the structure of traditional and contemporary doctoral degrees has changed as a result.

2.2.2 Differences between PhDs and professional doctorates

Kot and Hendel (2012) claim that the professional doctorate and the PhD are difficult to define due to the variations of structure and content in programmes across the UK and globally. These variations appear to indicate that students have wider academic and personal choices in terms of the different doctoral programmes and structures available to them.

The diversity in doctoral education can be observed specifically in professional doctoral programmes within dimensions such as the time allocated for completion, the number of modules needed, and the amount of words required for the thesis. Some examples of current professional doctorates are given below,

University of Sydney Australia	3-4 years full time and part-time. Requirement: 2 modules over 1 year and an 80,000 word thesis.
Brunel University of London UK	5 years part-time. Requirement: 4 modules over 2 years and a 70-80,000 word thesis.
Harvard University USA	Time limit is not specified. Requirement: 16 modules: 6 core and 10 elective, dissertation – number of words are not specified.
University of Leicester UK	4-5 years part-time. Requirement: 1 year of modules and a residential weekend. A pilot study in the 2 nd year and a 55,000 word thesis.
University of Waikato New Zealand	4 year full time course and part-time. Requirement is in two parts (1) Research portfolio, (2) a thesis of number of words not specified.

Table 2.1: Characteristics of international and national EdD programmes

The variation in these professional doctoral programmes suggests that the universities have different perspectives on priorities and content; these undermine any notion of uniformity in doctoral education.

Both within the UK and globally, the traditional PhD has a more consistent format. Thomson and Walker (2010) describe it as a research project on which a student works alone with a supervisor either over a 3 years full time period or a 5 year part-time period which culminates in a thesis of 80,000 to 100,000 words. Nonetheless, PhDs can also differ from each other. For example, Jackson (2013) describes a PhD that is based on writing up to six publications with no more than 80,000 words but with a similar structure of supervision to the traditional academic PhD. Despite the growth and variations of doctoral programmes on offer, Lahenius and Martinsuo (2011) argue that there needs to be more research conducted on PhD models that include more flexibility, this is because the representation of the traditional PhD and the professional doctorate still dominates the literature. A common concern about both traditional and contemporary doctoral programmes is whether or not findings from research, can impact on contemporary social issues and products which often move quickly, sometimes leaving the research behind. Scott et al. (2004) found that part-time professional doctoral EngD, DBA and EdD students had different reasons for applying to be a doctoral candidate. They ranged from “*accelerated promotion,*

management training, acquisition of experience and financial support” (p.114) to motivation, professional development and diverse career options. The variety in the reasons that doctoral students give for pursuing a professional doctorate suggests that the professional doctorate should be tailor-made to suit the doctoral students’ professional responsibilities and development. Kumar and Dawson’s (2013) study found that EdD students used online learning from their taught modules and their assignments to inform their professional practice within their organisations. The participants applied,

A new data-driven approach to decision-making...new evaluation methods in their organization...knowledge and skills...professional development...presentations at the school, county and district level to share their own use of technology in their teaching, their knowledge of technology integration and pedagogical strategies with colleagues, teachers and administrators (Kumar and Dawson 2013 p.171-172).

Furthermore, the findings of Kumar and Dawson’s (2013) study seem to suggest that the purpose of the professional doctorate is to input knowledge into professional communities and industries, provoking questions about how the knowledge economy may influence professional doctoral student experiences.

2.2.3 Features of a professional doctorate

As suggested above, the knowledge economy appears to underpin professional doctorates. While professional doctorates share similar characteristics with other doctoral programmes, the professional doctoral students’ remit differs in that these students import their knowledge into industry and organisations in order to inform policy and practice. Within a wider context, the UK government’s commitment to enhance the relationship between industry and research is part of a global change. Neumann’s (2005) study found that, in countries such as Canada, Australia and the USA, there was a consensus within doctoral education that the way forward was to develop a knowledge economy. A growing requirement for higher credentials was found in Kot and Hendel’s (2012) study that suggested “professional and accrediting

organizations have played a significant role in the establishment of professional doctorates in the USA. Central to this role have been the changing entry requirements for certain professions” (p.353). Further, Usher (2002) describes the mining of human capital that is underpinned in professional transferable skills such as “problem-solving, collaborative work, leadership and knowledge application” (p.145). If, as predicted and more specifically in the USA, that one percent of the population has a doctorate (Peterson’s staff 2014), the raising of the professional credential bar to such a high position suggests that ninety-nine per cent of the population are excluded from the higher echelons of the job market.

Baldwin (2013) described professional doctoral students striving to complete a doctoral degree, as typically mid-career professionals who incorporated their multiple commitments and responsibilities, such as care, domesticity, finances, divorce and health, into their research practice, time and experience. Lee, Brennan and Green (2009) claim that professional doctoral students are,

Better placed to address some of the more intransigent and difficult questions precisely because of their employment where such matters are the stuff of daily life (p.283).

In the literature, the trend is to afford professional doctoral students with a never-ending list of attributes that contribute to the workplace. For example, Kumar and Dawson (2013) identify confidence, professional profile, growth of professional responsibility and increased participation as attributes that professional doctoral students have developed on their doctoral programmes and use in their working practices. Also, consideration needs to be given to the qualities, such as “perseverance, resilience, innovation and creative thinking” that underpin the professional doctoral students’ abilities to conduct their research within the context of their lives (Halse and Mowbray 2011, p.519). These are qualities, which Loxley and Seery (2012) suggest are “deepened and reinforced” (p.4) through the professional doctoral students’ candidacy. Narrowing down the focus of this literature review within the context of doctoral student experience the next section presents the nature of doctoral supervision.

2.3 The nature of doctoral supervision

The nature of supervision has been characterised by the types of approaches which supervisors use to support doctoral students (McCulloch and Loeser 2016). This section discusses supervision approaches in order to establish the explicit and implicit purpose that underpins supervision practice.

Gatfield's (2005) supervisory management grid, for example, contains four management styles placed between two high to low axes, one labelled "support" (p.317) and the other labelled "structure" (p.317). The four management styles are,

- **Laissez-faire** [low structure low support] - Minimal input from supervisor who is "non-directive and not committed to high levels of personal interaction" (Gatfield 2005, p.317) and the student is expected to manage their own research project and level of commitment.
- **Pastoral** [low structure high support] - The supervisor is concerned with the student's welfare and gives information which leaves the student to take responsibility for managing their research project and structure.
- **Directional** [high structure low support] - The focus of supervision is the management and direction of the student's research project. The supervisor does not provide the student with pastoral support.
- **Contractual** [high structure high support] - The supervisor is involved with the management of the student's research project and, if needed, provides pastoral support (Gatfield 2005).

As demonstrated in Gatfield's (2005) diagram below, the four styles are inter-dependent and can change over time at any stage throughout the supervision process.

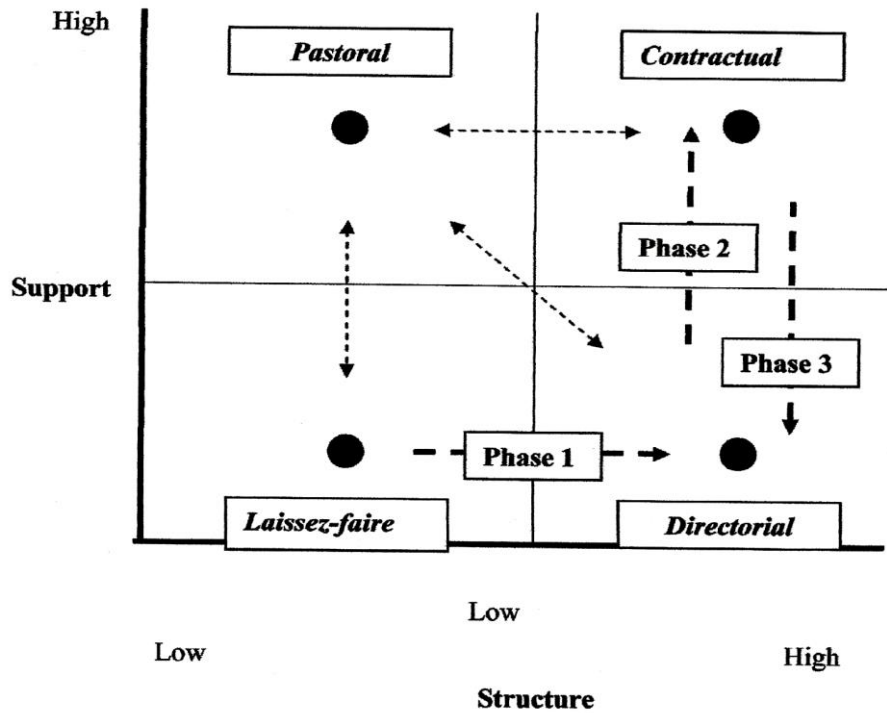


Figure 2.1: Gatfield's (2005) management grid (p.322)

A relational theme appears to weave in and out of the above supervisory management grid. In Gatfield's (2005) study, a supervisor reports that,

There's an initial phase...of context-setting and negotiating happening... the whole process of renegotiating what's possible, what's expected, negotiating the relationship between the candidate and the supervisor (p.322).

However, the supervisor's description of the supervision process within the supervisory management grid does not appear to address the dynamics that underpin the negotiation process. For example, Grant (1999) argues that, in the supervision space, the supervisor and doctoral student can,

Remind each other of former significant others...and of themselves even. They may feel strong feelings of gratitude, resentment, frustration, disappointment, love, because of these reminders (p.8).

Grant's (1999) argument highlights the complex nature of the supervision process and how important it is to consider the dynamics that underpin the supervision relationship and their impact. Deuchar (2008) suggests that students and supervisors need to be aware of "pressures [that] can arise on both sides at particular times" (p.498). For example, within the context of the supervisory management grid, a supervisor may focus on pastoral care when a student needs direction. Alternatively, a student may need pastoral input when a supervisor is working within a laissez-faire framework. The supervisory management grid highlights the different supervision styles which supervisors can move in and out of at any stage in the supervision process. However, is there space within a structured supervision model for a doctoral supervisor and a doctoral student to negotiate their relationship authentically?

The complex nature of support and structure links to Lee's (2008) supervision model which was developed from a study on how supervisors and their own doctoral educational supervision experiences influenced the way in which they supervised doctoral students. Lee's (2008) model is defined within a "supervisor's activity...supervisor's knowledge and skills...[and] possible student reaction" (p.268). The key factors are,

- functional: facilitating a structure for the doctoral process;
- enculturation: focus on learning, guidance and information;
- critical thinking: negotiating constructs and challenges;
- emancipation: facilitating momentum and resilience;
- and relationship development: good supportive academic relationship until the end of the doctoral process (Lee 2008, p.268).

An important key factor in what differentiates this model from the supervisory management grid is its specific focus on relationship development and the recognition that, in the supervision relationship, the student can experience tension between dependency and independency. In reflecting on their experience of being a doctoral student, a supervisor reports: "I would give (my supervisor) drafts of my chapters, sometimes I would just have a moan" (Lee 2008, p.277). Reporting on

practice, the supervisor explained: “I would like to ask my student ‘is there anything I can do to make it easier for you?’” (Lee 2008, p.277) The supervisor’s desire to offer a different approach to the doctoral student is complicated by conflicting roles characterised by supervisors as follows,

Supervisor’s professional role	Supervisor’s personal self
The professional requirement for completion.	The personal desire for quality.
Institutional requirement to be a service provider to increasing numbers of doctoral students.	A desire to provide a truly individual education opportunity.
A disciplinary requirement to adhere to the standards required	A personal desire to ensure that the student is successful.
The academic member of staff’s own career.	Facilitating the student’s personal development

Figure 2.2: The roles of supervisors (Lee 2008)

The tension that supervisors have to negotiate between institutional policy, legislation and facilitating their doctoral students towards a successful completion, highlights a link to doctoral student experience. Lee’s (2008) study found that doctoral students are influenced by institutional requirements that frame supervisor practice and the supervisors’ own historical experiences of doctoral supervision. However, there may be other factors that influence tension in the supervision relationship for example, the different dynamics that professional doctoral students contribute such as “rigidity...low tolerance of... difference...denial of creativity...abuses [of] power... [and] harassment, abandonment...[and] rejection” (Lee 2008, p.279). The tensions in the supervision relationship seem therefore to be inevitable and an opportunity for the supervisee and supervisor to use their negotiation skills.

Halse and Malfroy’s (2010) “professional work” (p.79) conceptual supervision model is an example of a model with a predominantly academic framework. The model is informed by language, discourse and theory within the context of the following five characteristics,

Learning alliance	The agreement between supervisor and student... and is akin to the collaborative 'therapeutic alliance' between a patient and clinician.
Habits of mind	[They] involve...[the supervisor] being interested in the students and their work.
Scholarly expertise	Theoretical knowledge acquired through reflection and thinking.
Techne	Creative, productive use of expert knowledge to bring something into existence or accomplish a particular objective.
Contextual expertise	Expertise comprises an understanding of the contemporary climate of universities in relation to the doctorate and doctoral education (Halse and Malfroy 2010, p.83-87)

Figure 2.3: Halse and Malfroy's (2010) characteristics of doctoral research

In the above model, the characteristics appear to make up an implicit code of conduct which addresses both the academic and the relational “accountability and quality assurance” (Halse and Malfroy 2010, p.79). The authors’ supervision model is informed by their research that shows supervisors use their professional and personal experience as a reference point to help facilitate the success of their doctoral students and to manage the pitfalls they may be experiencing. For example, “when someone’s life appears to be falling apart...and it’s affecting their work, then they need to feel that they’re able to talk and not be judged (Male Social Science Professor)” (Halse and Malfroy 2010, p.86). This description highlights the non-judgemental listening nature of the supervisor and the care afforded to the doctoral student. Halse and Malfroy’s (2010) supervision model appears therefore, to include an implicit care element.

Linden, Ohlin and Brodin (2013) suggest a mentoring doctoral supervision model that is dependent on congruence and shared learning and underpinned in implicit relational dynamics that are “informal” and for the authors “perhaps...[have] always existed in academia” (Linden, Ohlin and Brodin 2013, p.639). Manathunga (2007) however, suggests that the mentor model is implicitly within a “site of governmentality” (Devos 2004 cited in Manathunga 2007, p.210) that is defined by the institution’s rules and regulations that are embedded in invisible “surveillance mechanisms” (p.208). The power relational dynamic between mentor and mentee, which Manathunga (2007) describes, is similar to an informal mentoring that can

occur in other forms of doctoral supervision. For example, Froehlich (2012) reports using a mentor style in doctoral supervision for three decades before realising all was not as it seemed when approached by an ex-doctoral student who did not complete. As Froehlich (2012) stated,

His story was full of hurt and anger many years later as he described me as the representative of a university who in his mind had been harmful when keeping him from pursuing his career dreams (p.45).

Froehlich's (2012) experience highlights how important it is for supervisors to be clear about their supervision approach and responsibilities in terms of both the supervisor and the doctoral student.

Kiley (2009) focuses on the doctoral student experience and the "liminal state" in which the tension between knowing, not knowing and feeling stuck exist (p.293). He argues that understanding the threshold concepts, which reinforce a liminal state, facilitates a learning transition. According to Kiley (2009), making sense and forming an understanding of the transition between certainty and uncertainty is more productive in collaborative group work where there is "novice to expert" (p.302) learning and an opportunity to "transform... integrate... bounded [and] troublesome" (p.297) ideas and concerns about being stuck. However, groups may not be accessible to typically part-time professional doctoral students due to them having to managing multiple responsibilities alongside their doctoral education.

Nevertheless, whether supervision is in a group or on a one to one basis, often professional doctoral students are met with the challenge of deep rooted constructs which can limit their abilities to cross a learning threshold. For example, a supervisor reports that, for business doctoral students,

To make a jump from their very practical applied business ways of thinking about the world to thinking in academic terms, theoretically, conceptually is quite a leap...all they want to do is concentrate on the doing of it because that's how their head works (SS17) (Kiley 2009, p.299).

Although it may be a challenge to break through constructs, the experience may not always be as difficult as it seems. For instance, it is easy to forget that thresholds are unlikely to be a new phenomenon for professional doctoral students because, as Tierney (1997) argues, we learn as we go about our everyday lives. These would most likely include experiences defined by the characteristics which make up the conceptual threshold model. Meyer and Land (2006) describe threshold concepts as, transformation, integration, reverse, bounded and troublesome moments that Wisker (2012) argues,

Are seen as crucial moments in the research journey, and as ways of identifying when students start to work conceptually, critically and creatively, and so are more able to produce breakthrough thinking (p.9).

Wisker’s (2012) argument implies that crossing thresholds is embedded in the nature of doctoral education and that the struggle is difficult to avoid since it is the essence of where a professional doctoral student comes from in their individual learning process and the journey which they are on towards successful completion. In Kiley’s (2009) study, a supervisor reports the experience of a threshold crossing as being: “able to see some pattern, some linking of the pieces and...develop a conceptual framework (p.309)”. The supervisor’s description is similar to the purpose of the previous approaches mentioned above. These are to facilitate the professional doctoral student’s academic learning development and experience. As can be seen, each author describes the supervision model in different ways. The table below summarises each approach,

Gatfield (2005)	Lee (2008)	Halse and Malfroy (2010)	Linden, Ohlin and Brodin (2013)	Kiley (2009)
Laissez-faire Pastoral Directional Contractual	Functional Enculturation Critical thinking Relationship development	Learning alliance Habits of mind Scholarly expertise Techne Contextual expertise	Mentoring Learning Academic relationship Meaningful experience Congruence	Transformation Integration Reverse Bounded Troublesome

Figure 2.4: Characteristics of the five supervision models

As shown in Figure 2.4 above, the characteristics of the supervision models make explicit their nature and purpose. Threads, which weave in and out of the supervision models, are the implicit relational dynamics that seem to be embedded in the doctoral supervisors' and the professional doctoral students' historical and contemporary experiences.

2.3.1 Psychoanalytically informed supervision

There has been a growing literature within the field of research over the last two decades that has focused on psychoanalysis within the context of research supervision and unconscious processes that emerge in the supervision relationship (Hollway and Jefferson 2000, Clarke 2008). The unconscious for example, "does not sit still waiting to be known but is constantly active" (Bibby 2018, p.10). The psychoanalytical approach to supervision therefore appears to be a useful tool for understanding "anything unusual...[or issues] previously unrecognized" (Jervis 2012, p.216) in a research process. Mander's (2002) study for example, draws on Winnicott's (2005) psychoanalytical idea of "a potential space" (p.55) that is, a space between an individual and significant other in which the relationship, social contact and environment is negotiated. The purpose of using Winnicott's (2005) ideas was to understand and make sense of "thinking about thinking...[and] conceptualising and consulting with another mind" (p.43) in the supervision process. Mander (2002) cautions however, that a potential space developed in the supervision relationship, is dependent on understanding and making sense of unconscious communications that if not realised might cause a threat to the potential space.

Thinking about the unconscious can be informative (Searles 1986) however, this seems dependent on the supervisor "hold[ing] in their awareness that the processes of supervision have many facets within the internal world...[which can] touch both on a professional self as well as a personal self" (Driver 2002, p.61). The supervisor's knowledge of their responsibility within a psychoanalytically informed supervision space therefore appears to be important. Jervis's (2012) study describes an experience of supervision framed within the notion of parallel process. That is, a "reflecting [of] the impasse" (Carroll 1996, p.106) between supervisee and supervisor. For example, Jervis (2012) suggests that the experience of parallel

process in supervision highlighted “various unconscious, multidirectional communications...[that] enhanced...[an] understanding of respondents’ experiences in three ways” (Jervis 2012, p.310) that is, “1) unrecognized problems within an individual researcher-respondent relationship. 2) How certain feelings underlying that particular relationship were commonly experienced by other respondents. 3) How powerfully the respondents’ social context influenced their emotional experiences” (Jervis 2012, p.310). The experience of psychoanalytical supervision appears to be dependent on the supervisor and the supervisee’s awareness of the less visible dynamics in their relationship. For Shmukler (2017), being supervised within a psychoanalytical model provided an opportunity to make sense of the unconscious dynamics and the significance of how early infancy influences emotional development and adult construction.

2.3.2 Psychoanalytically informed models of supervision

Rafferty (2000) developed a psychoanalytical clinical supervision model for health visitors using Winnicott’s (1965) ideas relating to “‘holding’, ‘handling’ and ‘object presenting’” (Rafferty 2000, p.154) to inform supervision practice and the relationship between the supervisor and supervisee. For example,

Ideas	Description	Supervision
Holding	Maternal ‘holding’ is both a physical and an emotional act. The good enough mother contains and manages the baby’s feelings and impulses by empathizing with him and protecting him from too many jarring experiences (Rafferty 2000, p.154).	Involves containing and managing the feelings and impulses of the supervisee through the demonstration of empathy and the protection of the supervisee from the effect of too many ‘jarring experiences’ (Rafferty 2000, p.154).
Handling	Maternal ‘handling’ is to provide the baby with a sense of connection and orientation to his body and his world. Failure of such a provision can leave the child...without the ability to connect together what he feels and thinks is	Involves providing reference points for bringing the mind and body experiences of the world of work together. This is necessary in order to help [practioners] determine good enough responses to demands from others...which have implications for their body (e.g. physical demands)

	right and wrong (Rafferty 2000, p.157).	and their mind (e.g. competency demands) (Rafferty 2000, p.157).
Object presenting	Refers to the ways the mother brings the outside world to the baby. The development of reciprocity between the infant and the mother facilitates the baby's instinctual abilities to both receive and explore... When 'all goes well' the baby develops an ability to associate his responses with a desirable outcome... [that is,] the infant's belief that he has the capacity to bring about change through his own actions (Rafferty 2000, p.158).	Supervision has to be led by the interests, excitements and concerns of the supervisee... supervision is a reciprocal relationship and is consistently identified although expressed in terms such as 'exchange'... 'sharing'... 'collegial or mutual' (Rafferty 2000, p.158)

Figure 2.5: Rafferty's (2000) psychoanalytical supervision model

Within a doctoral supervision perspective, the author appears to be inferring that framing supervision within the ideas of holding, handling and object presenting provides support and a space within which the supervisee can feel safe and theoretically understand the influence their personal process has on their professional practice and their interventions.

Elliott, Ryan and Hollway (2012) discuss a psychoanalytical supervision model within the context of research encounters and reflexivity. The authors use case studies for example, to explore different ways of accessing reflexivity by drawing on the "identity transitions of first-time mothers in an inner city multicultural environment" (Elliott, Ryan and Hollway 2012, p.4). The psychoanalytical ideas used to inform the model are drawn from object relations for example, "noticing oneself, of staying engaged emotionally...[and] creating a reflective distance" (p.3). The research team decided to fund an external supervisor. One of the researchers from the team for example, received external non-clinical supervision with a psychoanalytical supervisor which considered the "emotional demands of the... [researcher's] reflexive use of self" (Elliott, Ryan and Hollway 2012, p.5). This seemed to create a "capacity for thinking in relation to the intensity, embeddedness and complexity of the face-to-face

interview encounter” (p.24). For Elliott, Ryan and Hollway (2012) the use of a psychoanalytical supervision model facilitates a process of disentanglement from the interviewee’s narrative in order to make sense of the unconscious less visible interview process.

The “lived emotional experience” (Ogden 2005, p.1) this psychoanalytical supervision model appears to offer, seems to enable researchers’ understanding of self in relation to other. Elliott, Ryan and Hollway (2012) argue that the psychoanalytical ideas that informed their researcher’s supervision were a “safeguard against wild analysis” (p.21). The supervision space, for example, seemed to provide the researcher with an opportunity to work out any personal concerns that were being projected onto the interview data and did not belong to the interview. Within the framework of the psychoanalytical supervision model the researcher adopted psychoanalytical ideas which led to,

- Noticing and listening to oneself
- Not closing down
- Staying engaged with feelings in relation to self and other
- Simultaneously creating a space for associative thinking and reflection (Elliott, Ryan and Hollway 2012, p.23)

The psychoanalytically informed supervision models appear to infer that the nature of supervision is intersubjective. Ogden (2004) refers to intersubjectivity as the “analytic third” that is “jointly, but asymmetrically constructed by the analytic pair” (p.863). Yerushalmi’s (2012) study on the supervision of psychotherapists working with chronically ill patients appears to reflect Ogden’s (2004) notion of the analytic pair. For example, Yerushalmi (2012) suggests that the intersubjective nature of the supervision relationship enables the supervisor and supervisee to “explore and discover their own professional and personal selves” (Yerushalmi 2012, p.159). Yerushalmi’s (2012) model highlights for example, how the intersubjective supervision informs theory and practice,

Theory	Practice
Negotiating meaning of clinical occurrences that the supervisee brings to the supervision (Yerushalmi 2012, p.155).	This infers that the supervisor's role is to facilitate the supervisees understanding of the theory in relation to their practice.
The meanings of the relational occurrences and mutual responses between supervisor and supervisee (Yerushalmi 2012, p.155).	This appears to relate to understanding and making sense of the theoretical psychoanalytical ideas and dynamics that emerge in the supervision relationship within the context of the supervisee's relationship with their clients.
The supervisor's professional authority and how it is exercised in supervision (Yerushalmi 2012, p.155)	For example, "co-constructing and mutually formalizing insights in relation to the supervisee's practice" (Yerushalmi 2012, p.159).
The supervisor-supervisee power balance (Yerushalmi 2012, 156)	This is an "awareness of power imbalances in the intersubjective supervision process to attain a balance" (Yerushalmi 2012, p.160).

Figure 2.6: Yerushalmi's (2012) psychoanalytical supervision model

Yerushalmi's (2012) model infers that the intersubjective relationship between the supervisor and supervisee enables a process of exploration, negotiation and learning. Stewart (2002) discusses the "interface between teaching and supervision" (p.64) and suggests that relaying too much theory in supervision could lead to "sterile instruction...[and] while teachers can derive satisfaction from a demonstration of their cleverness, insufficient attention may be paid to the level of insight gained" (p.68). However, within the context of Yerushalmi's (2012) model the supervisees appear to be to be learning and gaining insights into themselves, theory and their practice with the chronically ill patients.

To summarise, I have discussed the growth of literature relating to psychoanalytically informed supervision over the last two decades. I have highlighted the supervisors and supervisees understanding of the impact less visible dynamics have on the supervision relationship. Psychoanalytical ideas have been discussed in relation to how they influence thinking about thinking and the awareness of the supervisor supervisee's internal worlds. The notion of parallel process has been highlighted and the intersubjective nature of the supervision and learning process.

2.4 The nature of doctoral student experience

This section discusses the different contexts that influence doctoral student experience. Namely, these are the supervision relationship with a specific emphasis on the doctoral students' experiences, fieldwork, disengagement and communication. There is a trend in the literature to focus on doctoral student experience from a third person perspective. For example, Hughes and Tight (2013) discuss doctoral student experience using "the journey metaphor" (p.765) of John Bunyan's story 'The Pilgrims Progress' which reads, "over that Valley hangs the discouraging Clouds of confusion...in a word, it is every whit dreadful, being utterly without Order" (p.770). Throughout their paper, Hughes and Tight (2013) make comparisons between this text and doctoral student experience that does not include a first person perspective. The literature reviewed for this section, therefore, is represented mostly in the third person.

Begin and Gerard's (2013) survey of 533 doctoral students on "the role that doctoral supervisors should adopt in supporting their students" (p.267) captures how doctoral students perceive their own experiences. Begin and Gerard (2013) found that, when talking about their experiences, the majority of doctoral students did not mention their supervisor or the supervisor's role. A doctoral student reports, for example, "I just get on with it...by the time you get to this stage, you should be able to work by yourself (subject 361)" (Begin and Gerard 2013, p.271). A second doctoral student talked about experiencing uncertainty, "it's like your first parachute jump; you don't know where you're going or how you're going to get there (subject 51)" (Begin and Gerard 2013, p.271). The doctoral students' experiences seem to imply that the impact of uncertainty was more significant than the doctoral student's supervision relationship. Owler (2010) argues that the uncertainty, which doctoral students experience when writing their thesis, can cause isolation, aloneness and loneliness. The author suggests that, although these are difficult experiences, "we need... uncertainty [as] in seeking an answer it enables or motivates us to move forward" (Owler 2010, p.295). This suggestion links to the concept of threshold crossings that Meyer and Land (2006) claim are,

Akin to a portal opening up a new and previously inaccessible way of thinking about something. It represents a transformed way of understanding or viewing something without which the learner cannot progress (p.3).

In Owler's (2010) study for example, a doctoral student reports an uncertain threshold experience as "no-one's going to read this, there's no job at the end of it, why am I doing this, it's a waste of time...then I come back to the, 'I am enjoying this'" (p.300). The doctoral student's perspective infers that the threshold experience facilitates a tension between certainty and uncertainty.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the doctoral students' experiences relate to the supervision approaches within which the supervisors facilitate a process of crossing academic and personal development thresholds. The support, which doctoral students need to cross thresholds, highlights the purpose of the supervision relationship. Healy (2010) conducted an interview with an academic who reported, "being a supervisor is a bit like being a parent and parents aren't always the best parents" (p.1). This suggests that doctoral student experience can be influenced, also, by the difficult relationships that doctoral students may have with their supervisors. For example, Morris's (2011) study highlights doctoral students' experiences of being bullied by their supervisors. The author generated data from online blogs in which a doctoral student reported,

She's dismissive of my ideas, talks down to me
condescendingly, brings me down in front of other people,
slams her fists on her desk while raising her voice. (Blogger 3)
(Morris 2011, p.550).

While it is important to acknowledge this doctoral student's report of the supervisor's behaviour and its disturbing nature, it is important also to acknowledge that the supervision relationship is dependent on the communication of concerns in order that the relationship can be renegotiated. For example, the professor interviewed by Healy (2010) reported that, "some students could misread as bullying what was intended as constructive criticism or "a rev up" for a poorly performing student" (Healy 2010, p.1). The presented examples suggest that a key factor underpinning

their doctoral student experiences is the doctoral students' perceptions of their supervisors.

The literature considers the emotional and personal impact of doctoral student experience inside and outside of the research field within the context of disengagement. Vekkaila, Pyhalto and Lonka (2013) define disengagement as a

Student's passivity with regard to a task or an activity at hand...including distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative emotions toward the work in general (p.62-63).

Vekkaila, Pyhalto and Lonka (2013) found that the main reasons for disengagement related to the "struggles and conflict" (p.61) the doctoral students' experienced within their academic communities. For example, a doctoral student reported,

The atmosphere is quite hostile...For instance, one professor from another field came to tell me that there is no sense to my work, that my approach was wrong... and I was astonished how anyone could say something so inappropriate and in such a crushing way to a beginner (Vekkaila, Pyhalto and Lonka 2013, p.72).

Although the above example highlights a cause of disengagement, other contributing factors, such as a new environment and an unexpected high volume of work, may have also influenced the doctoral student's experience. According to Vekkaila, Pyhalto and Lonka's (2013) findings, disengagement appears in different forms and, if not understood, can be a debilitating experience for doctoral students. Janta, Lugosi and Brown (2014) suggest that characteristics of disengagement, for example, can be located in feelings of isolation, loneliness, boredom and depression. An international student reports: "I am alone in my office all day [and]...go to my house to be alone, when the weekend comes I stay alone at my home and go to do shopping alone" (Janta, Lugosi and Brown 2014, p.7). This seems to highlight a catch twenty-two situation for example, if the doctoral student experiences boredom

and depression, it may be difficult for that student to become motivated enough to express those feelings.

However, if the staff and the university's student support department do not know about the doctoral student's experience, they have no means of supporting the student which raises a further question: how can universities monitor doctoral students' experience of disengagement? A similar question could be asked in terms of supervisor feedback for example, is it the doctoral student's responsibility to discuss the nature of feedback with their supervisors or is it the supervisor's responsibility to be aware that their feedback has a negative impact on the doctoral student? As McAlpine et al. (2012) suggest, when giving their feedback, supervisors can be neglectful by not considering the impact of their communications on doctoral students. A doctoral student reports

My supervisor said to me, when I gave him my first iteration of the confirmation of status, which...[he] then shelved...and didn't get back to it for a long time, but he said, 'It needs to be Geography – it's too Sociology still (McAlpine et al. 2012, p.516).

The doctoral student's report infers that there was no opportunity to question the supervisor or to make sense of what the supervisor was suggesting, which raises a further question: is the supervisor undermining the doctoral student or is the doctoral student assuming a passive position and undermining their own experience?

The supervision style, demonstrated in McAlpine et al.'s (2012) study appears to be similar to the *laissez-faire*, low structure, low support approach found in Gatfield's (2005) supervisory management grid mentioned earlier in this chapter. However, if the supervisor does not consciously adopt this model, it may reinforce a sense of fragmentation and miscommunication in the supervision relationship. The implication of miscommunication is that it can lead to a breakdown in the supervision relationship and may have a significant impact on the doctoral student's experience. Ismail, Majid and Ismail's (2013) study identifies, for example, a lack of positive

communication by supervisors and highlights three examples of doctoral student experience. These are,

- (1) “My supervisor...she kind of told me “this is so out-dated”” (p.168),
- (2) “My second supervisor was...new...so she couldn’t contribute much to my topic...so whenever I arranged to meet my second supervisor, she would say “go to your main supervisor”” (p.168) and
- (3) “Three different sets of comments [from three supervisors]. I had to be very careful of what you say, how you say it because you don’t want what one person says to make another person angry and question their authority or their wisdom or their knowledge” (Ismail, Majid and Ismail 2013, p.169).

The fragmentation, which the doctoral student appears to have experienced, seems to relate to the implication of doctoral students having to negotiate multiple supervision relationships. Therefore, the emergent question is: who is responsible for doctoral student experience when it is defined by a team of supervisors?

The literature, reviewed for this section, suggests that doctoral student experience is influenced by different factors in doctoral education. The supervision relationship for example, defines how the doctoral student and the supervisor communicate and negotiate. The research field is defined by the different dynamics and emotions which emerge as a result of the doctoral student’s experience. The disengagement doctoral students’ experience is defined by challenges of transformation or uncertainty and the process of communication is defined by how doctoral students makes sense of their experiences. The inter-relationship between these characteristics suggests that doctoral students consistently renegotiate and redefine their experiences. At times, these can be limited by uncertainties and at other times these represent a threshold that needs to be crossed in order to move forward.

2.4.1 Power relations and the supervision relationship

As the literature suggests, power relations influence doctoral supervision approaches. For example, guidance for doctoral supervisors and doctoral students is explained on the University website under “Code of Practice: research degrees” (University of Stirling 2015/16, 4.2). The website lists the doctoral supervisors and research students “Roles and responsibilities” (4.1) for example,

4.2: Research degree supervisors	4.1: Roles and responsibilities: Research students
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ The supervisory team expects commitment from the research student who should respond accordingly to supervisory guidance and advice. ❖ Responsibility of the supervisory team Undertake supervisory development Enhance supervisory skills. ❖ Encourage the research student to become familiar with and adhere to all university policy and procedures. ❖ Guide research student ❖ Provide clear guidance ❖ Be accountable for reporting on research student progress ❖ Maintain contact with the research student ❖ Agree schedule of meetings ❖ Assist the research student ❖ Encourage and support...in developing career options ❖ Encourage the research student to engage in professional and personal development activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Research students should be aware of their roles and responsibilities which are to: ❖ Ensure that they understand the roles and responsibilities of their supervisory team and the support structures operating in their school and across the university. ❖ Adhere to all the university’s regulations, policies, procedures and guidelines (as set out in this code and other codes) including those relating to ethics and health and safety and the policy relating to academic misconduct. ❖ Comply with any conditions or requirements set out by funders. ❖ Take responsibility for personal and professional development identified through the skills needs analysis (University of Stirling 2015/2016).

Table 2.2: Supervisor and research student guidance

In the table above the predominant focus in the supervisors' section seems to be on responsibility, encouragement, guidance, accountability and assistance (University of Stirling 2015/2016 retrieved from university website 26.3.18). In the research students' section the main focus appears to be on what research students should do, ensure they do, need to adhere to and comply with in terms of the conditions set out in the policy (University of Stirling 2015/2016). The policy therefore seems to imply that compliance underpins supervisor practice and research student experience. The guidance however, does not appear to address the nature of power relational dynamics (Manathunga 2007) and their influence on research student experience (Brabazon 2013) and the supervision relationship.

It is therefore important to highlight some of the characteristics and key factors that underpin power relations as a way of understanding how these are played out in supervision and affect professional doctoral student experience. For example, Damrosch (2006) argues that power relations create tension brought on by an "oedipal model of scholarly training" (p.40) that is the child's (professional doctoral student's) desire to learn because of the love/hate he/she feels towards the parent (supervisor) and the supervisor's desire to meet the need of the professional doctoral student. The unconscious nature of power relations can limit the supervisor's and professional doctoral student's choices in terms of their behaviours. For example, Kelly and Lloyd-Williams (2013) argue that a lack of awareness, in terms of historical unresolved issues being played out in the supervision relationship, can undermine the doctoral students' learning, confidence and expertise. However, the master apprentice approach that is, the supervisor having explicit control of the doctoral student's research process underpinned in a formal relationship also, has its limitations.

Kelly and Lloyd-Williams's (2013) study shows that the most challenging part of a doctoral student's experience of the master apprentice approach is the supervisor's "adherence to the norms of traditional discipline" (p.254). At times, these are "inappropriate and even unsympathetic to their prior learning and professional expertise" (Kelly and Lloyd-Williams 2013, p.245). The explicit nature of the master apprentice approach links to the implicit power relation dynamic that seems to

underpin the directional approach observed in Gatfield's (2005) supervisory management grid mentioned earlier in the chapter.

The supervisor's approach, whether parent or master, highlights that power relations emerge in different forms. For instance, Hemer (2012) claims that there is a third place for the supervision relationship that goes beyond the supervisor's office. Namely, these are coffee shops and restaurants. Hemer (2012) suggests that the use of the different spaces as mentioned above, "undercut[s] traditional models of power in supervision, because these sites are explicitly not a 'work place'" (p.831). Hemer's (2012) claim appears to infer that power relations are more prevalent in the workplace which raises the following question: is it possible to undercut traditional models of power in supervision by moving out of the traditional academically contained supervision space or do power relations become more complicated by shifting the workplace boundary?

While Hemer's (2012) study shows that students are more relaxed in third places and that they perceive them to be more informal with fewer interruptions, supervisors report that they are not always appropriate and boundaries are difficult to maintain. The concept of boundaries in doctoral supervision links to the nature of supervision approaches. Although, in the literature, the concept of boundaries in supervision appears not to be a predominant concern, they seem to be a key factor in the supervision relationship and the professional doctoral students' experiences.

Manathunga (2007) argues that despite good intentions, supervision can be compromised by professional boundaries that are blurred unintentionally. In Manathunga's (2007) study, a common concern among supervisors is the negotiation of the boundary between supervision and friendship. The supervisor's intention to "shape [the] research students' minds and bodies into fully credentialed, disciplined independent researchers" (Manathunga 2007 p.219) is compromised by their desire to provide, also, advice on personal issues. The inevitability of power relations, as realised in the previous section, and the awareness of the implications, which underpin power relations, is a key factor in the negotiation of boundaries. A supervisor reports

I try and: determine where that line is for a certain student and...clearly the more of a mate you can be the better the relationship becomes and the better you can get through the program but of course you don't want to overstep the line (Science supervisor) (Manathunga 2007, p.217).

The supervisor seems to be inferring that encouraging a congenial relationship with doctoral students enhances their abilities to achieve. Vernon's (2010) exploration of the meaning of friendship suggests that it is "the new social glue to paste over networked lives because it is ideally structured to cope with the stresses and strains, great and small, that modern life throws up" (p.2). Vernon's (2010) description infers that contemporary friendship is defined by difficult human experiences and therefore, compassion and is within what Jacques Derrida describes as "a fraternity that no longer excludes anyone" (Negri 1999, p.10). This raises the following questions: does the contemporary meaning of friendship therefore apply to supervisors and professional doctoral students in terms of the stresses and strains that they sometimes have to negotiate through their relationship?

Lee's (2008) study found that because of the amount of time supervisors invested in working with the doctoral students, friendship was "inescapable" (p.275). The implication of friendship however, is a loss of contact when as reported by a supervisor the doctoral student completes, "my supervisors are lifelong friends. I am still angry with the student who passed and dropped off the end of the earth after five years working together" (Lee 2008, p.275). The supervisor's description highlights an entanglement of friendship and professional responsibility as Manathunga (2007) describes above, it is an operation of power. Despite the power relations being played out in the supervision relationship the boundary between the supervisor and the doctoral student is protected by institutional legislation. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, this is based on the fact that, for doctoral students, doctoral education has a beginning and an end.

Power relations have been identified throughout this section as emerging in different forms. The oedipal model of scholarly training and the master apprentice

supervision relationship model highlight the explicit and implicit characteristics of power played out in the supervision relationship. Taking the concept of supervision into a third space, such as a coffee shop, makes sense in terms of buying a coffee and getting out of the office and away from the demands of professional responsibilities. However, it is difficult to understand how a change in venue can influence a shift in power relations since in this chapter, power relations have been identified as underpinning the supervision relationship. Therefore, the third space seems to suggest that power relations in the supervision relationship do not shift in the third space since power relations appear to represent the third space between the supervisor and the doctoral student. In the following section, I discuss responsibility within the context of the supervision relationship.

2.4.2 The supervision relationship

This section discusses the dynamics that underpin the doctoral supervision relationship within the context of supervisor and doctoral student responsibility. Celik (2013) and Lave and Wenger (1991) for example, define the supervision relationship as a social practice which is dependent on the abilities of the supervisor and doctoral student to take personal and professional responsibility for the relationship as it evolves over time. With regard to the significant factors that may impact upon an effective supervision relationship Wisker et al.'s (2010) suggestions include "regular supervision and / contact, good availability, positive and constructive feedback, enthusiasm for the student's research and a...collegiate relationship" (p.5). The significant factors referred to above appear to provide a useful reference point at which supervisors can assess their practice and doctoral students can review and communicate their expectations.

The complex nature of the supervision relationship suggests that there is a need for good communication and a safe structure which Cherry (2012) claims is underpinned in epistemological and ontological challenges that can fragment, be explored and realign. The author argues that doctoral supervision relationships are defined by complex paradoxes "interwoven, often tacit, dimensions of knowing, doing, being and becoming" that emerge through the "intensity" and "murkiness" of human experience (Cherry 2012, p.6). The complex paradoxes, defined by Cherry (2012),

relate to supervisor and doctoral student responsibility which is influenced by the historical human experiences the supervisor and doctoral student bring to the supervision relationship. Wisker et al. (2010) argue that the relationship between the supervisor and doctoral student defines the complex nature of the supervision relationship dynamics. These can be experienced as a “profound ontological change, which is transformative and leads to their seeing the self and the world differently” (p.17). However, the implication of the profound changes that the doctoral students experience as part of their supervision processes may increase their doctoral student concerns. For example, Wisker (2012) cautions,

Transitional and troublesome knowledge – about self as well as learning – combine in many cases to affect wellbeing, ontological health, a mix of issues about developing identity, and developing learning abilities (p.403).

In contrast, Whitelock, Faulkner and Miell (2008) argue that it is the “emotional intensity [that]...drives imagination, thinking, risk taking and the creation of shared meaning” (p.144). Despite the growth of literature on the affective turn in educational research, emotions do not appear to be a concern in the articles and texts reviewed for this thesis.

In the literature, there is a general observation of a drive to improve supervision relationships and to identify what works. A supervisor, interviewed for Halse and Malfroy’s (2010) study, reported,

My relationship with my students is one based on mutual respect, rapport, genuine warmth...I also like to make sure that my students and I interact with a sense of humour (Psychology – female professor) (p.84).

The impact of the above supervisor’s considerations and care for the doctoral student can be identified in De Welde and Laursen’s (2008) study of science, technology, engineering, mathematics and doctoral students and their “ideal type” (p.55) of supervisor. In the above study, the doctoral students describe “ideal type”

(De Welde and Laursen 2008, p.55) characteristics of a supervision relationship as the balance between being “challenged but not neglected...[, supervisors] keeping tabs...[on the doctoral student’s progress, supervisors’] interest in their project and wellbeing [and]...regular contact [with supervisors]” (De Welde and Laursen 2008, p.55-56). The supervision relationship appears to be dependent on both parties taking responsibility for contact, wellbeing and the complex nature of doctoral student experience (De Welde and Laursen 2008). The way, in which doctoral students perceive their “ideal type” (De Welde and Laursen 2008, p.55), links to Doloriert, Sambrook and Stewart’s (2012) comparative survey on supervisor and doctoral student perception. The researchers found for example, that while supervisors assumed a mainly pastoral role, students perceived their supervisors as equally pastoral and/or contractual. In contrast to only 8% of supervisors, 42% of students perceived their relationship with supervisors as being very friendly (Doloriert, Sambrook and Stewart 2012, p.738-739). The survey highlights a different perception and understanding that the doctoral students and the supervisors had of their supervision relationships. Despite the limited depth in Doloriert, Sambrook and Stewart’s (2012) survey, a key factor to consider is the disparity in perception and the influence that this might have on the supervision relationship.

There is a trend in the literature to report negative experiences specifically within the context of international doctoral students (Ryan and Viète 2009, Ippolito 2007) who typically, have additional needs which differentiate them from the British doctoral student. For example, Wang and Li’s (2011) study on the experiences of international doctoral students receiving feedback from their supervisors found that often they felt confused, frustrated, stressed and uncertain about what was being communicated. The implication of Wang and Li’s (2011) reporting of one side of a narrative is that there is an emphasis on the supervisor being at fault and the doctoral student being perceived as a victim in the supervision relationship. As established early on in this chapter, the nature of supervision is defined within the context of the supervisor and doctoral student being able to take responsibility for the historical experiences that they bring to the supervision relationship. However, supervisor and doctoral student responsibility is difficult to define in the same way within Hung and Hyun’s (2010) study which suggests international doctoral students are challenged by their initial culture shock and that they feel misunderstood whilst

having to make sense of conceptual changes. Hung and Hyun's (2010) findings indicate that the culture shock dissipates when the doctoral student becomes more confident in language skills and understanding the curriculum. This seems to imply that doctoral supervisors need to be aware of the additional challenges that international doctoral students have to negotiate. Severinsson (2012) describes, for example, an effective supervisor as having the "ability to be sensitive to the students' competence and limitations" (p.215). As reported in a supervisor's account earlier in this chapter, this encourages "respect, rapport" (Halse and Malfroy 2010, p.84) and effective interaction which, in turn, enhances the doctoral student experience.

In summary, I have discussed the nature of doctoral student experience and how doctoral students perceive those experiences. I have highlighted the isolation and aloneness that can be difficult for doctoral students to understand. I have discussed the impact of disengagement often influenced by the struggles and conflict doctoral students' experience. I have addressed the impact of doctoral supervisor feedback and the doctoral students' responsibility to avoid a passive position. I have highlighted the reconfiguration of doctoral student experiences and the thresholds that need to be consistently negotiated. I have discussed the dynamics that occur in the supervision relationship and the responsibilities that need to be negotiated. I have explained that an effective supervision relationship enhances doctoral student experience. Furthermore, if not negotiated, the disparity in the perception of the supervisor and doctoral student appears to define the supervision relationship and, for international students, this seems to evoke additional challenges.

In the next section, I present the theoretical approach that shapes this thesis.

2.5 Psychoanalytical theoretical perspective

In this section I will discuss the status of psychoanalytical theory in education. I will explain the nature of psychoanalytical theory and its place in education research. I will discuss psychoanalytical theory within a wider educational context. I will describe the use of Winnicott's ideas in other professional contexts. To conclude I will describe the psychoanalytical ideas transference-countertransference and the theory of object relations and their relevance or not to this thesis.

2.5.1 Psychoanalytical theory in education research

Winnicott's ideas used to underpin this study are only some of the ideas, albeit influential, from the broad field of psychoanalytical theory which increasingly are being applied to understanding educational issues such as learning, development and teacher-learner relationships. For example, Hunt and West (2012) suggest that psychoanalytical theories facilitate an understanding of the unconscious thoughts, feelings and behaviours that historically have been rooted in the conscious.

Psychoanalytical theory however, "remains on the culture's margins" (Taubman 2012, p.17). The concept 'margin' infers that psychoanalytical theory sits on the edge of educational research and "is both everywhere and nowhere. It is part of the culture yet remains unrecognised. It is acknowledged yet denied" (Taubman 2012, p.18). This is a puzzling position.

Psychoanalytical ideas seem to be embedded in contemporary culture, media and education. For instance, "the tabloids and supermarket magazines [that] overflow with articles analysing the hidden motives behind celebrities' self-destructive or scandalous acts" (Taubman 2012, p.17) thus influencing everyday language.

Psychoanalysis therefore, appears not to be on the margins, but in the "work carried out by scholars [that]...in the United States, and...Canada...has been central to bringing psychoanalysis into the field of curriculum theory" (Taubman 2012, p.179). This is where a large body of literature on psychoanalytical theories and education seemed to be positioned (Gimdujeong 2013) and where curriculum theory is rooted in "educational experience" (Pinar 2004, p.2) and learning. Education literature (Bainbridge and West 2012, Britzman 2009, Bibby 2018) within the context of this thesis facilitates an understanding of the unconscious and its influence on professional doctoral students and their supervision relationships.

2.5.2 Studies framed in psychoanalytical theory

Psychoanalytic theory and education theory have influenced each other for some time. For example, Shim's (2014) study on "Multicultural education as an emotional situation" (p.116) for example, is underpinned by Winnicott's (1965) idea of the holding environment. Bibby's (2018) research on teaching and learning in the

classroom is framed in Winnicott's ideas of the self and creativity (Winnicott 1965). Morris (2009) explains the impact of the psychological crisis scholars and musicians experience within the context of curriculum theory, psychoanalysis and phenomenology. Cho's (2009) study investigates the inherent connections between psychoanalytical theory and education. The history of mental illness in art students' narratives is considered by Sagan (2012) and framed within the idea of "a potential space" (Winnicott 2005, p.144) that "once established, allows for...two beings to become other, through dialogue, through co-narrative, through play" (Sagan 2012, pp.177-178). Further, Cartlidge (2012) discusses the idea of "playing" (Winnicott 2005, p.71) and suggests that play is "potentially crucial in understanding the experiences of learning and managing transition" (Cartlidge 2012, p.91) among older non-traditional returnees to education. These educational studies underpinned in psychoanalytical theory further contradict the idea that psychoanalysis in education resides on the edge of education research.

2.5.3 Winnicott's ideas in other professional contexts

Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas are not widely used within the broader professional education research context however, the ideas have been applied in some health and social care studies. For instance, Walker (2009) discusses "creating space for professional learning...in the context of a team of hospital play specialists" (p.49). The author (Walker 2009) describes the play therapist's role as facilitating the child's transition from home into the hospital environment and helping patients to make sense of their experiences through play. Walker (2009) suggests that the role of the play specialist is reflected in a supervision group that contains and symbolically represents the parent. Using Winnicott's (2005) idea "of playing" (p.71) as a framework for the supervision group provided an opportunity for the play specialists to psychoanalytically explore their "interaction[s] between patients, family and colleagues" (Walker 2009 p.57) through play. Furthermore, the group is an opportunity for the play specialists to explore how play influences their professional practice. For Winnicott (2005), "playing leads into group relationships" (p.56) where professional and personal communication can be negotiated in a "holding environment" (Winnicott 1965, p.47).

Baum (2010) adopts the idea of a “holding environment” (Winnicott 1965, p.47) within the context of social work. The author’s study highlights how trainee social workers negotiate their practice when pregnant for instance, when the trainee loses focus while listening to a client. The author suggests that the loss of focus relates to the trainee social worker feeling submerged in the relationship with their unborn baby and the “feelings of guilt and inadequacy” (Baum 2010, p.725) that they experience as a consequence. The author recommends that social work trainee supervision needs to provide a “holding environment” (Winnicott 1965, p.47) within which to “examine how the dilemmas and feelings [of]...transition, affect their behaviour towards their clients” (Baum 2010 p.725). This understanding seems relevant to the structure of the doctoral supervision models that are designed to examine professional doctoral student experience, difficulties and transitions.

Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap (2014) focus on “the virtual holding environment” (p.90) that emerges from their experiences as psychoanalytic social work PhD students. The authors define Winnicott’s (1965) idea “a holding environment” (p.47) as “a space where supportive relationships can be developed over time and maintained through the use of technology” (Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap 2014, p.91). The reason for seeking an additional space for the cohort to interact was due to peers failing to maintain contact with their cohort and becoming detached through exhaustion. Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap (2014) set up five modes of virtual communications through which peers could support, “reassure and encourage” each other and receive feedback by text, phone, Skype, email and drop box. The authors were aware that virtual space would not suit all PhD peers. Skype also presented a problem as it was difficult to access Skype as a group. As a result of these interventions the PhD students discovered that their computers were no longer only work tools. Furthermore, as participants became more sensitive towards each other the virtual space “allow[ed] peers to enter...a co-created space” (Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap 2014, p.102). Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap (2014) concluded that the virtual holding environment prevented isolation and encouraged close consistent peer relationships.

In the section that follows I will describe two common psychoanalytical concepts that are used in education research.

2.5.4 Transference-countertransference

A common psychoanalytical theoretical perspective used in education research appears to be transference and countertransference (Bucky et al 2010, Anderson 2012). Transference is the unconscious feelings that an individual may find difficult to tolerate in themselves such as, “anxieties... disappointments...loss” (Shim 2012, p.476), love and hate, that they transfer onto another person. Within a supervision context, the purpose of transference may be to meet the supervisee’s “desire for certainty” (Shim 2012, p.490) and stability that could get shaken up by the difficult feelings they might be experiencing. Transference however, can also be a useful tool for supervisees in their reflexive role in terms of recalling their own “conscious and unconscious conflicts...from the past” (Anderson 2012). Understanding transference in this way for example, may “help [supervisees]...interpret the challenging and unexpected aspects of...rapport” (Anderson 2012, p.702) that might occur in their supervision relationship.

Countertransference is the unconscious feelings that are unknown, nonetheless acted out (Masson 1988). In other words, countertransference might be the supervisees “redirection of feelings influenced by [an]... emotional entanglement” (Ogden 2005, p.8) with their supervisor. For Winnicott (1949), there can be no relationship between self and other if defences are not confronted and hate in the countertransference (Britzman 2009) is not realised. Ogden (1979) links countertransference to the concept, “projective identification” (p.357). That is, “the interplay between...[an individual’s] thoughts and feelings...and... external reality” (p.357) that they project onto, and identify in the object (other). For example, within the context of the supervision relationship the supervisor may feel “pressured to become the way he or she is represented in the [supervisee’s] projection [fantasy]” (Ogden 1979, p.369). Considering the issue of support as a projective identification – the supervisor may feel pressure from the supervisee to become more supportive when the supervisor perceives him/herself as providing the supervisee with one hundred percent support. However, despite this the supervisee may identify the supervisor as unsupportive. The projective identification in this case might be related to the supervisee finding it difficult to tolerate “unwanted (often frightening) aspects

of [their] self” (Ogden 2012, p.361) for example, finding taking responsibility for supporting their self, difficult.

A supervisor’s awareness of their own countertransference seems to be important as it “represents the...[supervisor’s] mature, empathic response” (Ogden 1979, p.369) to the supervisee’s projective identification. In this case, the supervisor needs to understand his/her own beliefs about supervision and appropriate supervisory behaviour and be aware of the extent to which the supervisee fits the ideal. If the supervisee does not live up to expectations, then the supervisor should both understand that there are other successful models of supervisor/supervisee relationships and that a compromise may have to be reached between the supervisee and him/herself. A problem may occur however, if the supervisee is unable to take responsibility for what they are projecting onto and identifying in their supervisor. For example, emotions such as anger, sadness and anxiety that potentially underpin the supervisee’s projective identification may mean that the supervisee’s issues become the supervisors. To prevent this from occurring, what seems to be important for a supervisor, is to “maintain sufficient psychological distance [like psychotherapists] from the [supervisee’s] process to allow for effective analysis” (Ogden 1979, p.369). This might then enable the supervisor to recognise heightened emotional states that emerge in the supervisee.

A countertransference “between [a supervisee]...and [a supervisor]...is a delicate process that is likely to evoke vulnerability and defensiveness on the part of the [supervisor]” (Gemignani 2011, p.702). The feelings the supervisee cannot tolerate for example, might be transferred onto the supervisor. The supervisor then may respond defensively and counter-transfer his/her feelings onto the supervisee if the feelings the supervisee is transferring are a representation of the supervisor’s own historical unresolved issues.

2.5.5 Object relations

The theory of object relations is significant in the field of psychoanalysis. Freud (1986) defined the mother’s breast as the object and external “source of nourishment and physical gratification, that mattered” (p.50). For Freud (1986), the object

becomes an unconscious paradigm (Gomez 1997, Frosh 1989) through life that is shaped by family and the infant's/adult's relationship with others. The object for the supervisee in the supervision relationship might be the supervisor as she/he is a source of knowledge (nourishment) and the doctoral supervision relationship is important in research (it matters). For Klein (1988) the baby's first object relationship is with the breast which is experienced as satisfying and loving when the baby is feeding and persecuting and attacking when absent, leading to a split described as the good and bad breast (Klein 1988). For instance, when the baby feels exposed to attack, the dominant anxiety in this state is about survival and this state is only alleviated when the baby begins to feel contained. Bibby (2011) argues that the accounts made within the context of Klein's (1988) theory of object relations suggest "the role of the actual mother is minimally important since the system is 'closed': things outside the self – other people and the social world – influence it but only in as much as they impinge upon it" (Bibby 2011, p.117). The inference in Bibby's (2011) claim is that the only other, for the baby, is the mother and "destruction and reparation" (Britzman 2009, p.83) exists only in relation to the object (breast) and excludes other significant relationships. In other words, for the infant, the object appears to be all that exists.

2.5.6 The value or not for this study

The ideas I have described in relation to transference and countertransference seem to imply, a reflexive theoretical framework with a psychoanalytic stance (Shim 2012, Gemignani 2011, Anderson 2012) and focus on the relationship between participant and researcher. I chose not to use this psychoanalytical theory as my thesis is underpinned in Winnicott's ideas and I use reflexivity as only part of my methodology to ensure as accurate representation of the participants as possible. Further, the theory of object relations (Klein 1988) did not appear to be compatible with Winnicott's (1953) theory of transitional object and transitional phenomena: a study of the first not-me possession. For example, Winnicott's theory is external and it is, symbolic of the infants "intermediate area of *experiencing*" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) that is, the space within which the infant negotiates their inside and outside world.

To summarise, I have discussed the status of psychoanalytical theory in education. I have explained the nature of psychoanalytical theories and its position in the field of education research. I have discussed psychoanalytical theories within a wider educational context. I have described the use of Winnicott's ideas in other professional contexts. In the latter part of this section I have explained the psychoanalytical theory of transference-countertransference and Klein's (1988) theory of object relations and their value or not to this study.

2.6 Winnicott's psychoanalytical theories and ideas

In this section I discuss the rationale that informed my decision to use Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas to underpin this thesis. I will explain my journey towards a psychoanalytical framework. I will describe Winnicott's ideas drawn from Winnicott's psychoanalytical theories "transitional objects and transitional phenomena: a study of the first not-me possession" (Winnicott 1953), "the parent-infant relationship" (Winnicott 1960 cited in Winnicott 1965) and "playing and reality" (Winnicott 2005) To begin, I will explain why I chose Winnicott's theoretical perspective.

2.6.1 Why Winnicott?

Winnicott's ideas appeared to be compatible with the in-depth and sensitive nature of the narratives that I anticipated would emerge around my chosen topic of inquiry. Winnicott's ideas offer a good description of the process that occurs between teacher and learner, and within the context of this study, between supervisor and professional doctoral student. In contrast to other psychoanalysts, and what appears to be their predominant focus, that is, the unconscious (Freud 1986, Klein 1988, Fairbairn 1952), Winnicott focuses on both the unconscious and the conscious. For Bainbridge and West (2012) psychoanalytical theory "asks relevant "semantic" questions: of the meaning of actions, of their subjective significance and intention, and of the position they hold in and across a person's life" (p.7). The authors' claim seems to reflect Winnicott's contribution that is, to understanding how individuals make sense of the events that occur in their lives and how they negotiate the transition from their internal self to their environment (external reality). Winnicott's ideas seek to explain how individuals negotiate their internal and external worlds

from infancy and over a life span (Britzman 2009). It is these features that make Winnicott's theoretical perspective an appropriate choice for this study.

2.6.2 My rationale

My rationale for using a psychoanalytical perspective was that it could facilitate an in-depth understanding of the participants' subjective and objective perceptions in terms of self and other. This psychoanalytical approach appeared to be compatible with the reflexivity that I practiced throughout my research study, this is a process endorsed by Hollway and Jefferson (2013) who claim that,

The process of self-scrutiny...can yield information about the intellectual and emotional factors that inevitably influence the researcher's involvement and activity, and at the same time provide information about the dynamics of the individual...being studied (p.30).

This psychoanalytical approach alongside my reflexive stance heightened my awareness and sensitivity in relation to the participants' private worlds (Dickson-Swift, James and Liamputtong 2008). Further, the psychoanalytical ideas helped me make sense of the participants' experiences and facilitated my understanding of the data at the analysis stage.

2.6.3 Journey towards a psychoanalytic framework

I became interested in Donald Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas through my own personal experience of the Winnicott Centre at Queen Elizabeth Children's Hospital in Hackney, East London in the late 1980's. This is where, in his early career, Winnicott worked as a child physician (Winnicott 1986). My experience of the Winnicott Centre was as a parent of a child referred there because of the nature of his severe disability. The Winnicott Centre was made up of an interdisciplinary team of physiotherapists, a health visitor, a paediatric consultant, a speech therapist and an occupational therapist. The staff team worked together to provide support in relation to helping me to make sense of the changes that were happening in my

son's development. It is difficult to describe my experience at the Winnicott Centre but, in that space, I was able to understand what was happening to me and my child without being judged. At the same time, my son thrived despite the challenges we both experienced.

Later, I found myself drawing on Winnicott's ideas in my professional practice as a psychotherapist within which my clients were able to make sense of their difficult experiences and develop their potential. When I began to question the nature of professional doctoral students' difficult experiences, I considered the supervision space and how useful Winnicott's ideas would be to understanding what was happening in that space.

2.7 Winnicott's ideas

To begin, "there is nothing syrupy about D.W. Winnicott" (Bibby 2018, p.12) as his "ideas are not particularly easy to follow...[and] thinking them through is not always comfortable" (p.12). However, I made a decision to use Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas as they are underpinned in human relations that is, the relationship between self and other. I believe that Winnicott's ideas can help us understand the less visible dynamics that occur in professional doctoral student experience and the supervision relationship. I have used some of Winnicott's ideas to explain the less visible dynamics that emerged in the participants narratives when analysing the data. I will describe these ideas under the theory headings in the sections below.

2.7.1 Transitional objects and transitional phenomena (1953)

Winnicott (1964) once said: "There is no such thing as a baby – meaning that if you set out to describe a baby, you will find you are describing *a baby and someone*. A baby cannot exist alone, but is essentially part of a relationship" (p.88). In other words, "whenever one finds an infant, one finds also maternal care without which there would be no infant" (Fuller 1988, p.201). For Winnicott (1953), "a transitional object" (p.89) facilitates the separation from the mother that begins when the new born infant puts his/her fist to its mouth and at around three months when the infant creates a space "between...[his/her] thumb and the teddy bear" (Winnicott 1953,

p.89). The infant starts to discover that the world exists outside of him/herself. Winnicott (1953) suggests that the infant begins to negotiate the experience of the mother as not being there and the developing recognition of the “not-me possession” (p.89) for example, this is me and this is my teddy. This is, for Winnicott (1953) “the intermediate area of *experiencing*...[that] is not challenged, because no claim is made on its behalf except that it shall exist as a resting-place for the individual engaged in the perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet interrelated” (p.90). In other words, this is the point at which the infant appears to negotiate his/her internal and external world and as this develops, gradually learns to survive (Winnicott 1953). For an adult an “intermediate area of *experiencing*” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) can be found in an “overlapping...common experience between members of a group” (p.96) talking about parallel moments.

The idea of a transitional object can be identified in Bowlby’s (1984) notion of object as a goal, a “component...of attachment behaviour” (Bowlby 1984, p.312) that is, “a state of being or feeling...in which the child lives...[in] response [to]...their caregiver” (Fonagy 2001, p.79). When the caregiver is unavailable, the child redirects their feelings of attachment onto their “blanket or cuddly toy” (Bowlby 1984, p.312). A redirection of the child’s feelings of attachment highlights the difference between Winnicott (1953) and Bowlby’s (1984) ideas. For example, the redirection seems to infer that the child needs to constantly be attached either to a caregiver or a teddy bear. For Winnicott (1953), however, the “teddy” (p.89) is symbolic of the infant’s transition from their “intermediate area of *experiencing*” (p.90) to the outside world. “The object represents the infant’s transition from a state of being merged with the mother to a state of being in relation to the mother as something outside and separate” (Winnicott 2005, pp.19-20). In other words, the infant lives in the moment.

The idea of transitional phenomena is described by Winnicott (1953) as an infant’s “defence against anxiety” (p.91). That is, the “intermediate state between a baby’s inability and growing ability to recognize and accept reality” (Winnicott 1953, p.90). The infant’s anxiety for Winnicott (1953) can be seen in the infant’s use of a “corner of a blanket or eiderdown, or a word or tune...which becomes vitally important to the infant for use at the time of going to sleep” (p.91). For Winnicott (1953) “the

transitional phenomena represent the early stages of the use of illusion, without which there is no meaning for the human being” (p.95) and therefore, no relationship.

Winnicott (1953) defines “illusion-disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) as “the initiation of a relationship” (p.96) that the infant develops during the early stages of life. The process of development, for example, “is made possible by the mother’s special capacity for making adaptation to the needs of her infant, thus allowing the infant the illusion that what the infant creates really exists” (Winnicott 1953, p.97). However, the development of the infant also appears to be dependent on the mother’s ability to allow the “illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) for example, to “gradual[ly]...appropriate failures as she ‘presents the world in small doses’” (Bibby 2018, pp.36-37). The infant’s ability to survive “requires an infant to develop an illusion of coherence before it is gradually dis-illusioned through the good enough mother” (Bibby 2018, p.36). That is, a “good enough mother” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) who is dependent on a “good enough... environment” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) and support from significant figures. In other words, a partner that can help out at the initial stage of the infant’s early development so that the mother can focus on the infant. The value of illusion is described by Winnicott (1953) as being influenced by “the mother[’s] adaptation [to] afford...the infant the opportunity for the *illusion* that her breast is part of the infant...[and] under magical control” (p.94). In other words, the value of the infant’s “omnipoten[t]... illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) is that the infant experiences control. This process however, appears to be dependent on a mother’s ability to merge with their infant and adapt to their infant’s needs (Winnicott 1953) in other words, be available to the infant. For example, the infant’s “illusion-disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) seems to derive from a process of ego development and the integration of the ‘id’ (Winnicott 1965). Freud (1986) defines the id as the beginning of the infant and a time in which the id does not care about reality, about the needs of anyone else, only its own satisfaction. For Winnicott (1965) “ego integration” (p.44) appears to be an essential component in terms of understanding and making sense of the infant’s early experience. Winnicott (1965) explains,

In health the id becomes gathered into the service of the ego,
and the ego masters the id, so that id-satisfactions become

ego-strengtheners. This, however, is an achievement of healthy development and in infancy there are many variants dependent on relative failure of this achievement. In the ill-health of infancy achievements of this kind are minimally reached, or may be won and lost (p.40).

In other words, the id appears to be dependent on the development of the ego and the integration of the infant's different emotional parts of themselves and their environment. These conditions need to "be fulfilled if the baby is to arrive at a sufficient stage of differentiation from the other/mother and integration of the self" (Caldwell and Joyce 2011, p.12) that is, the stage at which the mother and infant begin to separate and the infant's "illusion-disillusionment" (Winnicott 1953, p.96) becomes heightened.

In this thesis, "transitional objects (teddy) and transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) are symbolic of relationship and are extremely important ideas as psychoanalytically they help us to understand the complex relationship between professional doctoral students and their supervisors in a way that has not previously been identified within the context of professional doctoral education. This thesis also uses "illusion-disillusionment" (Winnicott 1953, p.96) to highlight the importance of perception in the supervision relationship and how it may contribute to creating difficult experiences inside and outside of the supervision space.

2.7.2 The parent-infant relationship (1960)

For Winnicott (1965) part of the parent-infant relationship is "the infant's journey from "absolute dependence, through relative dependence, to independence" (p.42). Winnicott (1965) refers to these stages as the "holding phase" (p.46) that represents "specific qualities of the experience of being alive at different developmental stages" (Ogden 2005, p.94). The "holding phase" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) stages are for example:

"*Absolute dependence*" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) is the first stage of the "holding phase" (p.46) in which the infant has no awareness of what the mother's care

represents and has no control over the good and not so good care the infant receives. At this stage the infant is “only in a position to gain profit or to suffer disturbance” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). In other words, the infant is reliant on the mother’s understanding of the notion of good care. Walsdell (1979) claims that Winnicott’s (1965) interpretation of “absolute dependence” (p.46) is confusing for example, the author suggests that “it [is]... only when... maternal care provided the total environment, i.e. within the womb, that dependence was absolute, since from birth onwards there is some capacity for independence” (p.3). Winnicott (1965) however, seems to be referring to the less visible dynamic in the relationship between mother and infant. For example, “the mother creates the infant, not just by bodily giving birth to him, but also by supporting him as he/[she]... finds and realises himself” (Fuller 1988, p.202). Winnicott (1965) uses metaphor to describe the less visible notion of “absolute dependence” (p.46) that relates to primary maternal pre-occupation and the mother’s state of fusion with the infant that gradually develops during pregnancy up until several weeks after the birth. The fusion with the mother is a fused state Bibby (2018) describes as “a subjective holding” (p.36) that meets the infant’s needs while “provid[ing] a sense of control, of being visible, valued, loved and cared for” (p.36) in relationship to other.

Winnicott (1965) claims that during “the holding phase” (p.46) a phenomenon occurs that relates to the infant’s “central self” (p.46) defined as “the inherited potential which is experiencing a continuity of being, and...a personal psychic reality” (p.46). This is the point at which for example, the infant realises he/she exists. Winnicott (1965) claims that if the infant’s central self feels threatened this “constitutes... major anxiety” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) which leads to the development of “a ‘True Self’...[and] a ‘False’ or ‘care-taker’ Self Structure” (Bibby, 2018, p.41). This is, “a highly organized ego-defence mechanism” (Caldwell and Joyce 2011, p.134) to protect the “central self” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that is, the infants “core...personality” (p.46) from threat of isolation and “threat of annihilation” (p.47). In other words, the infant begins to sense how dependent he/she is on their environment. The mother’s capacity to provide the infant with love, contact and care (Winnicott 1965) dictates whether the infant has a sense that he/she can survive the primitive anxiety of separation and the next stage of the holding phase.

“Relative dependence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that is, the second stage of the “holding phase” (p.46) when the infant develops an awareness “of the need for the details of maternal care and can to a growing extent relate them to personal impulse[s]” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) such as love, hate and creativity. In other words, the infant notices more and as this happens slowly makes the next transition.

“Towards independence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that is, the third stage of the “holding phase” (p.46) when the infant develops an awareness of being cared for and “the accumulation of memories of care, the projection of personal needs and the introjection of care details” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). In other words, the infant begins to realise that he/she can survive moments alone. For Winnicott (1965), this is the stage at which the infant gains confidence and begins to communicate his/her needs to others for example, with a smile when happy and a cry when uncomfortable.

In the supervision relationship the “holding phase” (Winnicott 1953, p.46) is important as it can facilitate a supervisee’s transition from novice researcher to the submission stage of their thesis. In the “holding phase” (Winnicott 1953, p.46) a supervisor can create a “holding environment” (Winnicott 1965, p.47) during the supervisees transition through his/her supervision style however, the experience can be a painful process for the supervisee. Asking the supervisee for example, how life is outside of their academic study might be the first time the supervisee has had an opportunity to talk about the difficulties they have experienced and the competing demands they typically have had to negotiate through their research process.

2.7.3 Playing and reality (2005)

For Winnicott (2005), playing is “a creative experience...in [a] space-time continuum” (p.67) representative of “a basic form of living... it is always on the... line between the subjective and that which is objectively perceived” (pp.67-68). Objective perception is defined by Winnicott (2005) as “creative apperception [that] more than anything else...makes the individual feel that life is worth living” (p.87) however, this is influenced by what an individual perceives as reality. Winnicott (2005) suggests that “reality-testing” (p.3) helps “make a clear distinction between apperception and perception” (p.3) that is, what is real and what is not real. Play as a creative

experience is significant in relation to a “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) which is a space between the mother and infant and is “the precursor of that between the child and the family, and eventually of that between the individual and society, or the world” (Fuller 1988, p.204). For example, the infant appears to be looking away from the mother towards other significant figures.

For Winnicott (2005) “potential space” (p.144) is underpinned in trust and therefore has a significant role as, if there is a “mistimed interpretation...[or] mistimed comment...[it] steals’ a piece of the self that had been put into the potential space for exploration” (Winnicott 2005, p.71). An inference in Winnicott’s (2005) claim is that without trust there is no potential space and without potential space there is no play and without play there is no “basis [to form]...a sense of self” (Winnicott 2005, p.75). Potential space, it seems, is therefore an essential ingredient in human relations and development. Play “manifests itself... in a choice of words in the inflections of the voice and...sense of humour” (Winnicott 2005, p.54). Play and the notion of potential space are important ideas to include in doctoral supervision. The supervision relationship for example, has the “potential” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) to create a space within which both the supervisor and supervisee can play, create and develop while maintaining boundaries, tensions and uncertainty but most of all hope.

In summary, in this section I have discussed why I chose to frame this thesis in Winnicott’s psychoanalytical ideas. I have explained my rationale and what influenced my choice to use Winnicott as a theoretical perspective. I have described the ideas drawn from some of Winnicott’s theories to explain my analysis.

2.8 Conclusions

Literature in doctoral education has continued to develop and over the last eight years I have seen an increase in literature on doctoral supervision. My main interest is in doctoral student experience and how professional doctoral students make sense of the experiences that influence their supervision relationship. The literature presented in this chapter ranges from the broad relationship between the nature of contemporary doctoral education, doctoral supervision and psychoanalytically

informed supervision to the nature of doctoral student experience, psychoanalytical theory in education and Winnicott's psychoanalytical theories and ideas.

Kumar and Dawson's (2013) work and other studies describe the influence of the knowledge economy on professional doctoral students in terms of their contributions to their professional communities and how the doctoral student's professional and personal experiences enhance input into education, industry and innovation.

Although the literature considers doctoral students' experiences within the context of attributes, it does not explain how doctoral students make sense of their experiences in the supervision relationship. Gatfield's (2005) supervisory approach within a supervision management frame, built on and developed by other authors (Lee 2008, Halse and Malfroy 2010, Linden, Ohlin and Brodin 2013, Kiley 2009) describes an approach which supervisors can draw on at any stage of the supervision process to inform their practices. Further, Shmukler (2017), Hollway and Jefferson (2000) and Clarke's (2008) studies on psychoanalytically informed supervision raises a question in relation to translation. That is, how do the psychoanalytically informed supervision models such as Rafferty (2000), Elliott, Ryan and Hollway (2012) and Yerushalmi's (2012) address what gets lost in translation? Or does the structure of a psychoanalytical supervision models facilitate a process of translation in the exploration of experience, meaning and purpose? The psychoanalytical supervision models for example, appear to provide an academic learning framework that explores implicitly doctoral students' personal development.

De Welde and Laursen's (2008) work refers explicitly to doctoral student experience and supervisors and doctoral students' perceptions that influence the supervision relationship. Furthermore, the literature on doctoral students' negative experiences (Wang and Li 2011, Hung and Hyun 2010) exclude other parts of doctoral student experience for example, responsibilities in the doctoral supervision relationship.

Doctoral student experience is narrowed down further in Vekkaila, Pyhalto and Lonka's (2013) work on disengagement and Oowler's (2010) study on uncertainty, isolation and aloneness. Although they do not consider how doctoral students make sense of their experiences of disengagement, the authors' work explains how doctoral students become disengaged in terms of uncertainty.

Power relations (Kelly and Lloyd-Williams 2013, Hemer 2012, Vernon 2010) appear to influence the less visible dynamics in the supervisor/supervisee relationship. For example, Vernon (2010) and Lee (2008) highlight the implicit and explicit power relations in the supervision relationship specifically in relation to friendships between supervisor and supervisee. I might argue that for some supervisors and supervisees the supervision relationship may be the most significant and important relationship in their lives due to the implicit and complex intersubjective engagement they may share over many years. Hemer (2012) considers the location of supervision in the literature and the impact of power relations in terms of changing the supervision location. As power relations appear to be dependent on relationship the location seems to be irrelevant. Wisker et al (2010) highlight the nature of supervisor and supervisee responsibilities in the literature and the complex nature and dynamics that can either get in the way or transform a supervision relationship. Cherry (2012) for example, discusses the historical experiences that supervisor and supervisee bring to the supervision relationship which raises the question, what needs to happen for a supervisor and supervisee to understand the nature of the projections that may occur in the supervision process?

Hunt and West (2012) address the growing interest in psychoanalytical theories and Taubman (2012) reminds the reader that despite the interest in psychoanalytical theoretical perspectives, psychoanalysis balances on the perimeter of education research. However, Morris's (2009) Sagan's, (2012) and Cartlidge's (2012) studies show that psychoanalytical ideas continue to inform education research. The literature shows that the psychoanalytical ideas transference-countertransference (Britzman 2009, Bucky et al 2010, Anderson 2012) and object relations (Bibby 2011, Britzman 2009) are typically used in education research. Biesta (1998) and Latour (2013) highlight the implication of translation in the literature between psychoanalytical theory and education theory which is an important consideration. For example, being aware of interpretations seems to be crucial in terms of checking out with the supervisor, the supervisee and the participants that meaning is not lost in translation and that any interpretation is as accurate as possible. The literature indicates that Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas have been applied globally in educational research to facilitate an understanding of less visible dynamics, thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Although there are studies that apply

psychoanalytical approaches within curriculum studies (Gimdujeong 2013) the use of psychoanalytical theory in other areas of educational research seems to be diminishing. This suggests that psychoanalytical theories are positioned as both insider and outsider perspectives within the educational research community. Within a wider educational research context, the literature has shown that other professions, such as health and social care, have applied Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas in research studies. For example, the idea of play was applied to understand participants' personal constructs (Walker 2009). The holding environment was applied to understand issues relating to pregnant social workers, dual transitions and virtual spaces (Baum 2010, Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap 2014). The application of psychoanalytical approaches within educational research and the wider professional research landscape seems to indicate that there is a need for psychoanalytical perspectives that facilitate the in-depth nature of participants' narratives and sensitivities.

Winnicott's ideas frame this thesis and provide a reference point to which the reader can refer back, see Winnicott's ideas (2.7) and the glossary.

The literature reviewed in this chapter has highlighted gaps in professional educational research. Examples are:

- What experiences and difficulties professional doctoral student face.
- How professional doctoral students' perceptions and expectations influence the experiences they perceive as difficult.
- How professional doctoral students negotiate their difficulties in the doctoral supervision relationship.
- What could help supervisors and supervisees understand and make sense of the doctoral supervision relationship.
- How psychoanalytical supervision models could inform supervision training and practice.
- Professional doctoral students' perspectives on what they perceive as informal and formal support that would work.

It is these gaps that I hope to address through my doctoral study by building on existing research in doctoral education. This literature review has demonstrated some of the key points that relate to professional doctoral student experience and doctoral supervision.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the methodology that frames this thesis and its application.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The design for this study was influenced by my research interest that is, to explore the nature of difficulties that professional doctoral students face. The ontological underpinning informed by subjective epistemology, psychoanalytical interpretation, case studies and sensitive interviewing are inherent in the design of this study. How making sense of meaning and how that meaning is constructed (Crotty 1998) relates to understanding implicit experiences. For example, individuals make sense of their external world through information they internalize to create meaning and understanding (Wittgenstein 1969). Further, values – what fundamentally, the individual believes as right and good (Ross 1930) – influence this thesis in that they intimately relate to the way individuals understand and make sense of their words and the assumptions (Bateson 1972) they make based on this knowledge.

In this chapter, I discuss the qualitative psychoanalytical approach that frames this thesis. I discuss my reflexive position and my insider/outsider position. I describe the recruitment process and introduce the participants. I explain the research methods I used to collect data and I discuss the steps I took to ensure trustworthiness. I describe the interview questions and explain how I conducted the interviews and I acknowledge the participants' responses to their interviews. I discuss ethical considerations and ethical conduct and I describe how I ensured anonymity and confidentiality. I discuss the consent form and I explain the difference between a qualitative interview and a counselling and psychoanalytical interview. To conclude I describe the micro ethics (Guillemin and Gillam 2004) that I needed to consider.

3.1.1 Psychoanalytical approach

The psychoanalytical approach, that frames this thesis, is rooted in the assumption that there is “no knowledge of the other without engagement of the self” (Frosh 2001, p.630). A psychoanalytical approach appears to facilitate the deep interpretation of intersubjective encounters and an understanding of the unconscious (Hollway and

Jefferson 2013). The purpose of a psychoanalytic methodology however, is different within a therapeutic setting. For example, the psychoanalyst and the client explore together deep and unconscious early experiences that have influenced the client's relationships with others through their life in terms of family members, colleagues, partners and friends. The psychoanalytical approach within the context of this study facilitated a process of "lived emotional experience" (Ogden 2005, p.1) in relation to the experiences the participants had found difficult to talk about. It was therefore essential that I proceeded cautiously and always reflexively with the acceptance that its purpose was not only to define and reveal but to indicate and to ask open questions.

Emotion and the unconscious are key ideas in certain psychoanalytic literature and always with the focus on intersubjective relationships. For example, in literature since the early 1900's, influential psychoanalysts (Freud 1986, Winnicott 1953, Klein 1988) have made deep subjective interpretations and assumptions informed by sessions conducted with their patients. A psychoanalytical approach, however, is based on participant participation in the research process and a "mutual construction of meaning" (Stopford 2004, pp.20-21) that ensures accurate representation. Throughout the research process for this thesis for example, I checked that the transcripts and quotes were an accurate representation of the participants' spoken words. Hollway and Jefferson's (2013) study on the fear of crime demonstrates how a psychoanalytical methodology informs a psychoanalytical reflexive accent. For example, the authors examined how, upon interviewing a participant, the notion of "criminal acts" (Hollway and Jefferson 2013, p.120) had an effect on the interview dynamics and how the authors themselves made "sense of his account" (p.120). Like these researchers, I used a psychoanalytical methodology to help me to interrogate reflexively and psychoanalytically the less obvious dynamics of the conversations.

3.1.2 Reflexive position

In this study, I used reflexivity to inform "dedication...and thoroughness" (Holliday 2007, p.9). Adopting a reflective position enabled me to stand outside (Skeggs 2004) my field of investigation while inside, consider my "ethical integrity [in the]

analysis and interpretation” (Mosselson 2010, p.479) of the participants’ narratives. For example, I used reflexivity to infuse a transparency in terms of the subjective power relational and inter-power relational roles played out in the research process. Subjectivity in the research design was not intended “as a critical weapon for undermining objectivism” (Lynch 2000, p.26) as my position in the research was insider/outsider which although predominantly occupied a subjective stance also maintained an objective opinion. Adopting this approach facilitated scrutiny of the in-depth interpretations (McGraw, Zvonkovic and Walker 2000) being made while considering how the interpretations would be received by the participants but also readers in general.

Guillemin and Gillam (2004) claim that reflexivity is “an active, on-going process that saturate[s] every stage of the research” (p. 274). An implication however, seems to be that reflexivity also represents “the inevitable power researchers yield as interpreters and writers” (Lather’s 2007, p.144). Although power relations are embedded in the fabric of a psychoanalytical reflexive approach in a similar way, within a psychoanalytical research context reflexivity has “the potential to build rich, contextual insight into individual experience” (West and Bainbridge 2012, p.254). For example, reflexivity seemed to be a useful tool for uncovering power relations in different forms (Gee 2005) such as, in interpretation and analysis (Mosselson 2010), in interviews (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009), in transcripts (Powers 2005) and in writing (MacLure et al 2010). The difference between a psychoanalytical research approach and other approaches appears to be its provision of “a unique opportunity for an intense, reflexive relationship between people, focusing on feelings and diverse associations” (West and Bainbridge 2012, p.254). The psychoanalytical stance seems to have the potential to evoke a dependency however, this study is based on one off one hour interview interactions which are “more fleeting, and, thus, less susceptible to sustained enquiry” (West and Bainbridge 2012, pp.254-255) and other potential issues.

3.1.3 Insider/outsider dilemma

The insider/outsider position, which I adopted throughout the research process, highlighted the complex nature of the relationship between self and others (Sikes

and Potts 2008). On the one hand, I was an insider due to my status as a peer and, on the other hand, I was an outsider because of my role as researcher. Garton and Copland's (2010) study found that in acquaintance interviews "empathetic comments abound and the question and answer sequence is often abandoned in favour of a more conversational style of interaction" (p.547). I did catch myself occasionally on the edge of my seat wanting to participate in this type of exchange as if sitting in a café sipping a hot chocolate with a friend. The insider relationship between the participant and myself seemed to evoke an essence of familiarity, an urge to want to share assumptions, perceptions, values and meaning. Smyth and Holian (2008) claim insidership is an opportunity to "learn, reflect and...engage with what and who we are curious about" (p.34). An inference in the authors' claim is that insidership is designed to meet the researcher's subjective need.

I was the conductor of the interview. I composed the questions based on assumptions driven by perception (Russell and Kelly 2002) and, when I listened to the participants, I imposed a reconstruction of the story based on my preconceptions. The nature of the difference divided the space between my insider and outsider positions. Namely, in response to my questions, the participants seemed to generate information influenced by the way they socially constructed their experiences. Difference also defined the boundaries between insidership and outsidership and, at the same time, facilitated the complexity of the "multiple dimensions...that all researchers constantly move back and forth along...depending upon time, location, participants and topic" (Mercer 2007, p.1). My task therefore, was to be flexible and aware of the fine line between my insider and outsider positions.

In summary, I have explained that ontology and epistemology are inherent in the design of this thesis in terms of understanding and making sense of meaning and purpose and how this knowledge informs assumptions. I have explained the psychoanalytical approach and how it has facilitated a process of understanding the less visible dynamics. I have discussed the purpose of my reflexive position in relation to interrogating the potential influence I had on the data and I have explained my insider/outsider position.

3.2 The participants

In this section I describe the recruitment process for this study and give a broad description of the participants.

3.2.1 Recruitment

Originally, I considered a sample of twelve participants but, on reflection, I reduced this number to six in order to make it more feasible to conduct in-depth analysis using a psychoanalytical approach for each interview. There is a school of thought that suggests a study's sample size needs to be large enough to meet the research aim and objectives, this infers that substantial samples are required (Patton 2015). My chosen sample size for this study reflected my aim to generate potentially sensitive in-depth information (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2015), I decided that more interviews would have been too many. Crouch and McKenzie (2006) claim,

The justification of small-sample studies hinges most frequently on phenomenological assumptions (broadly speaking) which underwrite investigations of personal experience in a largely subjectivist framework. From a more empirical perspective the labour-intensive nature of research focused on depth (including, sometimes "reflexivity") can be evoked to justify a small sample size (p.484).

My choice to use six participants may have meant that I would miss significant information in relation to additional professional doctoral student experiences and the supervision relationship however, in qualitative studies, it seems that small sample sizes are commonplace. Anderzen-Carlssona, Sorlie and Kihlgren (2012), for example, interviewed six participants in their research on the perception of adolescent girls with cancer. The authors were confident that the sample size for their enquiry was "large enough to provide variation of experiences and small enough to permit a deep analysis of the data" (Anderzen-Carlssona, Sorlie and Kihlgren 2012, p.290). Hemmings, Hill and Sharp (2015) used six participants in

their study on student transition from college to university and Shelley, Murphy and White (2013) identified ten participants but chose, also, to use six. I limited the participants to six because I wanted to explore complicated issues in-depth rather than to generate generalised patterns.

I recruited eight professional doctoral students to participate in this study. Two of these participants took part in the pilot interviews which informed the development of the interview questions and helped me to understand the potential impact (Hastings 2010) some of the questions might have on the participants.

The research for this study was conducted at a university in the United Kingdom. The participants lived in geographically different places however they were all registered on the university's EdD programme. I selected the participants from the list of research students on the university's School of Education website. The principle reason for selecting the university within which I conducted my research was due to the familiarity that I had with the environment and the EdD programme. The participants I recruited were residents in the United Kingdom and Ireland and had either completed the taught element of the programme or were engaged in their research studies and had recently submitted their thesis. The reason why I chose EdD students was because they were the most likely doctoral candidates to experience difficulties and, therefore, to offer a rich source of narratives about negotiating challenges. EdD students are more likely to have professional commitments alongside their study than PhD students and therefore have to negotiate their roles as a professional and a researcher in the workplace with management, colleagues and students.

I sent emails, inviting their participation in this study, to fourteen EdD students registered on a School of Education list. I received replies from six students who agreed to be interviewed. One student agreed to be interviewed by Skype and telephone however, this method of interviewing was impractical due to the infrastructure of the country where the research student was residing. One student declined due to taking a break from the EdD. One student preferred not to be interviewed about her doctoral student experience by a student peer. Five students did not reply. At first, I was somewhat concerned by what I assumed to be lack of

interest in my topic. I did not recognize this reaction until my doctoral supervisor asked how I felt about the students declining my invitation to be interviewed. On reflection, I realised that asking participants to talk about difficult experiences created a dilemma. Namely, doctoral students may want to discuss their experiences that are difficult to talk about however some experiences may just be too difficult to talk about. Doctoral students might not have experienced, or felt they had experienced, the kind of difficulties that I was interested in exploring. Furthermore, I had failed to take into consideration the fact that working full time while completing a professional doctoral degree part time is a heavy load, and that many simply might not have had time for any additional commitments. However, six doctoral students volunteered to participate in the study.

3.2.2 About the participants

The purpose of providing a broad description of the participants' case profiles is to give the reader an anonymised overview of each interviewee. It is not intended to provide an analysis of the participant. An analysis of the participants' narratives is discussed in chapters five, six and seven. Each participant has confirmed that their profile is an accurate representation and that he/she is comfortable for this information to be shared as it is written below. The participant age group ranged from thirty six years to fifty four years at the time of the interviews.

Findley

Findley was born and brought up in Ireland. At the time of the interview, Findley was a mid-career professional employed by a Higher Education institution. Findley had been a professional doctoral student for over eight years. Personal injury and caring responsibilities meant that Findley needed to apply for a leave of absence from the professional doctoral programme on several occasions. Findley's research interest related to understanding teacher learning within the university setting. However, Findley experienced conflicting demands which made it difficult to find space for her doctoral research. Findley said that sometimes the interruptions were difficult to manage and left her feeling overwhelmed. A significant and difficult factor affecting her professional doctoral student experience, according to Findley, was that her

location and work demands limited the contact that she had with her cohort and resulted in an absence of opportunity to share her research experiences and difficulties.

Amari

Amari was a mid-career professional born and brought up in the United Kingdom. Amari was employed in education management and his research interest related to further education and the voice of the learner. Other roles, which Amari occupied alongside his role as a professional doctoral student, were partner, parent and carer for older members of his family. For Amari, the values that framed his early educational experiences seemed to be an important factor in terms of his own professional practice. Namely, he explained that his expectations of doctoral supervision were based on early experiences with teachers that were supportive and non-judgemental. Amari said that his family and professional doctoral cohort of peers were the main support networks which he used to understand and make sense of the professional doctoral student experiences that he found difficult to talk about.

Reese

Reese was born and brought up in the United Kingdom and, at the time of the interview, he had recently left employment after being made redundant from his post at a Further Education college. Reese had passed his viva just before his research interview and was in the process of re-evaluating his life. Reese's priorities after the doctorate were to write fiction and research the history of his country of origin for a book. Reese experienced passing his viva as a relief, having spent most of his time when he was on the professional doctoral programme juggling different roles such as partner, parent, and carer for his young grandchild. Reese's research interest was about understanding student learning cultures in Further Education. This led to what he described as conflicting roles as a researcher and a manager in the workplace. His responsibilities limited, also, his opportunities to link with his cohort of peers. Reese did, however, share his ideas at conferences and professional practice meetings which he found supportive since these spaces were familiar and within the context of Further and Higher Education.

Casey

Casey was born and brought up in the United Kingdom and, at the time of the research interview, she had childcare responsibilities and was a mid-career professional. Casey was employed by a local Education Authority as a manager in the department for youth and community. Her research interest was in social capital citizenship and the enterprise of young people. Casey's research experience was minimal at the time of the interview however she expected that when she encountered difficulties she would manage and take responsibility for what was happening. Casey's fees for the doctoral programme were paid for by her local Education Authority which she found difficult. This was because although Casey appreciated their contribution she was aware that they had intellectual property rights. Furthermore, Casey was aware that, before reaching the stage of having to let go of her research, she would have to put the thesis out for scrutiny in the academic community which meant exposure. Casey valued and trusted her supervisor and said that she expected that talking to her supervisor about her difficult experiences would help her understand and make sense of her experiences.

Dakota

Dakota was a mid-career professional born and brought up in the United Kingdom and a senior lecturer in a Higher Education institution at the time of the interview. The Higher Education institution, where Dakota was employed, had paid Dakota's fees for his professional doctoral programme. Dakota spent most of his professional and personal life studying and researching his interest in non-formal learning and any spare time appeared to be spent with family and friends. When I interviewed Dakota, he was at the stage of analysing data designed to generate information on the different types of professional development activities that human resource practitioners engage in. When Dakota was conducting his professional doctoral research, his main difficulties related to transcription and whether to use a transcriptionist or transcribe the data himself. Further, having dedicated most of his personal and professional time to focusing on his research for the professional doctorate, Dakota was surprised that this commitment had had such a personal impact on his life.

Ali

Ali was a mid-career professional born and brought up in the United Kingdom. At the time of the interview, Ali had just made the choice to leave her job as a senior lecturer in Higher Education. This meant that Ali went from having her fees paid for the professional doctoral programme by her employers to becoming self-funded. Ali's research interest was in practice-based learning. For Ali, the first priority appeared to be her family and the second priority seemed to be her professional doctoral research. The purpose, for Ali, when starting on the doctoral programme was to enhance her professional practice and her professional knowledge. At the proposal stage, however, Ali's focus changed due to a difficult experience in the workplace and her purpose for being on the doctoral programme changed to self-development. Ali described her choice to change direction as going down a different path from her usual path and, also, going down a different path from those around her. Ali said she did not consider at the time the impact that this change would have on her professional doctoral research experience. However, for Ali, going in a different direction was the only option because she thought that, without the support of her employers and colleagues, her study would not be appreciated.

In summary, in this section I have described the number of participants I recruited for this study and the geographical range of participants. I have explained the reasons I chose the participants from my home university and why I specifically decided to interview professional doctoral students. In the concluding part of this section I have given a broad description of the participants that agreed to participate in this study. In the section that follows I will discuss my research methods.

3.3 Research methods in this study

In this section I explain the qualitative methods that frame this thesis. I describe my case study method and discuss the method I used to interview participants. I explain my method of recording. I explain member checking and describe the member checking method I used to ensure as accurate representation as possible.

3.3.1 Case study

A case study is a “holistic research method that uses multiple sources of evidence to analyse or evaluate a specific phenomenon” (Anderson and Arsenault 2007, p.152). The status of the case study is regarded by Yin (2009) as the “weak sibling” (p.xiii) due to the uncertain structure researchers find difficult to work with. In this study however, the structure was clear that is, I used six individual case studies to “describe...explain...[and] evaluate...[the] specific” (Anderson and Arsenault 2007, p154) dynamics in each of the participant’s narratives. The psychoanalytical frame defined the connections between the six case studies and the case study method I used to “illuminate and explicate” (Thomas 2011, p.513) the interconnectedness between the participants’ different experiences.

3.3.2 Interview method

This study required a methodology that could explore my research questions in-depth and uncover how research students themselves understood their experiences. I therefore, developed an approach that involved conducting in-depth personal and sensitive interviews with six education professional doctoral research students. Further, I ensured that I was representing the participants as accurately as possible which meant that I took every opportunity available to reflect on how I was influencing the research interviews and the data. Using a reflexive method was critical as it helped me build a foundation on which “thoroughness” (Holliday 2007, p.9), and “ethical integrity” (Mosselson (2010 p.479) could be developed. Berg and Smith (1988) reinforce the importance of using reflexivity in their claim that,

The self-scrutiny process is difficult and complex precisely because *both* researcher and the ‘researched’ are simultaneously influencing each other. Since this is occurring in ways that initially are out of the awareness of the parties involved, scrutiny is an absolutely necessary part of social science research (p. 31).

When I responded to the participants in the interviews and through correspondence for example, I was aware that what I said to participants might potentially influence their responses in the interview. I was therefore vigilant about how I responded to participants. I was also aware of how I reacted to what the participants were talking about for instance, as if shocked, laughing, butting in or talking about similar experiences. Two significant factors I focused on throughout the data collection process and data analysis was that I was reflexive in relation to my influence on the data and that I checked with the participants that I was representing them (Denzin and Lincoln 2013) as accurately as possible. The less visible relational dynamics (Hollway and Jefferson 2013) were evident in this thesis however, I was able to scrutinise these using the psychoanalytical framework.

3.3.3 Record of interviewing

The interview schedule can be found in appendix C

3.3.4 Recording

I used a digital voice recorder to collect data. I downloaded all information onto hard drives and stored them safely. At the initial design stage, I included note taking as a way of generating additional data (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009). I abandoned this method at the pilot interview stage since I was unable to focus fully on the participant's spoken voice.

3.3.5 Member checking

Ensuring trustworthiness was informed predominately by member checking since this method facilitated an "interpersonal connection" (Doyle 2007, p.905) between the participant and myself while both "in the search of mutually understood meaning" (p.905). Furthermore, it was important that I ensured that I was representing the participants accurately. Lincoln and Guba (1985) claim, for example,

The member check, whereby data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions are tested with

members...from whom the data were originally collected, is the most crucial technique for establishing credibility (p.314).

The participants' abilities to recognise their own realities (Lincoln and Guba 1985) when participating, for example, verified the trustworthiness of their accounts throughout the research process. I was conscious that in the participant participation research process there was implicit power (Foucault 1995) embedded in the fabric of my relationship with the participants as it seems to be in all human relationships (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009) and, therefore is unavoidable.

3.3.6 Member checking method

With the theory in mind I planned the following four courses of action in terms of participant involvement,

1. To send the participants their transcripts to read and confirm that I had represented them accurately.
2. To meet the participants individually for a second interview and discuss key issues that had emerged from my research.
3. To share general themes with the participants. In this case the nature of the experience and the different enactments of transitional space that unfolds in the overall analysis.
4. To share case profiles with individual participants for confirmation of accurate representation.

I contacted the participants by email to ask if they would participate beyond the interview stage and the responses I received were positive, for example, "I would be very happy to meet you to discuss the findings out of your research" (Findley), "thank you for inviting me to be part of your study and I would be delighted to participate" (Casey) and "happy to have a look at the case study" (Dakota). When the participants had read their transcripts, I invited them to a second interview to talk about their transcripts and share key themes that had emerged from my analysis. The participants, that I saw face to face and over Skype, agreed that I could record their interviews. Their responses were positive, for example, Reese said, "yes it was

accurate...it was like hearing someone else speaking but I knew it was me". Ali was unable to attend a second interview but she confirmed that the "transcript looks grand", after pointing out word changes such as 'incline' to 'inkling'. Amari said, "it is absolutely fine and a very good representation of how I was feeling at the time". Reflecting on the text when reading the transcript Findley said that, "more thoughts emerged" and in response to whether the transcript was an accurate representation Findley said, "yes, yes, absolutely". I discussed the key themes that had emerged from my analysis of the transcripts and in response the participants talked about space and transition. For example, Reese talked about his new supervision relationship and said "I feel we built a really good space for us both". Furthermore, Findley said that she was interested in "displacement and senses and belonging and not belonging".

The next stage of the participation related to the case profile of each participant which I sent to the participants to check again for accurate representation. This was a useful exercise as Ali said I could be a "little less specific as I feel that the description makes me identifiable". Dakota confirmed "I am happy that I am not identified in the profile" and Amari said, "I have never worked for an education authority...what if the first line was changed to Amari works in education management?" This information was useful as it enabled me to make the necessary amendments to ensure I was representing the participants as accurately as possible.

In summary, in this section I have discussed my case study method, method of interviewing and recording and member checking method that I used to generate information for this thesis.

3.4 Ensuring trustworthiness

In this section, I will present the participants' reflections on their interview experience. I will discuss the interviews and what I needed to consider. I will describe my interview design and the interview questions. I will explain my conflicting interview position and discuss the pilot interviews and main interviews that I conducted for this thesis.

3.4.1 Participants' reflections on the interview

The interview questions were intended to facilitate reflective insight into how the participants perceived and understood their experiences and the influence the experiences had on them personally and professionally. The interviews evoked different responses for example,

The interview itself affected what came after it so much because...[it] really awoke an acute awareness that until that point I had not even engaged in" [Pilot].

The structure of the questions facilitated a space to reflect,

It has been really interesting being a participant...It has been really helpful to reflect on what has happened from my point of view [Amari].

The questions also provided an opportunity to explore experiences,

I just thought your questions were exploratory and I thought that was quite nice... I think the way you constructed it by being so open to where the enquiry leads you is really interesting [Findley].

All the participants claimed that they experienced their interviews as being useful. As the researcher, I experienced the privilege of being invited to understand the complex nature of the participants' experiences.

I contacted the participants for the second time to ask their consent to a follow up meeting and they all agreed to meet. The purpose of catching up with the participants for a second time was to check if I was representing them as accurately as possible, while giving something back to the participants. I recorded the meetings with the participants' consent and I discussed key issues from my initial findings and I answered the participants' questions and shared general themes. Further, I

showed the participants the written bits of text that I intended to use as excerpts from their transcripts. The participants appeared to appreciate an opportunity to reflect on my findings for example Casey said, “that’s now got me thinking”. When talking about reading back the transcript for instance Casey seemed to realise that “it started to tell a story...just when I was reading over how I wanted to construct my design and what I was experiencing between the work place, the university and me as a person”. When describing the experience of reading the transcript back Reese said, “it was funny reading it after so long because it is almost like hearing someone else speaking but I knew it was me, it was strange and showed how much I have moved on”. Amari’s response to the transcript was similar for example, “I think it’s been a very helpful experience to have read through my transcript on the train this afternoon and think, Oh my god I have been in a bad place.” For Findley, catching up and hearing about my initial findings “sounded very familiar” in terms of “the theme around space and... sense of belonging and not belonging”. Meeting with the participants again ensured that the findings that were emerging were trustworthy and the representation of their narratives seemed to be on track.

3.4.2 Interviews

When thinking about a sensitive interview method, I considered Oakley’s (1981) suggestion that sensitive interviews were a “condition under which people come to know each other and to admit others into their lives” (p.58). However, this type of interview process raised the following question: Is it possible to conduct a sensitive interview without compromising the “private world of...participants” (Dickson-Swift, James and Liamputtong 2008, p.10) if the researcher defines the condition of the interview?

Keeping this question in mind I chose a sensitive relational approach designed to “establish a rapport and empathic connection” (Roulston 2010, p.56) in the interview. I established a link between the interview approach and Brown and Gilligan’s (1992) voice method since both research practices complemented the sensitive relational and psychoanalytical interview context. The voice method (Brown and Gilligan 1992) is discussed later in the chapter in relation to the analysis of the participants’ experiences. Overall, the most important consideration was to provide a good

interview experience for the participants and, thereby, an opportunity to “retain... their ...learner identity” (Clegg and Stevenson 2013, p.12). I therefore needed to consider not only what I was asking the participants in the interview but how I asked the questions.

3.4.3 Interview considerations

My choice to interview participants from my own EdD programme was due to having already established relationships with EdD students in the Department of Education. In order to help to create some sense of distance between their supervision experiences and my own, I was reflexively vigilant of my reactions to the participants' stories so that I was able to define the boundary between my insider and outsider position. I kept a research journal, for example, to record my reactions to the participant's stories and analysed these reactions in line with the data. I continually looked for points at which I identified with the participants' experiences. This information enabled me to interrupt assumptions that I was making and to re-calibrate my position as a researcher. I was acutely aware, also, of my emotional responses and how this influenced the way in which I interpreted the participants' stories. Furthermore, I was alert to how I responded to the participants' stories in relation to the participants as peers experiencing something similar or completely different to what I had experienced.

3.4.4 Interview question design

I needed to ask the same questions in each interview however, I was aware that “standardized questions do not bring standardized answers” (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009 p.134) and each participant would respond differently. It was important therefore to think about the interview journey from beginning to end and the different stages of questioning that would evoke in depth and sensitive data. This meant I needed to begin the interview with an introductory set of questions (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009) as a way of helping the participants settle into the interview. The first questions for example, related to what the professional doctoral student dilemmas were that the participants had experienced? The participants perceived the term dilemma as a difficult experience.

I was aware that the sensitive nature of the interview questions had the potential to rouse uncomfortable feelings for some participants about their experiences that either they may not have thought about or spoken about before. Consequently, I designed the second set of questions to explore sensitively (Dickson-swift, James and Liamputtong 2008) the experiences that the participants found difficult to talk about. For example, I asked the participants why their dilemmas were difficult to talk about and how they would describe an uncomfortable dilemma. As the design had the potential to be intrusive I was therefore careful about following up with probing questions (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009) for example, I asked, would it be possible to say a bit more about that? I was conscious, due to the sensitive nature of the interview, that it was important to make a gradual assent and ask more practical questions towards the end before bringing the interview to a close. I asked for example, about what support worked for the participants and what their interview experience had been like. The purpose of my interview questions was to facilitate a sensitive interview experience that could lead to a deeper understanding of the experiences that the participants found difficult to talk about. My interview style seemed to influence an unexpected change in terms of my initial research questions. What emerged from the participants' narratives for example, were issues in terms of their difficult experiences in their doctoral supervision relationships.

3.4.5 Interview questions

The interview questions were semi-structured and were asked in three stages to represent a beginning middle and end (the interview design will be discussed further on in this chapter). In the interview I used the same questions for each participant and probed when I was unclear about what the participant was saying. For instance, I would repeat back to the participant either my understanding of what I had heard him/her say to achieve clarification or I would ask the participant to give me an example. I used the skeleton below and I used probes, such as 'can you say a bit more about that' and 'have you got an example', to develop the participants thinking in relation to the information they were sharing.

First stage:

- Can you tell me as briefly as possible about your thesis topic?

- Can you tell me about the dilemmas you have encountered while conducting your research?
- What dilemma would you identify as being the most difficult to talk about?
- If there were two undesirable aspects to the dilemma you have mentioned what would they be?

Second stage:

- Why do you think you have found specific dilemmas difficult to talk about?
- How would you describe the difference between the dilemma that feels uncomfortable to talk about and the dilemma that feels comfortable to talk about?

Third stage:

- If there was advice about dilemmas that you could pass on to professional doctoral students researching for the first time, what would that be?
- Looking back on this interview how would you describe your experience?
- Do you have any questions for me?

3.4.6 Conflicting interview position

An implication of being an insider (peer) while, also, being an outsider (researcher) in the interview meant that at times, the boundary became blurred and I felt over protective and over identified with my peers. I tried as much as possible to remain reflexive about the implications of this in-between place and I reviewed and discussed with my supervisors what occurred throughout the process. For example, during the interviews I became aware that “researchers inevitably accrue power”

(Sikes and Potts 2008, p.179) and that the participants seemed to be “acutely aware” (p.179) of this fact. For example, I asked the questions and set the scene and the participants yielded some control of direction. After the interview, I went for a coffee with each participant and he/she responded positively to this opportunity. However, as a researcher bouncing from outside to inside and back again caused confusion. For example, when I was with each participant I had to remind myself of the position from which I was communicating.

3.4.7 Pilot interviews

I decided to conduct a pilot study because I wanted to trial and refine the interview questions and to reflect on the whole interview process. I invited, by e-mail, two EdD students to participate in this pilot study and two accepted. The interviews lasted one hour and I asked semi structured questions and recorded the responses. In the two pilot interviews, I realised, when reflecting on the first pilot interview, that I had rushed through the questions. The problem was that the participant did not seem to have sufficient time to explore the perceptions, purpose and meanings behind the experience that the participant found difficult to talk about in the first place. This led me to rethink my interview style for the second interview. However, in the second interview I found that I went to the other extreme. The conversation went in many unexpected directions revealing potentially conflicting roles that is, my researcher role, my professional role and my co-doctoral student role.

However, this second interviewee followed up with an email thanking me for the conversation which he claimed had been very helpful to his work. The pilot interviews influenced my decision to refine my semi-structured interview questions. The pilot questions focused more on what the participant was feeling and led to the participant opening up as if in a therapy session rather than in a research interview. For instance,

- What do you feel the key factors are that contribute to unspoken dilemmas when they emerge in the research process?

- How do you feel unspoken dilemmas influenced you as a professional within your research practice?
- How do you feel unspoken dilemmas influenced you personally within the research process?

When I realised what was happening I changed the questions to encourage the participant to access their thought process for example,

- Why do you think you have found specific dilemmas difficult to talk about?

I then narrowed the next question down to incorporate feelings as I thought this might facilitate a space for the participant to talk about their feelings within this context for example,

- How would you describe the difference between the dilemma that feels uncomfortable to talk about and the dilemma that feels comfortable to talk about?

When considering whether or not to involve participants I considered Hastings (2010) who questions whether including the participant's "authentic accurate voice" (p.314) can cause harm and the author's suggestion that "they might find the...analysis quite hurtful?" (p.314). For example, a participant may disclose sensitive information in the interview, which seems comfortable in the conversational moment, but feel regretful when they read it in print. Another implication of participant participation was that a transcript "requires a greater contribution from participants than they may have thought they were consenting to" (Miller and Bell 2002, p.54). The participant, for example, may want to be involved but may not fully realise the potential impact on their personal and professional commitments. Considering the challenge of involving participants in the research process was a dilemma. Encouraging participation for example, might have compromised the participants however my research was premised on the importance of hearing the

participants' difficult experiences and engaging them fully in exploring these experiences.

One of the pilot interviews informed my decision to select EdD students who were enrolled currently. In this regard, I was asked by a member of staff not to interview former students who were now employed within the department since it would create a conflict of interest.

3.4.8 Conducting interviews

After conducting the pilot and changing a number of elements of my approach as a result (i.e. interview questions, my interviewing approach, not sharing transcriptions), I contacted the six participants by email to introduce myself again with an outline of the study. A synopsis of the research topic outlining the aim and objectives was emailed to each participant, as was the consent form (see Appendix B) and the interview questions. I asked the participants' permission to make contact by phone at a convenient time for them. I responded to the participants' emails with a table of interview times and dates. The location was negotiated with each participant when the interview date was set.

Shortly before the interview, I emailed the participant to confirm that he/she was attending the interview. I met four of the participants in the reception area of the School of Education before their interviews and travelled to interview two participants who chose their homes as the location. I interviewed all the participants at least once for one hour. In the interview I provided each participant with a bottle of water. Before the interview started I asked if the participant had read the consent form and then, I asked him/her to sign the consent form. I explained that the interview would take one hour and I could stop the audio recorder at any stage if they wanted to take a break or leave the interview. When the recorder was turned off at the end of the interview, I checked if the participant needed to ask any more questions. After the interview, I went with each participant to a café. This was an opportunity for the participants to make the transition from the interview back into their everyday experience.

In summary, in this section I have described the participants' response to their interviews. I have explained the interview process and the interview design. I have described the interview questions and discussed the different issues I needed to consider in terms of my conflicting position as an insider/outsider. I have described the pilot interviews I conducted that influenced my final research interview design and I have discussed the process of conducting the interviews.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical conduct is a core concern of my thesis and it is considered throughout this chapter. I received ethical approval for this thesis in February 2011 and I sought guidance from the School of Education Ethics committee. The Ethics committee guided me through the various revisions and research procedures and the management of the sensitive ethical issues involved in psychoanalytical educational research. In this section I will describe the ethical code of conduct I adhered to throughout the research process and ethical issues. I will explain the steps I took to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. I will discuss the consent form and I will describe the difference between a qualitative research interview and a counselling and psychotherapy interview. I will discuss the purpose of sending the interview questions to participants before their interview. To conclude I will explain the micro ethics of care (Guillemin and Gillam 2004).

3.5.1 Ethical code of conduct

The ethical code of conduct, which informed my research practice, was "Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research" (BERA 2004). The relevant sections were the "Guidelines and Responsibilities" (pp.4-10). The purpose of my using BERA's (2004) ethical code as a reference point was to ensure that I was respectful of the participants as individuals at all stages in the research. This made sure that I did not intrude on an individual if he/she declined to be interviewed and I did not assume I shared the same experiences as the participant.

There were a number of ethical issues inherent in this study. For example, four of the participants were my peers. I was a doctoral student undertaking the same EdD

programme at the same time as the professional doctoral students who agreed to participate in this study. I was conducting my own study when the participants were finishing theirs and engaging in the same research activities such as departmental conferences. When interviewing the participants, I found that I was experiencing some of the issues that they were discussing, and that they were aware of this consideration. I was asking the participants' questions for example, that evoked information which many students might not have wanted to share ordinarily with a peer or want to be revealed within their institution of study.

I was therefore, engaging in what Garton and Copland (2010) describe as an acquaintance interview that by its nature is biased as both "interviewers and the interviewees share a history" (p.547). The "data in these interviews...[being] generated in a particular way" (Garton and Copland 2010, p.548) meant I had "access to resources that are not always available in more traditional social sciences interviews" (p.548) which appeared to imply that I was in a unique position. Garton and Copland (2010) suggest for example, that

"acquaintance interviews represent an 'extreme case' which provides a perspicuous setting in which to observe the norms that are implicit in interviews and which constrain and enable the interaction that takes place" (p.548).

However, because of the implicit observations I was making in the interview process, I needed to consider ethically, "the part that [my] prior relationships play[ed] in the process of data generation" (Garton and Copland 2010, p.548) and find a way of being explicit about this with the participants. The consent form for example, provided an opportunity to withdraw at any time. Further, the participants were invited to talk about their interview experience in the interview. The data analysis however, did not show that the participants had concerns about the nature of our acquaintance however, despite the absence of concerns, I adopted an additional vigilant strategy. I kept a journal for example, throughout the research process and recorded my reflexive position and what was emerging daily in my research.

Furthermore, I talked to my doctoral supervisors about what I had reflected on due to the prior acquaintance relationship I had with some of the participants. Doctoral supervision was the space in which I expressed how difficult it was at times to be

enrolled on the same programme as my participants of whom I had previous knowledge and was researching alongside. Fortunately, my doctoral supervisor was a new member of staff and did not know the participants which provided an opportunity to talk about my research experience without having to edit my narrative.

3.5.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

Confidentiality and participants' anonymity are key expectations in most interpretive research. I explained this to participants and emphasized that, while I would take every step to protect their anonymity, particular readers who knew them, might be able to identify them through the data excerpts used in the thesis. Therefore, I sent the transcripts to the participants so that they could review them and remove any excerpts they did not wish to be included before they approved the transcripts. The consent form offered the participants, also, an opportunity to withdraw from taking part in the study at any time, for any reason. I allocated each participant a pseudonym using gender neutral names. I anonymised professional institutions and significant places and as far as possible I removed identifiers from the data. In order to address the ethical issue of confidentiality I took steps to,

- Disguise the participants' identities.
- Keep alert to the ethical issues as they arose throughout the research process and to discuss ethical issues with my doctoral supervisors.
- Remove all information from the text that potentially could identify the participants.
- Send the participants their case profiles and the text from their interview transcripts, to ensure I was representing them accurately and to provide an opportunity for the participants to comment and change the text.

3.5.3 Consent form

Ethical implications emerged at the pilot and design stage of the consent form. I had not considered Miller and Bell's (2002) claim that "researchers need to decide what they are inviting participants to consent to" (p.65) and consequently I missed out information on the consent form which meant that potentially I could have failed to

collect important data. For example, I did not gain consent to write down information that emerged when the recorder was switched off after the interview. I noticed at the early stage of design that by not ensuring participants were “aware that they are taking part in research with all its hazards and that their participation is voluntary” (Homan 2002, p.25) I might have harmed the participant and compromised the research. Learning this at the pilot stage meant that I was able to correct my procedures during the data collection stage.

Confidentiality was discussed in the consent form in relation to changing names and places in the transcripts and the thesis. The purpose of the consent form was to present an open and honest account of the research design to enable the participants to make an informed choice about contributing. I attached my contact number for the participant to call either before or after the interview for further information if required or to ask questions about the interview.

3.5.4 Qualitative research interview and psychotherapy and counselling.

There are important ethical distinctions between a qualitative research interview and a counselling and psychotherapy interview. It was important that I addressed the differences between these two practices with the participants since the participants knew me to be an accredited psychotherapist (UKCP). Firstly, my study focused on data that responded to my research questions. The difference in a counselling and psychotherapy interview is that it is designed to help the participant to focus in on him/herself (Birch and Miller 2002). Secondly, the interview questions informed the direction of the interview while I remained vigilant to the interview taking a different direction and/or causing discomfort to the participant. Within a counselling and psychotherapy context, the interview is non-directive (Kvale 1999) and client led. Thirdly, the method of interviewing was semi-structured and based on one-off interviews. Within a counselling and psychotherapy context, the focus is on the relationship which develops over time and several sessions (Bondi 2005) whereby the counsellor and psychotherapist keep the time boundary and the client defines the structure.

3.5.5 Interview questions

I sent the interview questions to the participants before conducting the interviews. In each interview, I gave careful attention to any verbal or nonverbal signs of discomfort that indicated the interview should be halted or terminated. When contacting the participants initially, I made each participant aware of the possible distress that the interview might cause. I reiterated this in the written description of the study's nature and purpose that was sent to participants when seeking their consent. If the participant chose to articulate an experience in the interview, I assumed that he/she was in a position to make an informed choice. I defined informed choice as a participant being able to choose their response to the experience they found difficult to talk about.

I anticipated that the semi-structured interview questions which I designed to explore the participants' subjective experiences could have had the potential to evoke uncomfortable feelings. In order to address this concern, I explained in the consent form that if requested a copy of the interview transcript would be sent to the participant. This was not an invitation to the participant to rewrite their contribution but to provide an opportunity for the participant to withdraw from the research process. I was confident that a semi-structured interview and supplying the participants with the questions in advance would clarify the boundaries of the research. Furthermore, at the beginning of the write up stage, I decided to change my decision and include the participants in the overall research process within the context of member checking (see 3.3.5) a method discussed earlier in this chapter.

3.5.6 Micro ethics of care (Guillemin and Gillam 2004)

The participants' experiences sometimes involved research staff within the School of Education and this was also, my place of study and where I received doctoral supervision. The implication of researching in my place of study was that I had to discuss my research without breaking confidentiality this meant that there was the potential for rich information being lost. One participant's experience for example, related to difficulties in their doctoral supervision relationship. The difficult nature of the generated information evoked a question was it ethical to

use difficult information disclosed in a research interview? Despite the steps which I had taken to ensure anonymity I decided to discard sections of the information generated from the participant's transcript. My decision was influenced by my ethical responsibility as a researcher to protect the participant's identity (Copland and Creese 2015) and to avoid potential harm to the participant and the individual involved.

In summary, in this section I have described the education research ethical guidelines that informed my research. I have explained the steps I took to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. I have highlighted the implication of missing out information on a consent form which I asked the participants to sign before participating in my research. I have discussed the difference between a qualitative research interview and counselling and psychotherapy. I have explained ethical considerations in relation to the interview questions and the reasons for sending the questions to the participants before the interview. I have explained the micro ethics of care (Guillemin and Gillam 2004) in terms of conducting research in my institution of study.

3.6 Conclusions.

This was a qualitative study using psychoanalytical research methodology. In-depth sensitive interviews were chosen as the data collection tool as this method was compatible with my psychoanalytical theoretical perspective and method of analysis. This approach facilitated a construction of meaning and a mutual understanding of information between the participant and myself as the researcher. The steps taken to recruit the participants in relation to email correspondence and the consent form complimented the member checking method I used to ensure trustworthiness in terms of representing the participants as accurately as possible.

The sensitive relational framework that shaped my interview approach informed the reflexive position I maintained throughout the research process. The interview approach facilitated an opportunity to generate in-depth information from the participants with respect and care. The reflexivity ensured that I was vigilant about my influence on the interview conversations and the data that these produced. The

insider/outsider status fine-tuned the vigilance that I practiced throughout the research process and was a reminder of the tension between what I perceived and how this influenced my research. The pilot interviews provided an opportunity to address conflicts of interest, the time allocated to the interview and the interview question format. The considerations and changes in direction, which occurred in relation to my interview approach, influenced the research process and the next step.

The ethical considerations and ethical conduct ensured anonymity and confidentiality. It was important to adhere to the revised ethical guidelines for educational research (BERA 2004) as they promoted respect towards the participants and their choice whether or not to participate in this study. It was important to consider the implication of interviewing peers and researching alongside them. Further, it was important to reconfigure the consent form after the pilot interviews due to not gaining consent before the interview for writing notes after the recorder was turned off at the end of the interview. An additional consideration was that the interview may have possibly been the first time the participant had spoken about their professional doctoral student experience.

Thinking about the difference between my professional role as a counsellor and psychotherapist and my role as a researcher reinforced my researcher position. Further, thinking about the micro ethics (Guillemin and Gillam 2004) was important due to the issue of researching in my institution of study and potential conflicts of interest. Ethically considering my research actions heightened my awareness and helped me to strengthen my research practice. To conclude, it was important to be aware of the insider outsider position I occupied through the research process and the tension between familiarity and objectivity that I was engaged in, in conversation with peers some of whom I knew and some whom I had just met.

Chapter 4 Analysis

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will explain the transcription method and I will discuss the implications. I outline the transcription format which I used in the transcription process. I will describe the search for a compatible method of analysis. I will discuss and reflect on the method of analysis that I used for this thesis that is, Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method. To conclude, I will explain how I applied the voice method of analysis. In the section that follows I will discuss what informed my decision to use the transcription method.

4.1.2 Why transcription?

"If you want quality research you've got to have quality transcription"

(Powers 2005, p.10)

Thinking about a transcription method was important since I needed it to be compatible with the theoretical perspective and my chosen method of analysis. Lapadat and Lindsay (1998) suggested that little attention is given to examining the "methodological and theoretical issues associated with the transcription process" (p.3). Nowadays transcription is discussed in detail in transcription literature highlighting that I needed to find a method of transcription that would provide a trustworthy account of the conversations (Alldred and Gillies 2002) and which would represent the participants as accurately as possible. The following three principles emerged in the process of presenting my ideas at scholarly conferences: i) transcription represents the participants' spoken voices, ii) the method of transcription is compatible with the voice method of analysis that is, a method based on Brown and Gilligan's (1992) reading and listening guide that is implemented in four stages, and iii) the voice method of analysis is compatible with the psychoanalytical theoretical perspective that will facilitate interpretation. The purpose of writing these three principles was to provide a context within which to understand the analysis process. I decided to transcribe the recordings myself since I lacked the

resources to engage a transcriptionist. However, errors occurred: I missed detail for example,

Before: There was no previous – no previous incline that this might happen you know....

After: There was no previous – no previous inkling

I left out utterances,

Before: I think I certainly had lost confidence in my own work and you know even talking to the supervisor initially was a little bit I suppose that I thought she might say “em well perhaps not perhaps you should do something else” but actually no no it was my my plan or my emerging research was very well received and it was supported so that in fact things are going very well just now.

After: Em I think I certainly had lost confidence in my own work and you know even talking to the supervisor initially em was a little bit **[pause]** – I suppose that I thought she might say “em well perhaps not, perhaps you should do something else” **[laughs]** but actually no, no it was my **em** – my plan or my emerging research was very well received and it was supported so that – in fact things are going very well just now.

There were words that were the wrong way around,

Before: I wanted to stop **what** is which I had considered before.

After: I wanted to stop **which** is what I had considered before.

I missed words,

Before: No, absolutely of course it is. I suppose my biggest fear – what’s my biggest fear? That I finish [laughing] my doctorate becomes public - ...

After: No, absolutely of course it is. I suppose my biggest fear – what’s my biggest fear? That I finish [laughing] my doctorate **before this (interview)** becomes public ...

Or I imagined words,

Before: Would I apply to do a research – to create this university again, I don’t know...

After: Would I apply to do a research - to **consider** this university again? I don’t know...

I therefore, decided to listen to the recordings several times in order to correct the errors. Nonetheless, transcribing my data ensured I became very familiar with the data and I was able to immerse myself in the meanings and details.

Problems relating to transcribing did not occur to me initially as my focus was on finding the easiest route possible. As a result, I left out important spoken aspects such as sighing, ums, ahs, laughter etc. Thus, important “elements of speech (e.g., stutters, pauses, non-verbals, involuntary vocalizations)...[were] removed” (Oliver, Serovich and Mason 2005, pp.1273-1274). In the neatly typed transcript, there was an absence of emotion in the “loss of tone, pace and volume” (Alldred and Gillies 2002, p.160). By escaping the “chore” (Agar 1996, p.153) I was undermining the participants and their spoken words, and spoken words are important in a psychoanalytic analysis. Ochs (1979) claims that the problem with “ignoring transcription procedure is that researchers rarely produce a transcript that... reflect[s] their research goals and the state of field” (p. 45). I realised that a transcript is “only as good as the methods used to create it” (Powers 2005, p.9) and, therefore, I designed the punctuation format below specific to my method of transcribing verbatim. I engaged with a number of transcription conventions (Jefferson 2004, Richards 2003) and decided on the following, drawing on their suggestions.

1	Commas: break up utterances	,
2	Dashes: punctuate incomplete utterances	—
3	Period marks: end of utterances	.
4	Ellipsis in square brackets: indicating cuts	[...]
5	Square brackets: indicating nonverbal sounds	[laughter]
6	Square brackets: indicating inaudible words	[words unclear]
7	Square brackets: indicating changes in tone and pitch	[low]
8	Square brackets: indicating pauses	[pause]
9	Quotation marks: indicating reported speech	“

Figure 4.1: Punctuation format used in transcribing verbatim

Figure 4.1 displays a format that avoids “flatten[ing]...speech ...and strip[ing]...out context” (Powers 2005, p.11) from the spoken word.

In summary, written transcripts are always a limited representation of the live interview dynamics (Powers 2005). This is exacerbated when trying to undertake in-depth analysis working with a transcript containing only the words uttered. I created a method of punctuation in the transcription as an attempt to improve my representation of the interview conversations. In the following section, I present Brown and Gilligan’s (1992) voice method of analysis and my application.

4.2 Analysis of the participants' experiences

In this section I discuss Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method of analysis that I applied to make sense of the participants' professional doctoral student experiences. I explain my reasons for being reflexive when analysing the data. To begin, I describe the search for a compatible method of analysis.

4.2.1 Search for a compatible method of analysis

I considered three other options before choosing the voice method. One option was discourse analysis because it focused on language and the way in which individuals constructed their realities and meanings through social practice (Gee 2005). This method, however, was incompatible with the psychoanalytic theoretical perspective since it focused on text and not the spoken voice. I opted out of using interpretative phenomenological analysis (Smith, Flowers and Larkin 2009) because its focus was on the participant's particular experience at the moment of the interview and was not analysing the relational dynamics of the interview itself. Billig et al's. (1988) suggestion of the analytic approach of ideological dilemmas was a further possibility that I considered. However, here the emphasis was on text and the dominant thread was ideology, this was not of central interest to my study. In contrast, Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method offered a structure that I thought was not only congruent with the different methodological elements of my study and theoretical perspective but, also, helped to manage the data.

4.2.2 Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method of analysis

Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method is based on four stages of reading and listening to transcripts and recordings,

- (1) Who is speaking?
 - (2) In what body?
 - (3) Telling what story about relationship – from whose perspective or from what vantage point?
 - (4) In what societal and cultural frameworks?
- (p.21)

The purpose of the method is to “bring...the inner psychic world of feelings and thoughts out into the open air of relationship where it can be heard by oneself and by other people” (Brown and Gilligan 1992, p.20). Mauthner and Doucet (1998) adapted the voice method for a sociological analysis and Pinto (2004) and Paliadelis and Cruikshank (2008) adapted it for health studies. Mauthner and Doucet (1998) claim that the voice relational method is designed to be adaptable and open to different interpretations depending on the research topic. The authors construct their reading and listening in a slightly different way but within Brown and Gilligan’s (1992) voice method framework, for example, reading and listening for the plot, the ‘I’ and the self, the relationships and the cultural and sociological context (Mauthner and Doucet, 1998). My purpose in adopting the voice method for this study was to represent the transitions when reading and listening between the professional, academic and personal parts of the participant’s experiences.

There are two disadvantages in choosing Brown and Gilligan’s (1992) voice method: it is time consuming and the method usually requires two or more researchers. Therefore, I needed to adapt the voice method to manage the time which I had allocated as a professional doctoral research student to analyse the information generated from my research. I designed the following four readings: i) to listen to the plot that emerged from the narrative; ii) to listen for the participant’s voice in the first person; iii) to integrate the plots with the first person voice from the first and second readings and iv) to link the different parts within a wider relational and cultural context. At the transcription stage, I listened to the interview recordings multiple times and this informed the data analysis.

4.2.3 Reflection

The four reading and listening stages highlighted the relational impact of listening to the transcripts, namely, the participants were talking from the ‘I’, the ‘self’ and as an insider I realised that I was at risk of over identifying. When, for example, the participants described their feelings of injustice, I experienced a sense of wanting to protect and protest. When the participants were grappling with making sense of the research process and their research experiences, I found myself identifying with their plight. I reflexively followed Brown and Gilligan’s (1992) example that suggests,

“Writing out our responses to what we are hearing, we then consider how our thoughts and feelings may affect our understanding, our interpretation, and the way we write about that person” (p.27).

The reflexive account was essential in the analysis since it separated transparently the participants’ stories from my own and, at the same time, acknowledged the influence I had on the data.

4.3 Applying the analysis

An important consideration at the beginning of the analysis was the management of information emerging from the transcripts and creating a structure that could assist in easily identifying themes and patterns in the participants’ narratives. Brown and Gilligan (1992) argue that “we reflect on ourselves as people in the privileged position of interpreting the life events of another and consider the implications of this act” (p.27). Therefore, as I conducted the analysis, I reflected on the decisions I was making and how my own view informed these decisions. Notes I took performed this reflexive stance and can be seen on the page that follows.

October

5 Wednesday

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° I have managed to finish the first stage of the second stage.

° The three considerations that have come up already are: -

↳ I need to focus on how the three are inter-related with each other through the scripts.

° The participant speaking from the "I" self runs all the way through the scripts.

° Are the participants answering the questions indirectly through the other questions - specifically the second research question?

° Now I have dragged the relevant data out I can analyse it in more detail - focusing on the I -

° I need to follow my own questions from the 1st reading and use as a tool.

° I need to make a note of emerging themes but also emerging questions for the second reading.

° Maybe something I need to be aware of is how they are occupying the transitional space -

° When are the transitional points - how are they there - why are they there?

'There are times when parenthood seems nothing but feeding the mouth that bites you.'
Peter de Vries, 1910-1993, American writer

The purpose of my study was to answer my research questions which I held in mind as a reference point in the data analysis. To recap the research questions for this study were,

1. During the course of the thesis preparation, what difficulties do professional doctoral students face?
2. What are the expectations professional doctoral students have of the supervision relationship? Are these expectations met?
3. What support might enhance professional doctoral students' experience with regard to discussing difficulties in the supervision relationship?

To begin there were three initial themes that had emerged from my overall reading and listening,

- The range of difficulties experienced by professional doctoral students.
- The transition from unspoken experiences to speaking those experiences was difficult for some professional doctoral students.
- The need to consider what support might enhance a professional doctoral students' experience.

4.3.1 First reading and listening

For the first reading and listening, I read the six transcripts and identified thirteen broad themes. I started by reading and listening to each transcript four times. I read the transcripts and listened in four different ways (Mauthner and Doucet 1998) to identify, 1) the plot in the participants' narrative, 2) the participants' 'I' in terms of how they talked about their experience, 3) the participants narrative in relationship to others, 4) the broader context. For each reading and listening I wrote notes and I numbered each sentence. I underlined the main themes in the participants'

narratives and I wrote the main emerging themes down in list form. To establish broad themes that represented all the themes, I circled each theme on the list in a different colour. For example, I used yellow, for managing different identities, study work life balance and merging of the professional researcher. I used blue for isolation, support through the EdD and trust and pink for support systems and peer group support etc. I then drew four charts with four sections to represent the four reading and listening stages of each transcript. The broad titles on the chart above the four sections were informed by my main themes that had emerged in the analysis for example, funding bodies, supervision, support, conflict. At the end of the first reading and listening stage the main themes that I had identified were in the same colour and in the same section for example,

- Balancing research with professional and personal commitments.
- Supervision.
- Ethical clash.
- Funders and opposing values.
- Being pulled between funding bodies.
- Conflicting positions – professional and student researcher.
- Sexuality.
- Responsibility.
- Transcribing data.
- Interviewing.
- Balancing different identities.
- Access with strings attached.
- The impact of professional doctorate research on the self-worth of the researcher.

I used the same method of colours and coding in the first and second reading and listening stages. I identified ten broad themes from the first reading and listening stage and I incorporated some of these themes into the second reading and listening stage. For example, I incorporated the theme, “supervision” into the broader theme, “management of supervision”. Further, I incorporated, “balancing research with professional and personal commitments” and “balancing different identities” into the broader theme, “merging of the researcher, professional and the personal”. The

choice to incorporate themes was informed by the cross checking process that showed similarities in topic and context. The ten themes I concluded with in the second reading and listening stage were for example,

- Management of different identities.
- Neutral space
- Negotiating the objective and subjective in a dilemma.
- Management of supervision.
- Support through the EdD.
- Isolation.
- Bartering the personal to influence outcome.
- Study, work, life, balance.
- Merging of the researcher, professional and the personal.
- Trust.

I used the same method of colour and coding for the third and fourth reading and listening stages as I had used in the first and second reading and listening stages. In the third and fourth reading and listening stages I focused on broader themes that were emerging. I cross checked the data for common themes with the previous reading and listening stages and twelve main themes emerged for example,

- Support systems.
- Destabilisation.
- Peer supervision.
- Space to talk through dilemmas.
- Mentoring.
- Space to think.
- Supervision support network.
- Peer group support.
- Know your dilemma.
- Space to be messy (supervision or an alternative)
- Addressing dilemmas to get to the truth.
- Space to talk about the personal outside of the academic box.

4.3.2 Second reading and listening

For the second reading and listening I listened to the participant's voice in the first person, the 'I', the 'self'. I held in mind the themes and questions that had emerged from the first reading and listening,

- How had the participants perceived their difficult experiences?
- What was going on?
- How did the interview questions inform the participants' perception of their difficult experience?

I read and listened to the transcripts in four different ways (Mauthner and Doucet 1998). I highlighted sentences in different colours for example, yellow, orange, blue and pink, depending on the topic that emerged from the participants narratives. In each sentence I highlighted when the participant was talking in the first person. For example in relation to, 1) the plot in the participants' narrative, 2) the participants' 'I' in terms of how they talked about their experience, 3) the participants' narrative in relationship to others, 4) the broader context. When reflecting on the first stage of the second reading and listening I thought about how the participants had perceived their difficult experience. I wondered if the difficulties they experienced were specifically related to their role as professional doctoral students in the workplace. Further, I wondered if my interview questions had influenced the participants' reflections on support.

In the second reading and listening stage I was more specific in terms of focusing on how the participants talked from their 'I' in terms of speaking in the first person. For example,

6. influenced by the amount of time I have managed to spend on my research so I don't
7. feel like a real researcher and at the same time I feel like this professional who is
3. trying to professionalize by doing research so I feel I am not really – em [pause] I feel
1. displaced or as if I kind of don't belong in the sense that I have – I have not managed
1. to move things on as well or as quickly as I would like to. Em so in terms of my
1. sense of em [pause] place for want of a better word, I just feel a bit dislocated as if I
1. don't belong so I am always trying to find time to squeeze em – to spend on my
1. research so I can actually generate something and then I am finding that that's kind of
1. constrained in terms of obligations I have at work so I feel like I'm juggling between
1. the two things and sometimes em not necessarily doing either as well as I would like
1. to.

The findings from this section of a transcript appeared to show that the central plot in the participants' experience related to the role of professional doctoral student: "I don't feel like a researcher". The participant mainly speaks in the first person using the 'I' to explain what she is feeling which seems to imply that she is comfortable taking responsibility for her experience, "I feel"; "I am finding"; "I can actually". The participant however, also appears to be struggling with internal and external competing demands, "I have not managed to move things on", "that's kind of constrained in terms of obligations I have at work". The participant seemed to be using words such as, "displaced", "dislocated" and "I don't belong" that appeared to suggest the participant may be feeling a range of tensions. Two of the themes that emerged from this small piece of data related to the management of doctoral, personal and professional competing demands and a dislocation in the professional doctoral student experience. When reflecting on the findings and the participant's narrative there was no evidence of a space within which to reflect and transition from the participant's internal and external struggle as a professional doctoral student to understanding and making sense of that struggle.

As I was analysing the data I highlighted parts of the text and put the parts into a list form. I used main themes that had emerged as headings and wrote the headings on two charts. The charts had four sections and each section had a colour that I had used to identify different sentences. I wrote the sentences in the chart under the colour I had allocated. The common themes that emerged when cross checking the findings were incorporated further into wider themes.

First stage: Second reading and listening

I identified four specific themes relating to what participants found difficult to talk about in supervision for example,

- Researcher/professional conflict.
- Supervision.
- Funding.
- Methods.

Second stage: Second reading and listening

I identified three specific themes in terms of how the participants negotiated the transition from not talking to talking about the experiences that they find difficult for example,

- Deep impact professional doctorate has on the 'self', the 'I'.
- The impact of conflict with funders.
- Personal and professional conflict.

Third stage: Second reading and listening

I identified three themes relating to specific support that might enhance experience for example,

- Peer support.
- Space outside supervision.

- Understanding of difficult experiences.

4.3.3 Third and fourth reading and listening

I left the themes and went onto the third and fourth reading and listening. I read each transcript four times using the different reference points I had used previously. To recap, that is 1) the plot in the participants' narrative, 2) the participants 'I' in terms of how they talked about their experience, 3) the participant's narrative in relationship to others, 4) the broader context. At the third and fourth stage of reading and listening I focused on the different levels of psychoanalytical moments and the psychoanalytical ideas that facilitated an understanding of the text. I used the same system of highlighting sentences with different colours that is, yellow, orange, blue, pink, red and green. However, after cross checking my analysis I noticed that the psychoanalytical moments could be incorporated into the concluding themes.

4.4 Conclusions

When considering the data analysis process for this study I realised that it was important to adopt a method that would be compatible with my method of transcription, my qualitative psychoanalytical approach and theoretical perspective. To prepare for the data analysis I transcribed verbatim to ensure I was representing the participants' voices accurately and to do this I needed to listen to the transcripts several times, correct errors and member check that is, ask the participants to read their transcripts. I designed a punctuation format to include stutters, pauses and involuntary words to pick up on emotion, tone and pace to avoid undermining the less visible aspects of the participants' voices.

The method of analysis I used that is, Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method, appeared time consuming and seemed to require a team of researchers which meant I needed to adapt the method to accommodate the time I had to complete my research. When applying the method of analysis I needed to reflexively consider my influence on the data and be vigilant to when my view was informing the data. Reading and listening to the texts multiple times provided an opportunity to explore the participants' narratives within a structure that explained the nature of the

participants' narrative, where they situated themselves in the narrative using their 'I' and the participants' story in relation to themselves and others.

The first reading and listening generated themes identifying what experiences the participants had found difficult to talk about. The second reading and listening, focused in further on the participants' experiences in relation to their 'I' and 'self'. While cross checking themes that emerge at the first reading and listening I identified issues that could be incorporated into themes that had emerged in the second reading and listening. I used charts and colour coding to separate and log the different themes, the broad themes and the sub themes which made the process of identification easier. In the third and fourth reading and listening I focussed on the participants' narratives in relation to themselves and others and the psychoanalytical moments in the participants' narratives. The themes that arose from the third and fourth reading and listening were incorporated into the broader themes and subthemes that informed my research chapters and the discussion chapter in this thesis.

Now I turn to presenting my analysis of the interview conversations with the participants. I have developed three chapters to focus on three different main topics that emerged most strongly from these interviews. These are: difficulties professional doctoral students experience in the workplace, expectations and managing experiences in the supervision relationship, professional doctoral students' perspectives on support and reflections on their interview experience. In the chapter that follows, the first of the three analysis chapters, I present difficulties professional doctoral students experience in the workplace.

Chapter 5: Difficulties professional doctoral students experience in the workplace

5.1 Introduction

This chapter considers the data that contributes to answering the first research question: During the course of the thesis preparation, what difficulties do professional doctoral students face? In the sections that follow I draw on Winnicott's ideas and explain how they could be introduced into the supervision relationship. I describe the difficulties participants experience and their general experiences of conducting research in the workplace.

5.2 Difficulties

A topic that appeared to be particularly important for many of the participants was the relationship they had with the employers who paid their professional doctoral programme fees. These difficulties seemed to be influenced by the different expectations that the participants perceived their employers had about their research ideas and research direction. A similar pattern emerged in the participants' workplace relationships. The different roles which the participants had to negotiate simultaneously in the workplace for example, as colleagues, managers, subordinates and researchers, seemed to influence their professional relationships.

5.2.1 Employer funding

Some participants appeared to feel constrained when they perceived that there was a gap between the expectations of their funding body and the outcomes of their research. For example, Reese's professional doctoral programme fees were partly funded by his employer, a Further Education college, and he seemed to understand the employer's research requirements. However, at the drafting stage of the thesis, one of the difficulties that emerged for Reese seemed to be the realisation that his findings were in conflict with the employer's expectations,

I think one of the problems was that the college financed two thirds of the research so if they got a thesis that was attacking them that was definitely going to be a problem. I paid a third of it myself so that is when I expect it made it difficult to talk about. [Reese, lines 179-182]

The conflict in relation to Reese's findings and what he believed that his employer expected evoked a key question for him, "how critical can I be of this in the knowledge that my Principal is going to read this?" [Reese, lines 95-96].

Reese perceived that the findings from his research were secondary to the funding body's priority which was to gain revenue to keep the Further Education college open, as can be seen here,

Instead of treating...[Further Education] as a place where learners come first you treat it as a business that has to make money [Reese, lines 94-95].

Reese reported that this tension "was really quite difficult and I think in the end I did tone it [the thesis] down" [Reese, lines 96-97]. Reese's decision seems to be an example of what Winnicott (1965) terms as "forgo[ing] omnipotence [giving up perceived power] the gain being the place in society which can never be attained or maintained by the True Self alone" (p.143). A Winnicott (1965) analysis could suggest that Reese's study represented "omnipotence" (p.143) (power) as it contained findings which were likely to challenge the management of the college. Reese perceived that toning down his findings and therefore "forgo[ing] omnipotence" (Winnicott 1965, p.143) was worth the compromise, the gain being that he would maintain his place at the Further Education college. As he said "you could compromise your own position and you might not get anywhere anyway" [Reese, lines 287-288]. The idea "forgo[ing] omnipotence" (Winnicott 1965, p.143) could be useful for helping supervisees understand the potential power of their research findings and prepare them for researching in the workplace. It may also give the supervisor and the supervisee the tools to make decisions based on this developed understanding. For Reese, the opportunity to step back and make sense

of what seemed to be happening, however, did not appear to be available and therefore, the opportunity seemed to be lost.

Reese's response to Further Education research was very different when describing his emotional reactions to his participants,

I was quite emotionally attached to...the learning that was taking place...a lot of incredibly moving stories came out...things that I would never had known otherwise because people really opened up and they really spoke – some of them – their background and what they had gone through to actually go there and the fact that it was open all year was incredibly important to them because they were people that had been made redundant, and they go there because it gave them a structure to their lives and a purpose to their lives. [Reese, lines 98-106].

In this quote, Reese demonstrates that he sympathises with his participants and their needs. He also appreciates that the participants trusted him enough to tell him their stories. Reese's participants clearly had an effect on him and the emotional response he offers contrasts with the pragmatic tone of his response to his employer's expectations. The in-depth way Reese sympathised with his participants appears to reflect Winnicott's (2005) idea "creative apperception" (p.87) that is, a subjective experience that "more than anything else...makes the individual feel that life is worth living" (p.87). The term "apperception" (Winnicott 2005, p.87) on its own refers to "seeing oneself through being seen" (Abram 2007, p.240). Analysing Reese's sympathetic response within a Winnicott analysis could suggest that Reese sympathised with the participants' stories as they reflected, within a different context, his own struggles. Through Reese's sympathy, the participants seemed to experience "creative apperception" (Winnicott 2005, p.87) that is, they perceived that their stories were worth listening to.

Reese did not seem to be confident that he would receive the same level of sympathy from his employer as he said, "I knew that no matter how wonderful a case

I made it could just be over-riden you know and I think that's really sad" [Reese, lines 214-216]. Considering how supervisees difficulties can be discussed in the supervision relationship and taking this forward using the idea "creative apperception" (Winnicott 2005, p.87) could be useful. For example, if supervisees felt they could talk about their difficult experiences and be listened to and if supervisors responded sympathetically, they might feel valued.

In contrast to Reese's decision to tone down and, therefore, in his view to compromise his research, Ali decided that compromising her research was not an option even though all her professional doctoral programme fees were paid by her Higher Education employer. What appears to have become clear for Ali at an early stage in the research process was that her employer's expectations of her research were different from the direction in which her research seemed to be going. Ali said, for example, "I knew that there was disapproval from the quarters that were funding me through the research" [Ali, lines 20-21]. For Ali, her experience of disapproval appeared also, to come from her colleagues,

It was kind of frowned upon by the people I worked with so it was a difficult decision for me to make, to pursue the road and the type of research I wanted to do. [Ali, lines 17-18]

What seemed to be missing from Ali's story was how she knew for certain that her employer and colleagues disapproved of her ideas as there was no data to suggest that she had confirmed with them her perception of their disapproval. In other words, Ali did not appear to go through a process of what Winnicott (1953) refers to as, "reality-testing" (p.90). Perhaps they were not disapproving. The potential absence of Ali "reality-testing" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) her perception seemed to keep her in a maintaining cycle of disapproval and uncertainty as she said: "it's quite difficult to think about what I wanted to do and what other people wanted me to do" [Ali, lines 14-15]. For the supervision relationship, "reality-testing" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) could be a helpful way of highlighting the impact of perceptions and their influence on experience. For Ali, "reality-testing" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) the perception she had of her employer and colleagues in the supervision relationship may have been an effective way of realising what she needed to resolve in her workplace.

For Casey, receiving funding for a research project appeared to be a familiar experience: “partnership and getting funding for things and working with different bodies, I’m fairly used to” [Casey, lines 68-69]. Having doctoral education programme fees paid for by her employers however, seemed to evoke a different experience. Casey felt the need to protect her thesis,

I think it will be different because this is my baby, this is my doctorate, [names funding authority] might have paid for it but not done the work for it, it is my baby and I think I will be very precious about it” [Casey, lines 69-71].

Casey makes a strong case that the doctoral research is her responsibility, despite the doctoral programme fees being paid for by her employer and despite being aware that her employer is interested in the outcome of her research. Casey’s emotional response to her doctorate seems to echo what Winnicott (1953) terms as the “not-me possession” (p.89). That is, the infant’s capacity to recognize that this is me and this is my teddy (Winnicott 1953). In other words, although Casey had a strong emotional investment in her doctorate that she claimed as her possession, she was also able to acknowledge the implications this had in relation to her employer’s involvement. Casey seemed to be concerned that her employer’s involvement may cause a conflict as she said, “the ownership of the information – yes that might change...particularly if I am telling them things they don’t want to hear” [Casey, lines 73-75]. What may be useful to take forward and consider in a supervision discussion is how the supervisees’ emotional investment in their thesis influences the difficulties they may have with their employer in relation to sharing their investment. If Casey had been aware for example of how her internal world (me) was influencing her external world (not me) she may have been able to make sense of her internal conflict.

For Casey, it was important to keep all parties informed about the progress she was making in her research. Casey explained,

For instance I will meet with not only my supervisor, I have got my line manager and her manager above that is almost up to

the Director of Education so that I'm regularly in contact.
Saying this is what I'm doing, this is what I'm thinking of, this is
where I'm going..., any questions, any points, any
queries...and I will facilitate that... in order to make people...
feel involved. [Casey, lines 86-91]

Informing her line manager and her senior managers nonetheless, seemed to cause Casey concern, "if they tell me things that I don't want to hear I'll be raging" [Casey, line 95]. For Casey, involving her employers appeared to be her way of "reality-testing" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) her perception by engaging the workplace hierarchy in her research ideas.

A further concern seemed to relate to the potential conflict between her employer and the university where Casey was a professional doctoral candidate:

I am assuming...they're on my side. What if they're not?
What if they don't like each other? What if [university] they're
kind of em, she's our doctoral student but you're doing a bit of
work with her? ...What if the...business guys are like, well
actually we're not interested? [Casey, lines 96-99]

In Casey's quote she appears to be posing questions as a way of thinking about potential problems and outcomes in the relationship between herself, the university and her employer. What appears to underpin Casey's questions mirrors what Winnicott (2005) terms as "playing [that] is essentially satisfying" (p.70) and "in playing, and perhaps only in playing, the child or adult is free to be creative" (p.71). Analysing Casey's narrative from a Winnicott (2005) perspective suggests that Casey's experience of "playing" (Winnicott 2005, p.71) with the different scenarios and outcomes highlighted her fears about the relationship between herself, the university and her employer. Casey was concerned that the employer and the university may not be on her side or interested in her research. The practice of "playing" (Winnicott 2005, p.71) with questions seemed to be "essentially satisfying" (Winnicott 2005, p.70) as they created a space within which Casey could transition from thinking about possible outcomes to managing those outcomes. Casey

recognised that while potentially having to defend her ideas she needed to respect those of others, as she said, “I appreciate it (employer and universities’ view) but it’s mine and that’s what I think and that’s what I found out and this is what I know to be true, valid and authentic information” [Casey, lines 104-105]. The idea “playing” (Winnicott 2005, p.71) could be applied to creating an environment in the supervision relationship in which questions that emerge could be played with, dismantled and understood. The idea of “playing” (Winnicott 2005, p.71) with questions for Casey helped her express what she was finding difficult to talk about in the supervision relationship and make sense of those difficulties within an academic context.

5.2.2 Researching in the workplace

The participants’ roles as research students in the workplace had to be negotiated and seemed to be in conflict at times with their professional roles. For example, some participants appeared to find integrating their research role with already established roles difficult.

A conflict for Casey in her research role seemed to be influenced by her status in the workplace and her management style. Casey chose to include her colleagues in the research study and wanted them to “feel enthused” [Casey, line 215] by her research, but her decision was double edged. Although she wanted “it to be inclusive” [Casey, line 233], she also suggested that involvement was conditional:

But see really it’s mine (tone changes) and I don’t know – its mine this is – so I want everybody to be part of this wonderful world that I’m creating – it’s mine – so there’s a ring round it that you can only let people in so far. [Casey, lines 223-226]

The conditions seemed to create an internal conflict for Casey that represented an example of what Winnicott (1953) refers to as “the individual engaged in the perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet inter-related” (p.90). A Winnicott (1953) analysis could suggest that Casey was enthusiastic about including her colleagues in the research however her decision was in conflict with her emotional investment. For Casey, in her professional role as manager and

researcher, the “outer reality” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) appeared to be that she was choosing to involve her colleagues in her research process. However, the “inner...reality” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) for Casey seemed to be that she had an emotional investment in her ideas and appeared to need to protect those ideas. Supervision discussions could help to make sense of internal conflicts that occur and influence difficult experiences. A supervision discussion may have helped Casey understand why she wanted to protect her “inner...reality” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) and at the same time wanted to “inter-relate” (p.90) and be open to scrutiny and feedback.

The conflict that emerged for Ali in her research student and professional roles in the workplace seemed to relate to Ali’s professional development aspirations, identity, and her collegial friendships,

You’re looking to improve yourself, then it all gets tied up with your job and who you are...not only that but who your friendships are in the workplace. [Ali, lines 94-95]

For Ali the difficulties she experienced in the workplace appeared to arise when she perceived her colleagues, who had become friends, as disagreeing with the ideas that she was presenting as a research student,

If you have got friendships and if people kind of disrespect your work it actually becomes personal and you can’t believe that they would be thinking about you along those lines or whatever so it becomes about other things, employment, friendship as well as just the research, everything got tied in. [Ali, lines 97-100]

The realisation that her colleagues and friends were disapproving of some of her ideas appeared to have a deeply personal impact. Ali’s expectation that her colleagues and friends would support her ideas seems to reflect Winnicott’s (1953) idea “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (p.95) that is influenced by “the mother[’s]...adaptation [to] afford... the infant the opportunity for the *illusion* that her breast is part of the

infant...[and] under [the infant's] magical control" (p.94). In other words, the value of the infant's "omnipoten[t]...illusion" (Winnicott 1953, p.95) is that the infant experiences control. Ali's response to her colleagues and friends appears to suggest that she was under the "omnipoten[t]...illusion" (Winnicott 1953, p.95) that her colleagues and friends were "under...[her] magical control" (p.94) and would approve of her ideas. However, Ali's colleagues had their own views about her ideas which appeared to be disappointing for Ali as what she thought was real was not real. Discussing the nature of perception in relation to an "omnipoten[t]...illusion" (Winnicott 1953, p.95) in the supervision relationship could be useful for exploring supervisees' experiences that they perceive as difficult and the illusion that is may be influencing the difficulty.

In Dakota's role as manager he did not have a problem checking to see if his perceptions matched with the perceptions of others and said "for me...I have no problem with that, I am quite happy to question" [Dakota, lines 160-161]. However, when Dakota was in his research role in the workplace the experience of asking a specific participant questions was less comfortable. When Dakota was asked if the discomfort he experienced "related in any way to the fact that the participant was a senior manager?" [Margot, line 86] Dakota said, "probably" [Dakota, line 87]. For Dakota, interviewing a senior manager evoked a feeling of reticence,

One of my pilots was a fairly senior HR practitioner in the university, she's not the director but she's next down to that...she was quite good because she talked a lot but I felt very reticent at asking her a question. [Dakota, lines 80-83]

Dakota's response to the participant did not seem to make sense in view of the interviewee's positive responses. However, the feelings of reticence Dakota experienced seemed to indicate that beyond the more obvious power relational dynamic that is, senior and subordinate, there was a less visible dynamic being played out. Dakota's response appears to mirror Winnicott's (1965) idea "ego integration" (p.44) that happens during the stages of the "the holding phase" (p.46) and is a transition process from "dependence... towards independence" (p.46). Dakota seemed to struggle to reconcile his role as researcher with his professional

role when interviewing a senior manager. This implies that, for Dakota, at the early stage of his research, the data collection stage, “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44) was in the process of developing. Dakota was possibly less confident in his role as a researcher than he was in his role as a manager as he seemed to be in the learning stage of becoming a researcher when interviewing his participants. Ultimately the lack of “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44) at the data collection stage could have affected the success of Dakota’s research as he said,

I didn’t want to probe and know that’s what you should do as a researcher... that was my own inadequacy, own self esteem thing that was going on there and I felt really inadequate.

[Dakota, lines 83-85]

Using Winnicott’s (1965) ideas “the holding phase” (p.46) and “ego integration” (p.44) can help us to understand the transition from “dependence...towards independence” (p.46). For example, Dakota may have been able to understand and make sense of his feelings if he had contrasted his two roles. As a professional, he seemed to have developed “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44) and was therefore confident in this role. However, he had feelings of inadequacy and low self-esteem in his researcher role suggesting that “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44) had not yet developed.

5.3 Funding and researching in the workplace: summarising the evidence

In summary, the different responses some of the participants had to their employers appeared to be influenced by perception, self-esteem and fear. For example, it is important to note that, in both Ali and Reese’s case the employers’ expectations seemed to be based on their perceptions based on signals they believed they had received in the workplace. The participants’ choices appeared to influence different outcomes for example, Reese wanted to stay in work and therefore perceived he had to “forgo [his] omnipotence” (Winnicott 1965, p.143) that is, give up his perceived power to maintain his employment status in Further Education. Reese’s emotional response to his employer contrasted with the sympathetic response he

showed his participants which seemed to facilitate “creative apperception” (Winnicott 2005, p.87) in which the participants experienced being seen (Abram 2007) and therefore they felt able to tell Reese their stories. Reese’s sympathetic response to his participants’ difficulties indicated that their struggles affirmed his own difficult experiences. Two important terms that emerge through the idea “creative apperception” (Winnicott 2005, p.87) are sympathy and affirming, both could be advantageous in the supervision relationship for supporting professional doctoral students when they are finding experiences difficult to talk about.

Ali terminated her employment in Higher Education without “reality-testing” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) her perception that the employer disapproved of her ideas. The response of Ali’s colleagues to her ideas informed her decision to become self-funded. Ali’s research interest did not change but Ali did say “my life has taken a different turn” [Ali, line 37]. Ali explained that her choice to leave was influenced by the decision to take her thesis in the direction that she wanted it to go and to feel safe drawing unfavourable conclusions. In other words, Ali wanted to take up a position that she perceived was consistent with her ethics. The idea “reality-testing” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) could be useful in the supervision relationship for exploring the supervisees’ perceptions that underpin the difficulties they experience.

Casey’s transition from her inside world that is, the emotional investment in her doctorate to her outside world that is, recognition of the “not-me possession” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) and therefore her employer’s involvement, appeared to create internal conflict and reinforce Casey’s need to protect her doctorate. The idea “not-me possession” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) could be helpful in a supervision discussion for talking about how supervisees perceive their research as their possession or a piece of research that belongs to their employer, academic institution or community. Casey was also concerned about the relationship between herself, the university and her employer. In response to her concerns Casey appeared to “play” (Winnicott 2005, p.71) with questions as a way of alleviating her fear of potential conflict.

When researching in the workplace Casey appeared to be engaged in the “perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet inter-related” (Winnicott 1953, p.90). For example, Casey seemed keen to involve her colleagues in her

research and at the same time retain control “it’s mine” [Casey, line 223] to protect her research indicating the potential exclusion of her colleagues. The idea “perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet inter-related” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) could be used in a supervision discussion to help supervisees understand the research roles they have to consistently balance and negotiate in the workplace. That is, between subjectivity (perception) and objectivity (outside world).

Ali included her colleagues and friends in her research by presenting her initial ideas to them however the feedback from her colleagues was not what Ali expected. Ali defined her colleagues and friends feedback for example, as disapproval which seemed to undermine Ali’s “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) that she could control their opinions. In response, Ali decided to self-fund her study and exclude herself to go in a different direction. Understanding “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) could be useful to discuss in the supervision relationship in terms of the impact feedback has on professional doctoral students.

For Dakota, the transition from professional to research novice appeared to undermine his confidence as his decision not to probe participants too much in their research interviews evoked feelings of inadequacy and low self-worth. As a researcher for example, Dakota’s “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44.) seemed to be in transition from dependent researcher to independent researcher and expert. Dakota’s research ego appeared therefore, not to be as developed as his professional manager ego. The idea “ego integration” (Winnicott 1965, p.44) could be part of a supervision discussion about being an experienced manager in the workplace while becoming a novice researcher within which their ego recalibrates and begins a process of integrating new knowledge and skills.

5.4 Conclusions

The interviews with the professional doctoral students, who participated in this study, suggest that the majority of participants did not talk to their employers about their research concerns. Most of the participants perceived that they needed to protect their research from their employers who paid their doctoral programme fees. The need to protect their research appeared to be underpinned in the participants’

perceptions that their employers had expectations which their research may not fulfil. For one participant, having her fees paid seemed to be a positive experience and she appeared to have a productive relationship with her employers. In contrast, other participants seemed to experience the payment of their professional doctoral programme fees by their employers as difficult. The participants' relationship with their employers appeared to prompt difficult decisions for them.

A further theme which emerged in the data indicated that the participants found it difficult to manage the conflict between their research role and other roles that they had to maintain in the workplace. There is no indication in the interviews to suggest, however, that the participants talked to their doctoral supervisors about the difficulties they were experiencing. This may have been influenced by the research interview questions. I did not ask a direct question in relation to the participants' communication with their doctoral supervisors about the difficulties they experienced with their employers and in their role as research students in their workplace. The issue was uncovered as I did my analysis.

In the chapter that follows I will discuss the participants' expectations and how they manage their experiences in the supervision relationship.

Chapter 6 Expectations and managing experiences in the supervision relationship

6.1. Introduction

This chapter considers the data that contributes to answering the second research question: What are the expectations professional doctoral students have of the supervision relationship? Are these expectations met? I present this chapter in two sections and continue to draw on Winnicott's ideas and explain how they could be introduced into the supervision relationship. In the first part of the chapter I discuss the expectations the participants had of their supervision relationship and what informed their expectations. In the second part of the chapter, I discuss how the participants managed their experiences in the supervision relationship and the exclusion and inclusion of difficult experiences.

6.2 Expectations and the supervision relationship

In this section I will discuss the nature of the participants' different expectations and how these expectations influenced their supervision relationships. The nature of the participants' individual expectations seemed to be shaped by fear, a lack of confidence, early educational experience and their own professional practice.

6.2.1 Expectations shaped by fear

Casey developed a close academic relationship with her primary doctoral supervisor. After one year, Casey's doctoral supervisor retired and she was allocated a new doctoral supervisor. Casey seemed to make a point of talking to her new supervisor about her expectations,

By the time I'm submitting this I want to know whole heartedly
I'm submitting a grade one thesis that I'll get a gold star for
[Casey, lines 278-279].

Casey's need to be explicit about her expectations appeared to be underpinned in her concern that her expectations might not be fulfilled. Casey talked to her supervisor about research students who had failed. Through her laughing, Casey seemed to indicate that, if she failed, her supervisor would be culpable as she explained to him,

I was just having a discussion there with [doctoral supervisor] about people getting to the submission stage of their doctorate and then being told that they were going to fail and said to him, I'll kill you if that happens (laughing) - can we lay that on the table? [Casey, lines 275-278].

For Casey, being able to talk to her supervisor about the fear of failing her doctorate seemed to imply that she was experiencing what Winnicott (1965) refers to as "a holding environment" (p.47) that is, an emotional act in which "the good enough mother [supervisor] contains and manages the...[individual's] feelings and impulses by empathizing with...[her] and protecting...[her] from too many jarring experiences (Rafferty 2000, p.154). In the initial stage of the research process Casey expected her supervisor to respond to her threat in terms of ensuring she did not fail her doctorate. Casey's confident and authentic voice seemed to indicate that her supervision relationship was symbolic of "a holding environment" (Winnicott 1965, p.47) within which Casey could express her concerns and expectations. A "holding environment" (Winnicott 1965, p.47) could be a useful discussion at the initial research stage of the professional doctoral programme to understand how "a holding environment" (Winnicott 1965, p.47) can enhance the supervisee's research process and development. For Casey, understanding the idea of "a holding environment" (Winnicott 1965, p.47) within the context of her supervision relationship may have given her the confidence to dismantle the expectation she had of the supervisor and explore how it might have been influencing her research experience.

6.2.2 Expectation shaped by a lack of confidence

In contrast to Casey, Ali experienced a lack of confidence that seemed to prevent her from talking to her primary doctoral supervisor about her expectations of the doctoral supervision relationship. Ali explained,

It is quite difficult to talk about the lack of confidence so your kind of in this situation, you don't have the confidence, you don't want to bother your supervisor with it. [Ali, lines 69-70].

However, Ali did not appear to have the same lack of confidence with her peers,

The cohort I'm in, we do sit and we go I've got this problem with my supervisor or I'm worried about this at the moment or I'm stuck...when we meet. [Ali, lines 163-164]

The confidence Ali experienced when talking with her peers in her cohort seemed to be in stark contrast with the lack of confidence that she experienced when thinking about talking to her supervisor. Ali's decision to talk to her cohort about the difficulties she was experiencing relates to Winnicott's (1953) idea that in groups individuals "share a respect for *illusory experience*" (p.90), that is, the "illusion that what the [supervisee]... creates really exists" (Winnicott 1953, p.97). Analysing Ali's story from a Winnicott perspective suggests that Ali did not have the confidence to talk to her supervisor about the difficulties she was experiencing however she did feel confident talking to her cohort. The expectation that her cohort would "share a respect for *illusory experience*" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) was different to the expectation she had of her supervision relationship. Ali's expectation of the supervision relationship was that, "you kind of feel you're rattled because nobody is on your side so...I would say that's a difficult thing. It's a kind of rattle shake to your confidence" [Ali, lines 69-75]. Discussing Winnicott's (1953) idea of "share[d]... *illusory experience*" (p.90) could be a useful way of reminding supervisees that their "*illusory experience*" (p.90) might be a common experience. For Ali, if she had been able to talk about her "*illusory experience*" (Winnicott 1953, p.90) with her supervisor she may have noticed that her supervisor might have shared a similar experience.

6.2.3 Expectation shaped by early experience

Amari expected his doctoral supervisor to take responsibility for supporting and guiding him through the different stages of the research process. Amari's expectations appeared to be shaped by his early educational experiences as Amari said, "I grew up not questioning authority" [Amari, line 114] inferring that he had developed a deference that seemed to get in the way of him developing his own autonomous authority,

I loved school when I was five...you were a product of a certain...point in history where you behaved yourself, you did what the teacher [laughs] told you to do... you trust the structures. [Amari, lines 257-262]

Amari appeared to expect supervisors to emulate his early educational experience. For Amari, expecting that supervisors would frame their practice within the context of early learning seemed to be what Winnicott (1953) refers to as an "*illusion*" (p.96) that is, Amari's belief that what he created really existed and "*disillusionment*" (p.96) that is, when the "the world...and it's failures" (Bibby 2018, p.37) are realised. Amari's early educational experience was conditional: "there's almost a barter thing going on that if you work hard then the teachers will support you and you will do well and for me that was a given...and something that I have carried through life" [Amari, lines 258-266]. The conditions infer that Amari would take responsibility for complying and, in return, the teacher would take responsibility for the boundaries and structures that shaped the conditions. Amari seemed to be under the "*illusion*" (Winnicott 1953, p.96) that his early education conditions would apply to his supervision relationship and when he realised they did not apply Amari became "*disillusioned*" (Winnicott 1953, p.96). Amari's early educational conditioning seemed to define his expectation of the supervision relationship,

A supervisor is supposed to discuss with the doctoral student, advise the doctoral student [and] build some kind of relationship. [Amari, lines 67-69]. You should do it to the best of your ability, you should treat people well you should treat

people as...human beings, as you yourself would want to be treated. [Amari, lines 183-185]

Understanding the idea “*illusion-disillusionment*” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) within a supervision discussion could help professional doctoral students make sense of how their expectations influenced their “*disillusionment*” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) when those expectations are not met. For Amari, a supervision discussion about the “*illusion*” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) that his early educational experience would be mirrored in his supervision relationship may have given him insight into the nature of his expectations.

6.2.4 Expectation shaped by professional practice

Reese’s expectations resulted in a similar outcome to Amari’s but the nature of his expectations appeared to be different. For Reese, his doctoral supervision relationship did not seem to compare with the relationship he had with his students as a manager and a lecturer in Further Education. Reese sent a research proposal to the doctoral supervisor and he expected in the first doctoral supervision meeting that the supervisor would discuss his research and share his enthusiasm for it. However, he was soon disappointed,

It was clear within five minutes that [supervisor] hadn’t even looked at the proposal and I immediately felt that [the supervisor] didn’t have any genuine interest in the topic [Reese, lines 27-29].

Reese said he was “very upset” [Reese, line 29] that the supervisor had not read his work and did not share his enthusiasm. Reese’s expectations however, of his supervisor, seemed to be influenced by his own professional practice:

If you were to meet a student and the student wanted you to look at it [writing] in advance you would never have gone to the meeting without even having glanced at it [Reese, lines 55-57].

Reese's difficulty was further compounded by the doctoral supervisor's advice and suggestions who,

Recommended to me that I read [author and title of text]. So I went home and read the book and from the first page I realised I completely disagreed with just about everything because it was a very quantitative pseudo-scientific approach which didn't accord with my thinking at all and I thought what am I going to do here? [Reese, lines 31-34]

The expectation Reese had of his supervisor appeared to be informed by his own professional practice that is, as a Further Education supervisor. The nature of the supervision relationship however seemed to be different as Reese's supervision was within a professional doctoral research context. The main factor that seemed to be difficult for Reese was the supervisor's methodological approach which appeared to be in contrast with his own.

Reese and Amari chose to change their primary supervisors. Reese and Amari's accounts of their newly allocated doctoral supervisors however, suggested that their expectations were fulfilled and that their supervision needs had been met. The new supervision relationship seemed to provide what Winnicott (2005) refers to as "a potential space" (p.144). That is, a space that is dependent on trust "between baby and mother, between child and family, between individual and society or the world" (Winnicott 2005, p.139). The accounts Reese and Amari's gave of their new doctoral supervisors suggested that the new doctoral supervisors were providing a space within which their expectations could be met, underpinned in trust, creativity, development and play (Winnicott 2005). In this "potential space" (Winnicott 2005, p.144) Reese's expectation that his supervisor would read his work and be interested in his topic were met. Reese described his new doctoral supervisor as "sympathetic and supportive" [Reese, line 47]. For Amari, the expectation that his supervision relationship would reflect the early educational conditions he was used too was also met. Amari described his new doctoral supervisor as "absolutely wonderful" [Amari, line 166] and "naturally pleasant" [Amari, lines 166-167].

Introducing the idea “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) at the beginning stages of doctoral supervision could be effective for exploring the supervisors and the supervisees expectations of the supervision relationship. For Reese and Amari, being introduced to the idea “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) may have highlighted the expectations they had of the supervision relationship and also what the supervisor expected from them. The trust that underpins the idea “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) might then have been realised and the difficulties in the supervision relationships resolved.

6.3 Expectations and the supervision relationship: summarising the evidence

To summarise, the participants’ responses to the supervision relationship seemed to be underpinned in expectations. The participants’ expectations appeared to be shaped by different factors for example, their novice researcher role, their historical experiences and their professional practice.

Casey’s expectations seemed to be shaped by the fear that she would fail her doctorate. The deep emotional investment Casey had in her doctorate influenced her need to protect what she perceived as her ‘baby’. The force, with which Casey protected her doctorate that is, threatening to kill her supervisor in jest, indicated that she benefitted from the “holding environment” (Winnicott 1965, p.47) that seemed to underpin her supervision relationship. Casey’s supervisor set empathic boundaries that did not seem to be in response to her threat but in response to her feeling that her ‘baby’ (doctorate) was under threat. The supervisor’s “holding” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) of boundaries seemed to facilitate a space within which Casey could understand and make sense of her expectation and negotiate a way forward. The idea “holding” (Winnicott 1965, p.47) seems to be an important symbolic space for supervisors and supervisees to understand in order to know that the space exists and is useful for noticing when it becomes absent and needs to be re-negotiated.

Ali’s expectation of her supervision relationship and her lack of confidence seemed to inform her decision not to talk to her supervisor about the difficulties she was

experiencing. The “share[d]...respect for illusory experience” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) in her cohort seemed however, to give her the confidence to share her experience with them. Ali’s decision to talk about her difficulties outside of the supervision relationship implied that she had missed the opportunity to make sense of them within an academic context. The idea “share[d]...respect for illusory experience” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) could evoke a discussion in the supervision relationship about the supervisor’s experience of being a doctoral student in terms of their illusory experiences such as what they imagined a supervision relationship would be before their doctoral candidacy.

Amari’s expectations, that appeared to be influenced by his early education, seemed to be shaped by compliance. The nature of Amari’s early educational conditioning inferred that his expectations were underpinned in an either/or way of seeing the world rather than a slow transition from what he perceived the world to be (“*illusion*”) (Winnicott 1953, p.96) to discovering that there are failures and the world may not be what it seems (“*disillusionment*”) (p.96). Amari’s supervisor for example, did not meet his expectations and therefore he made the decision to find another supervisor. There was no data to suggest that Amari talked to his supervisor about his concerns and therefore the opportunity to explore his “*illusion*” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) and experience “*disillusionment*” (p.96) within the context of his supervision relationship was missed. The idea “*illusion-disillusionment*” (Winnicott 1953, p.96) could be applied in the supervision relationship as a way of noticing the perceptions that are real and those that evoke disillusionment and need extra attention.

The disappointment for Reese appeared to be underpinned in the expectation that his supervision relationship would reflect the relationship he had with his supervisees. However, this did not happen as Reese’s perception that his doctoral supervisor would be interested in his project and read his work, did not come to fruition. Consequently, Reese made the decision to find a new doctoral supervisor that would meet his expectations. Reese eventually found “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) in a supervision relationship and rebuilt his trust.

6.4 Managing experiences in the supervision relationship

The research interviews highlighted that the participants' emotions informed the management of their experiences in the supervision relationship. The data further indicated that participants managed their difficulties in the supervision relationship by either excluding or including their experiences.

6.4.1 Emotional issues

The participants' emotions, such as fear, lack of trust and powerlessness, appeared to influence the participants' difficulties. The participants' emotions were not always clear or easy to understand. Findley, talked about a plan of action, for example, for addressing her difficult doctoral student experiences. The plan appeared to be from an objective position,

For me a dilemma I would feel comfortable talking about would be an issue with a number of...clear options so that...in a way it is somewhat objective, it is out there, so that there are a number of courses of action...which are available and can be evaluated. Obviously, what I would find difficult to talk about is topics where the, me, my identity, my sense of self is part of the dilemma [Findley, lines 209-216].

The reference Findley makes to the emotional part of herself that is, "me, my identity, my sense of self" [Findley, line 216] seems to relate to Winnicott's (1965) idea "the True Self" (p.148) that is, within the context of Findley's experience, the part of herself that was "real" (p.148). A Winnicott analysis might suggest that Findley appeared to be comfortable with managing potential dilemmas objectively in terms of planning and structuring how to solve them. However, Findley found that talking about dilemmas that related to her "True Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.148) that is, her identity and her sense of self, was "more difficult" [Findley, line 215]. Understanding the idea of "the True Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.148) within the context of a supervision relationship might be useful for noticing when a supervisee's "True Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.148) is absent. The absence of "the True Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.148) could be an indication that a supervisee is finding an experience difficult to talk about. For

Findley, having a supervisor that noticed the less visible dynamics that is, the absence of her “True Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.148), may have helped her understand and make sense of why she found certain dilemmas difficult to talk about.

For Casey, fear appeared to be the emotional issue that underpinned the difficulties she experienced. For example, Casey seemed to be concerned that expressing conflicting views might have an impact on the supervision relationship,

[C] I don't know what would be the most difficult – you see being (laughing) a fairly communicative person... I know there will be bits that...I'm not happy to say. I think if I had to fall out with my supervisor, if there was any – I think that would be quite –

[M] What supervisor, the one academically or the one in your workplace?

[C] Any of them because personally I really love them...they're real mentors to me, they're friends to me. [Casey, lines 267-273].

Casey's fear of discord in her supervision relationships and other research relationships appears to be an example of what Winnicott refers to as a “transition from a state of being merged with the mother (supervisor) to a state of being in relation to the mother (supervisor) as something outside and separate” (Winnicott 2005, pp.19-20). Reflecting on Casey's narrative from a Winnicott perspective suggests that Casey had concerns about expressing her ideas as she perceived that they would be different from her colleagues and supervisors. Casey had become “[e]merged” (Winnicott 2005, p.19) in her research relationships as they were her friends. Therefore, saying something different and possibly “separate” (p.20) from what her friends perceived appeared to be a risk that could potentially create a difficult experience as Casey said “I'm thinking if there was real, real discord here I think that would be very troublesome” [Casey, lines 273-275]. Winnicott's (2005)

idea of “transition[ing] from a state of being merged with the...[supervisor] to a state of being in relation[ship]” (pp.19-20) with the supervisor and therefore separate could be a useful for noticing the less visible dynamics that are influencing change in the supervision relationship and in the supervisees’ research process. For Casey, the knowledge of this transition may have alleviated her concerns. Discussing the transition in her supervision relationship might have highlighted changes that were occurring in terms of Casey going from perceiving her supervisor as the expert to realising that she was becoming the expert.

Ali’s concerns were of a different nature to Casey’s. Ali experienced feeling powerless as a researcher in the workplace and this seemed to influence her decision to disclose only to those whom she trusted and to exclude others whom she did not trust. Ali seemed to be clear about the conditions under which she would talk about a difficulty. Ali explained,

It depends who I’m talking to... I could talk about any dilemma but only to people I suppose I trust or I think would understand where I’m coming from...if I had a dilemma and I thought it was mine...I wouldn’t share that with somebody I didn’t trust [Ali, lines 130-136].

Ali’s condition of trust seemed to be influenced by a fear that the ideas she had invested time in were being threatened. Ali’s ideas appeared to represent an example of what Winnicott (1965) refers to as “the central self” (p.46). That is, an “inherited potential which is experiencing a continuity of being” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) and which emerges during “the holding phase” (1965, p.46) and if perceived as threatened “constitutes a major anxiety” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). From Winnicott’s perspective the feelings of powerlessness Ali experienced in the workplace determined the conditions she set about who she would disclose information to and who she would exclude. The opportunity for feedback was therefore lost and for Ali, sharing information was dependent on those she trusted and those that understood her research position and supported her ideas. Ali’s lack of trust seemed to “constitute...a major anxiety” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) and a threat to Ali’s “central self” (p.46) as she said: “If you have a situation whereby you’re going down a road and

your studying in one direction and somebody disapproves of it, it becomes an issue of becoming powerless” [Ali, lines 50-51]. The nature of “the central self” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) could be introduced as an idea into the supervision relationship to help the supervisees understand anxiety that may occur before and when the supervisor gives them feedback. If Ali had been able to explore the impact difficult feedback had on her “central self” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) within a supervision context, Ali may have been able to recognise the type of feedback that caused her “major anxiety” (p.46) and distrust.

In contrast to Ali, Amari’s approach to his supervision relationship seemed to be influenced by his perception that his relationship with his supervisor would be a partnership of equals. Amari found it difficult therefore, to understand why the supervisor, for example, walked past and did not acknowledge him when waiting for doctoral supervision,

I was early so sat...outside her room and she [the doctoral supervisor] walked past me and didn’t acknowledge me...and that to me... it’s undermining... the doctoral student who’s clever, who’s an adult, who’s well educated, who’s well qualified but making that student aware of where the power lies within [the institution] [Amari, lines 131-136].

Amari required recognition and equal status in the supervision relationship and appeared to perceive (with some dissatisfaction) that his doctoral supervisor did not accord him sufficient recognition. However, Amari was also in the early stages of his research and therefore required his supervisor to also recognise what Winnicott (1965) refers to as his “absolute dependence” (p.46) on the supervisor. That is, the initial stage of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that “provides a sense of control, of being visible, valued, loved and cared for within an appropriate relationship” (Bibby 2018, p.36). Analysing Amari’s response within the context of Winnicott’s ideas suggests that Amari was a manager in charge of others and in a powerful position. Amari was therefore his supervisor’s equal within a professional context however, in his novice role as a professional doctoral student Amari was in a state of “absolute dependence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). Amari appeared to need

“holding” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) in his novice researcher dependent state and required his supervisor to project “a sense of control” (Bibby 2018, p.36) and “visib[ility]” (Bibby 2018, p.36). In other words, Amari needed a supervisor that was available, showed some care about his ideas and valued his research process. When these needs were not met Amari perceived that his supervisor was acting without fear of censure.

The first stage of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) could be useful for both supervisor and supervisee to talk about in the supervision relationship to establish that “absolute dependence” (p.46) is expected at the beginning of the research process. For Amari, if he had been allocated a supervisor who was prepared to acknowledge that he was both a professional and a novice researcher, Amari may have experienced being seen, cared for and valued.

Based on Amari’s experience of his allocated supervisor he decided to contact his supervisor’s manager. However, Amari’s need to look for a resolution by expressing his dissatisfaction of his doctoral supervisor to the doctoral supervisor’s manager did not seem to resolve his concern,

I still feel that her superior... and this is very difficult to say –
but perhaps is abusing her power by not being aware of what
was going on or not controlling or not using her powerful status
to keep an eye on that kind of relationship [Amari, lines 72-75]

For Amari, the difficulty did not appear to be, being part of a supervision relationship, it was being in a supervision relationship with a supervisor Amari perceived was not supervised herself. It is important to note that there was no data to indicate that the above participants explored issues of trust, fear or “absolute dependence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) with their peers or in their supervision relationships.

6.4.2 Managing difficult experiences

For participants, knowing the nature of their difficult experiences seemed to present different challenges.

Findley described her professional doctoral student experiences as sometimes “difficult to see your way out of” [Findley, line 290]. Findley seemed to perceive that talking about difficult experiences was dependent on being aware of the nature of the difficult experience. Findley’s attempt to discover the nature of the difficulties she was experiencing informed her decision to talk to professionals outside of her academic frame. For Findley, talking to other professionals that were not related to her research seemed to be a way of making sense of being “mired [and]...stuck” [Findley, line 291] in the research process in the hope that she would find a “strategy” [Findley, line 294] and become unstuck. However, the research interview was the first time Findley had considered the nature of her research experiences within an academic context,

I haven’t brought them all together, em, and spoken about them to anybody except in this interview actually...I have spoken to various different people with my different hats on but I haven’t spoken to anybody [pause] about the different demands [Findley, lines 186-190].

Findley’s decision to talk to different professionals outside of her academic support system seems to be an example of what Winnicott (1965) refers to as a “Caretaker Self” (p.142) that is, a “defensive function...to hide and protect the True Self, whatever that may be” (p.142). A Winnicott analysis could suggest that talking to a third party created an opportunity for Findley to become her own “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) as a way of avoiding further difficulties. Understanding the “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) and its “defensive function...to hide and protect the True Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) could be a useful tool for supervisors and supervisees. That is, in terms of the supervisor and supervisee noticing their own “Caretaker Sel[ves]” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) and what they were not communicating in the supervision relationship. Talking about the idea “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) in the supervision relationship may have helped Findley make sense of her decision to talk to a third party about the difficulties she was experiencing in her research process.

In a similar way to Findley, Reese chose to try and make sense of a difficult experience outside of a doctoral research context and the supervision relationship: “I didn’t want to go and talk to the professor (doctoral supervisor) before I knew what I wanted to say” [Reese, lines 157-158]. Reese’s “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) however, in this instance, seems to highlight the implication of a “defensive function to hide and protect the True Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) and why talking about difficult experiences within a supervision and academic context is more beneficial. Analysing Reese’s decision to exclude information from the supervision relationship within a Winnicott context would suggest that Reese’s choice influenced other areas of his life. Reese found that he was taking his difficulties home and expecting his family to resolve what was happening however, Reese realised that talking about his research at home was having a detrimental impact on his family life.

The impact of talking to his partner about his difficulties resulted in Reese experiencing an increase in frustration as his partner was unable to help him articulate and make sense of his difficulties, “I went home and unloaded it [difficult experience] on him but of course he couldn’t give any advice at all because he knew absolutely nothing about doing doctorates” [Reese, lines 155-166]. Providing a space in the supervision relationship to consider the implications of talking to family members about difficulties in the research process could be useful for opening up a discussion about choice. That is, the supervisees’ choice to defend themselves by becoming their own “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) or their choice to talk about their difficulties in the supervision relationship thereby containing their research experiences within a supervision context. For Reese, if he had realised in the supervision relationship that his “Caretaker Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.142) could have been influencing his decision to exclude his difficult experiences from his supervision relationship, Reese may have been able to explore why it was difficult to talk about his experiences in his supervision relationship.

Casey chose to include the difficult parts of her research experience in her supervision relationship as she perceived that “good supervisor will allow you to have both the tidiness and the messiness” [Casey, lines 611-613]. Casey’s willingness to take the risk of including the difficult as well as the good parts of her experience in her supervision relationship seems to be an example of what Winnicott

(2005) refers to as trust in a “potential space” (p.144) as without trust, “mistimed interpretation...[or] mistimed comment [can]... steal...’ a piece of the self” (Bibby 2018, p.71). Reflecting on Casey’s story from a Winnicott perspective suggests that Casey trusted the supervision relationship enough to take the risk of including all the different parts of her experiences when talking about her difficulties. Casey was aware that her professional doctoral student research was both “linear... and messy” [Casey, lines 607-608] and was determined to include the linear and messy parts of her experience although when reflecting Casey said: “I don’t know if threatening your supervisor... is a good thing” [Casey, lines 598-600]. Developing trust in the supervision relationship is another idea in relation to “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) that would be useful for supervisors and supervisees to consider in the initial stages of supervision. For Casey, trust developed in her supervision relationship and therefore “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144). However, if the idea of developing trust in the supervision relationship had been part of the initial supervision discussion Casey’s may not have felt the need to threaten her supervisor.

6.5 Managing experiences in the supervision relationship: summarising the evidence

To summarise, the data shows that the management of experiences in the supervision relationship is informed by the participants’ emotions such as fear, trust and feelings of powerlessness. A pattern across the data from the interviews relates to the less visible dynamics that influence the way the participants manage their experiences and exclude or include them in the supervision relationship.

Findley managed to think objectively about the difficulties she was having in her professional doctoral student role. The less visible dynamic however, that seemed to underpin Findley’s objectivity was the difficulty she had with being visible in relation to her sense of self and therefore her “True Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.148). Introducing the idea “True Self” (Winnicott 1965, p.148) into the initial stages of a supervision relationship might help supervisees express the difficulties that are influencing their professional doctoral student experience.

Casey was concerned about presenting her new ideas as her supervisor and research colleagues had become friends and may not have liked what they heard. The less visible dynamic seemed to be influenced by Casey finding her authoritative research voice in her “transition” (Winnicott 2005, p.19) from “being merged” (p.19) with her supervisor to “a state of being in relation[ship]” (p.20) with her supervisor “as something outside and separate” (p.20). A supervision discussion about a “transition from a state of being merged with the [supervisor]... to a state of being in relation[ship] to the [supervisor]...as something outside and separate” (Winnicott 2005, pp.19-20) would be useful. This knowledge may help supervisees understand their process of transition in the supervision relationship and give them the confidence to talk to their supervisors about the impact of this on their research experience.

The difficulties Ali experienced in her workplace with her colleagues appeared to influence Ali’s feeling of powerlessness. This emotion seemed to inform the condition Ali set that she would only talk to people she trusted. The less visible dynamic that underpinned Ali’s condition of trust seemed to be her fear that the recipient of her ideas would not understand the depth from which they emerged. That is, “a central self” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that if not understood might have “constitute[d]...major anxiety” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) for Ali. The introduction of this idea at the initial stage of the supervision relationship could be useful for identifying supervisees’ anxieties either about the supervision relationship or the research process. This might help supervisees to understand their anxiety within an academic context and inform what they need to do next.

Amari’s difficulty appeared to be related to the lack of recognition by his supervisor of Amari’s equal professional status while at the same time being dependent on the supervisor as a research novice. Further, Amari did not have a difficulty with being part of a supervision relationship but did have a difficulty with a supervisor he perceived as not being supervised. What Amari seemed to require from his doctoral supervisor at the “absolute dependence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) stage of his supervision relationship was recognition, care and a sense that he was valued. Amari’s difficult experience highlights how important it is to understand the idea “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) for supervisors and supervisees and within the

context of Amari's story, the "absolute dependence" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) stage. This idea is a useful guide for noticing and negotiating changes and developments happening in the supervision relationship to ensure a good and productive professional doctoral research experience for the supervisee. The idea "absolute dependence" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) might help supervisees know what to expect at the beginning of the supervision relationship.

Episodes that surfaced related to some of the participants talking about their professional doctoral student experiences with other professionals and family members outside of the doctoral supervision relationship. Findley's difficulty was finding her way out of feeling stuck in the research process. Findley made the decision to talk to professionals outside of her supervision relationship about the difficulties she was experiencing. The less visible dynamic seemed to be that Findley perceived talking to professionals outside of an academic context was safer than talking about her difficulties in the supervision relationship. Findley therefore became her own "Caretaker Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.142) as a defence against further difficulties. The "Caretaker Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.142) could be a useful idea to discuss in supervision in terms of identifying defence mechanisms and their influence on the supervision relationship and research process.

Reese's difficulty was reinforced by his decision to talk to family members as a way of making sense of his experience before talking to his supervisor. Reese's decision to be his own "Caretaker Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.142) that is, to talk to his family instead of his supervisor ironically meant that he was not taking care of himself. Reese therefore ended up frustrated with no support to make sense of his difficulties within an academic environment. Reese's experience highlights an implication of the "Caretaker Self" (Winnicott 1965, p.142) and why it is important for supervisors to understand the idea and how it can prevent supervisees from receiving the support they need.

Casey made the decision to include the good and messy parts of her experiences in her supervision relationship. The less visible dynamic that seemed to inform Casey's decision appeared to relate to the trust she had in her supervisor. In this "potential space" (Winnicott 2005, p.144) (relationship) Casey could be herself

without concern for “mistimed interpretation...mistimed comment” and having a “piece of herself” (p.2005, p.71) stolen. The idea “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) could be useful for supervisors and supervisees to discuss at the initial stage of the supervision relationship as a starting point for developing trust and therefore negotiating a potential space.

6.6 Conclusions

The professional doctoral students’ research interviews suggest that the participants’ perceptions of their doctoral supervision were influenced by different expectations. For example, one participant seemed to expect that a supervisor’s role was to facilitate a doctoral candidate’s successful thesis submission and to be responsible for the supervision relationship. Another expected that either the supervisor would be troubled by any difficult experiences the supervisee might present in supervision or would challenge the supervisee’s research ideas. For two participants, the choice to change their supervisor indicated that their expectations of their initial supervisors had been unfulfilled. The two participants experienced their new supervisors as being able to meet their doctoral supervision and research needs.

The management of professional doctoral student experiences are informed by emotional issues such as an individual’s sense of self, transition from being merged with the supervisor to being in relationship and separate, anxiety and dependence on the supervisor. The management of difficult experiences are informed by defence mechanisms to avoid difficulties that may create further difficulties. Trust in the supervision relationship indicates that good and messy experiences are included and talked about in supervision.

In the chapter that follows I consider the professional doctoral students’ perspectives and reflections.

Chapter 7: Professional doctoral students' perspectives on support and reflections on their interview experience

7.1 Introduction

This chapter considers the data that contributes to answering the third research question: What support might enhance professional doctoral students' experience with regard to discussing difficulties in the supervision relationship? Although I recognise that doctoral supervision can be an effective form of doctoral support, the data suggests that there are additional forms of support that could be introduced. I have identified the need for a space in which professional doctoral students can express and make sense of the emotions related to research experiences they find difficult to talk about. In this chapter I will present the data in two sections and I will continue to draw on Winnicott's ideas and explain how they could be introduced into the supervision relationship. In the first part of this chapter, I describe the participants' perspective on valuable forms of additional support. In the second part of this chapter, I highlight the participants' reflections on the research interviews that I conducted for this thesis and what they learnt from their interviews.

7.2 Perspectives on additional support

An unexpected theme that emerged in the data related to the participants' perspectives on additional support beyond their doctoral supervision relationship. The need for additional support linked to issues such as, emotional struggles, personal experiences, isolation and conflict.

7.2.1 Individual perspectives

The participants' need for support seemed to vary according to their understanding of the role of their doctoral supervisor, their feelings of isolation and their ability or willingness to articulate their needs. For Ali, while she indicated support needs, she seemed to be confident in asking for what she required. Ali perceived doctoral supervision as an opportunity to talk about her research project and to make

academic progress. For Ali, the goal was to “get on with the business of my supervision” [Ali, line 188]. Ali’s determination to get on with business in doctoral supervision appeared to meet her academic needs. However, Ali perceived that additional support from an academic outside of the doctoral supervision relationship may have been helpful in terms of the difficulties she was experiencing,

My supervision doesn’t necessarily include pastoral care, it has I’m afraid [laughing] for me...a couple of times, and I kind of regret that in a way, it would be nice for maybe your course leader or somebody to say come and have a word [Ali, lines 188-191].

Ali’s perspective on additional support seems to be an example of what Winnicott (1965) refers to as the second stage of the “holding phase...relative dependence” (p.46). This stage of “holding can be done well by someone who has no intellectual knowledge of what is going on” (Winnicott 1986, p.28) for Ali but can offer her the support she needs. A Winnicott (1965) analysis would suggest that for Ali, the professional doctoral student process appeared to be difficult at times. However, Ali did not seem to perceive doctoral supervision as a space that would accommodate the emotional support she required. Ali’s perception of supervision indicated that she wanted to get on with talking about her research. However, Ali was aware that she needed additional support such as pastoral care with someone who didn’t necessarily know her but who would say: “how’s it going for you” [Ali, line 179]. The requirement for additional support seemed to be influenced by what Ali was experiencing personally and academically as part of the research process. For Ali having someone to talk to with the “capacity to identify [and]...know what [Ali was]...feeling like” (Winnicott 1986, p.28) outside the doctoral supervision relationship once or twice a year “would [have] been really useful” [Ali, line 217]. Ali said,

You kind of struggle...but I think that is different from somebody just going...how you doing? And I mean they might get more than they bargained for, tears and all the rest of it [Ali, lines 199-200].

The second stage of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46), “relative dependence” (p.46), could be useful in a doctoral supervision discussion for exploring what the supervisees need from the doctoral supervisor. The doctoral supervisor may then be able to provide a space that the supervisees require to resolve the difficulties they perceive as belonging outside the supervision relationship. For Ali, having a doctoral supervisor that can “*hold*” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) a “relative depend[ent]” (p.45) space may have encouraged her to focus on the academic context that seemed to underpin the experiences she was finding difficult to talk about.

Reese’s concern seemed to be about the uncertain nature of his doctoral supervisor’s role at the point of transition from the taught component of the professional doctoral programme to the independent research stage,

I feel that the University should maybe make clearer exactly what supervisors roles are...and what you can expect. [Reese, lines 433-434].

The uncertain nature of his doctoral supervisor’s role appeared to influence the isolation Reese experienced that began for Reese when the on-line communication with his cohort came to an end: “we all went to do our research [and] you never heard from anybody ever again” [Reese, line 466]. The lack of contact with peers and the uncertainty about what to expect from his doctoral supervisor motivated Reese’s need for additional support,

I think it would be an opportunity to talk to someone who isn’t actually part of the process...but understands it because they’re within it as well [Reese, lines 460-462]

For Reese, the opportunity to transition through “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) in the supervision relationship, from “absolute dependence [to]...relative dependence...towards independence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) seemed to be missed. Analysing Reese’s experience within a Winnicott (1965) frame would suggest that missing out on the opportunity to transition through the different stages of his

research process undermined the potential for Reese's research productivity. The absence of a supervision relationship influenced the uncertainty and isolation Reese experienced in his research role. This seemed to inform Reese's requirement for additional support outside of the supervision relationship to confirm his "existence" (Winnicott 2005, p.135) as a research student and to get a sense of what was happening for him academically as he said: "I was extremely isolated and sometimes I would read the thesis...and think this is absolute rubbish [laughs]" [Reese, lines 464-465]. The feelings of uncertainty Reese appeared to be articulating about the standard of his work seemed to reinforce his experience of loneliness: "and other times I would read it and think maybe it's not so bad after all but it was a lonely process" [Reese, lines 462-466]. This experience seemed to further contribute to his difficulties. The idea, "the holding phase" (Winnicott 1965, p.46) may be useful for doctoral supervisors to consider in doctoral supervision training and in the doctoral supervision relationship so as to highlight the less visible transition stages supervisees go through in the research process. Reese's perception of his doctoral supervisor may have been different if he had known what to expect as he would have been informed and therefore in a position to question what was happening at the time.

For Findley, the experience of isolation seemed to be influenced by taking several breaks from the professional doctoral programme. The breaks and the competing demands Findley experienced seemed to have distanced Findley from contact with her initial peer group and other cohorts that she went on to join. For Findley, the purpose of a peer group, she explained, was,

Not necessarily for [pause] anything more than having a reference point and understanding that everybody faces different dilemmas [sigh] of different magnitude [Findley, lines 254-248].

Drawing on a Winnicott analysis Findley had to take breaks throughout her professional doctoral student candidacy which prevented her from establishing consistent research relationships. Findley became disengaged with the research process and appeared to be searching for a reference point in the research

community with which to re-engage. The support Findley perceived would be helpful was: “somebody with experience and I know that in research terms you think supervisor but actually that is not what I am really referring to” [Findley, lines 302-308]. For Findley, there seemed to be an absence of what Winnicott (1953) refers to as “transitional phenomena” (p.89). That is, “an area between [Findley’s] inner reality [and a] shared reality of the world” (Winnicott 2005, p.86) symbolic of a relationship and within the context of Findley’s world, the research relationship.

Using the idea, “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) as a tool to understand the less visible dynamics in the doctoral supervision relationship could help supervisors understand the supervisees’ “inability and growing [research] ability” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) to engage with the research process. For Findley, having a doctoral supervisor that understood the idea “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) may have helped her re-engage with the research community and understand how she had become disengaged.

Amari perceived “support networks” [Amari, line 314] as an important source of professional doctoral student support. An additional support that Amari indicated would be useful was conflict resolution,

It’s almost like a kind of conflict resolver...then that person may not ever be used throughout the three or four years...but some kind of advisor that you could just go to for advice [Amari, lines 335-337].

Amari’s perspective on support indicates that his interest was in resolving a conflict. This appears to be an example of Winnicott’s (1965) notion of “reparation” (p.77). That is, “A willingness to recognise a state of ambivalence, of being able to tolerate the paradoxical realisation that both good and bad exist together in others as well as in ourselves” (Bibby 2018, pp.112-113). A Winnicott analysis would suggest that Amari’s perception of support was underpinned in his belief that the “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) of a conflict using a third person would help resolve a difficulty. The less visible dynamic seemed to be Amari’s willingness to recognise his part in a conflict and wish to “repair” (Bibby 2018, p.113) difficulties that had

occurred in relationship to other. Amari seemed to realise that his need to resolve conflict was because: “no matter how at ease you are with the educational process...it might not always work out the way you expect” [Amari, lines 314-316]. The idea “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) could be useful in doctoral supervision discussions about conflict in the doctoral supervision relationship and other research relationships that are influencing the difficulties doctoral supervisees are experiencing. If the idea “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) had been discussed in Amari’s supervision relationship he may not have perceived that he needed to resolve the conflict he was experiencing outside of his doctoral supervision space.

7.3 Perspectives on additional support: summarising the evidence

Data from the interviews with professional doctoral students indicates that the majority of participants perceived pastoral care and peer groups as a potential additional support to doctoral supervision. Most of the participants did not perceive doctoral supervision as accommodating their support needs.

Ali perceived the supervision relationship as a space to sort out research business. The less visible dynamics that underpinned Ali’s perspective on additional support however, seemed to indicate that Ali required a “holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) provided by a supervisor she could be “relative[ly] dependen[t]” (p.46) on in terms of understanding her professional doctoral student difficulties. Reese appeared to experience uncertainty and isolation from the moment he started his research project indicating that he missed an opportunity to transition through stages of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that is, from “absolute dependence...[to] relative dependence...towards independence” (p.46) in his supervision relationship. Reese’s difficult supervision relationship experience seemed to inform his perspective on requiring additional support that is, to have someone to talk to about his research and the isolating experience he was going through.

A doctoral supervision discussion about “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) could be useful at the initial stage of the supervision process. That is, for highlighting the stages of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) supervisees may transition through in their supervision relationships. For the supervisees, recognising the different stages of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) may give them permission to be dependent in the initial phase of their research and not think that they should know everything.

Findley had to take several breaks during her professional doctoral studies. The breaks interrupted Findley’s relationship with her peer group and Findley became isolated and disengaged from the research community. Findley did not appear to have an opportunity therefore to “share [the] reality of [her] world” (Winnicott 2005, p.86) which resulted in feelings of isolation. The support Findley required was engagement and an academic reference point. Introducing the idea “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) into the doctoral supervision relationship could be beneficial for reminding supervisors and supervisees about the nature of a supervision relationship. For Winnicott (1964) “an [individual]... cannot exist alone, but is essentially part of a relationship” (p.88). This indicates that without a doctoral supervision relationship there is no “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) and therefore no research relationship with which the supervisee can engage.

Amari’s perspective on additional support appeared to be informed by his need for “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) as what he required was conflict resolution. Amari’s requirement indicated that he perceived conflict as his responsibility as much as it was the other (Bibby 2018). However, using a third party to facilitate the “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) process suggested that Amari did not perceive the supervision relationship as a space within which he could resolve his conflict. The idea of “reparation” (Winnicott 1965, p.77) could be used in a supervision discussion in the initial stages of supervision to establish that conflict and “reparation” (p.77) could potentially be resolved openly and honestly. That is, within the supervision relationship with an option of including a third party if necessary. This may provide an opportunity for the doctoral supervisee to stay engaged in the supervision relationship and move forward within an academic context.

7.4 Participant reflections on what they learnt from their research interview

In the final set of research interview questions, I asked the participants to reflect on what they had experienced as interviewees in the interviews that I had conducted with them for this thesis. The purpose of exploring the participants' research interview experiences was to identify enhancing support factors, which might have emerged in the research interview process that potentially could be applied within a doctoral supervision context. One finding that emerged from the data, related to the participants' realisation that they had not considered their professional doctoral student experiences in depth before the research interview. Nevertheless, the participants appeared to be comfortable talking about their experiences which may have been influenced by their own recent experiences of conducting research interviews.

7.4.1 Individual reflections

Dakota realised in the research interview that there were experiences which he had not spoken about or considered before the interview. Dakota appeared surprised and interested in relation to answering questions in a participant role rather than the other way around,

When you do have a situation like this you do reflect a lot more in depth than you expect to do because obviously I looked at the questions and...I did have a problem because I thought I don't think I've had dilemmas and the only one I could really think about was the transcription one but it's interesting that along the way that's come out of it. So that's really interesting and it's back to what I like to do anyway which is to reflect and learn from all experiences. [Dakota, lines 315-320].

The learning process, which Dakota describes in relation to the research interview, seemed to be an important factor. Dakota considered the impact of what he had learnt from the research interview,

Okay I thought of a lot of things but I've looked at things in a slightly different way and I think that's what this whole doctorate things all about and that is what has been most enjoyable right from day one really. [Dakota, lines 329-331]

Dakota's description of the research interview appears to reflect Winnicott's (2005) idea of the "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67). That is, a space within which "the feeling of meaningfulness" (Winnicott 1986, p.50) can be captured. Analysing Dakota's response to the research interview within a Winnicott (2005) perspective indicated that Dakota was shocked by his response to the questions because he did not realise that he had an experience to talk about other than transcribing. Dakota indicated that the research interview was a "meaningful" (Winnicott 1986, p.50) and enjoyable "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67) as he said: "I've learned far more and different things than I thought I would do which I've been really enthused about" [Dakota, lines 332-333]. Talking about the idea "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67) within a supervision discussion could be used to make sense of what it means for the supervisor and the supervisee so that assumptions can be shared and a mutual meaning agreed. Having a set time and an interview space with a researcher who asked structured questions and listened to his narrative seemed to facilitate Dakota's decision to talk about the good and messy parts of his professional doctoral student experiences.

Reese's response to the research interview seemed to be of relief that he had the opportunity to talk about the difficulties he had experienced as a professional doctoral student,

I think it has been a very positive experience, I think it has been really interesting to talk about these questions that I haven't talked about before and it's been a good opportunity to share my feelings about it...but I've actually enjoyed the interview.
[Reese, lines 454-457]

Reese realised, when reflecting on the research interview, that the difficulties he had experienced as a professional doctoral student had enhanced his learning and

contributed to his sense of satisfaction when he had completed his doctorate. Reese explained,

I'm really glad I did the doctorate despite the...the frustration and various things at the college...I felt so pleased when I managed to complete" [Reese lines 473-474].

In contrast to Findley's experience discussed earlier in the chapter, the mixture of emotions and realisations Reese expressed in his research interview seemed to reflect what Winnicott (2005) claims "we experience [in] life in the area of transitional phenomena, in the exciting interweave of subjectivity and objective observation" (p.86). A Winnicott analysis would suggest that the research interview relationship was symbolic of "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) that is, a space where Reese could talk about his difficult experiences that he had not talked about before. The research interview relationship appeared to facilitate an opportunity for Reese to express what he had learnt from talking about the difficulties (objective observation) he had experienced as a professional doctoral student. Having the space to talk about the difficult and good parts of his experience seemed to evoke Reese's appreciation for the doctoral process he had been through despite the difficulties he had experienced along the way as he said: "I don't know at the beginning whether I would have done it [pause] I think I probably would actually to be honest" [Reese, lines 47-477]. Introducing the idea "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) into a supervision discussion at the initial stage of the supervision relationship may help supervisors and supervisees be vigilant about becoming disengaged with the supervision relationship. They will then be in a position to negotiate a way forward if both parties find that they are disengaging with each other.

For Ali, reflecting on her research interview was a positive emotional experience which she described as "quite sore... [due to] some of the things that have happened" [Ali, lines 172-173]. A Winnicott analysis could suggest that the research interview relationship, that is, "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) appeared to enable Ali to think about the experiences she had encountered as a research student as typically for Ali, she would "just keep those things at bay" [Ali,

line 221]. The research interview seemed to facilitate a space within which Ali could reflect on what she had learnt as she explained “interviews [are] probably quite useful for the student to stop and think... because you’re busy and kind of getting on with things” [Ali, lines 175-176]. Imagining the supervision relationship as “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott, 1953, p.89) could be all a supervisor and a supervisee need to do as this reimagining may open a non-prescriptive opportunity in the supervision relationship for something new to emerge.

Findley explained that the research questions that I asked in the research interview were “quite a deep force, [and]...certainly as a participant they forced you to think deeply... and so actually I’ll walk out of this room and I’ll take something out of this” [Findley, lines 338-340]. As in Dakota, Reese, and Ali’s research interviews, the research interview relationship that is “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) seemed to facilitate a safe space within which Findley could express her thoughts and feelings,

I think in terms of the interview itself, although I was a little bit emotional at one or two points, that wasn’t a difficult thing, it was an expression in the same way that I speak, it was just an expression of how I was feeling, how I was responding to thinking about the quite deep questions that you have posed. But I found the interview to be a very interesting experience and very comfortably conducted [Findley, lines 341-346].

Findley’s reflections on the research interview suggested that speaking about her research process evoked an unexpected emotional response.

In a similar way to Findley, the research interview relationship provided a safe space for Amari to talk in depth about his experience of the research interview,

I think the questions have been very insightful and its em perhaps em – it’s perhaps tugged at a cord with me and it’s allowed me to talk about something that has been very difficult

em for me to experience and certainly to talk about...I mean I didn't talk about this with close friends. [Amari, lines 355-358].

Amari then began to question the nature of his own perceptions,

It's been very helpful, it's been very helpful just for me to think, to have time to think about how that connects to deeply held beliefs or em I don't know, I suppose codes of ethics that I have or is that just being judgemental, is that another way of being judgemental I don't know...? [Amari, lines 363-366]

The research interview relationship appeared to facilitate the "exciting interweave" (Winnicott 2005, p.87) between Amari's "subjective [experience and]...objective observation" (p.87) as mentioned earlier within the context of Reese's narrative. In other words, Amari was able to dismantle his experience subjectively and "objectively observe" (Winnicott 2005, p.87) the connection between his perception (deeply held beliefs) and the impact of his perception (judgemental self).

There was a similar occurrence in Casey's narrative as she seemed to be able to express her "subjective" (Winnicott 2005, p.86) experience, "I've certainly focused and it was very worthwhile and I know when I go away and think about it I'll be like, that was good" [Casey, lines 551-552]. Further, Casey expressed her objective experience, as she said: "I think at this stage in the research and going forward, it will make me more aware of – what am I gonna do about that, who do I talk to about that?" [Casey, lines 551-554]. Casey's response to the research interview was "magic [laughing]" [Casey, line 542] and "I think it's been great, it's good to talk about these things" [Casey, line 542]. The research interview relationship that contributed to Dakota, Ali, Reese, Findley, Amari and Casey's interview experience seemed to facilitate a space within which the participants could be comfortable, open and honest about the experiences that they had encountered. Using the idea "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) to create a space in the supervision relationship could be useful, as highlighted through this section, for promoting professional doctoral student learning in relation to self and other and for discussing

how the learning can contribute to the professional doctoral research students' academic context.

7.5 Participant reflections on what they learnt from their interview: summarising the evidence

In summary, the participants' reflections focused on what they had learnt from their respective research interview experiences and what they were going to take forward. However, the participants were active researchers themselves and, therefore, may have approached the interview as an event from which they could learn. All the participants seemed to enjoy the opportunity to talk and this appears to be a reminder that professional doctoral students need to talk through their experiences.

The research interview seemed to be a surprise for Dakota and an enjoyable "meaningful" (Winnicott 1986, p.50) "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67) within which he appeared to learn and to talk about experiences that he had not spoken about before. The idea "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67) could be useful in a supervision discussion to explore creatively the experiences supervisees might find difficult to talk about in supervision. A discussion understood within the context of "creative experience" (Winnicott 2005, p.67) could bring meaning to the supervisees' experiences and the difficulties that influence the experience.

Reese experienced the research interview as enjoyable and interesting as the research interview relationship that is "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) appeared to facilitate a space in which he could talk about the good and difficult parts of his experiences that he had not spoken about before. Talking through all the parts of his experiences seemed to evoke an opportunity for Reese to appreciate his achievements. A "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) exists in relation to other and therefore could be a useful tool for noticing moments of disengagement in the supervision relationship.

The idea "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) seemed to underpin the participants' research interviews. In this space Ali reflected on the experiences she

had not typically talked about before. Findley talked in depth about the emotional impact the research process had on her disengagement with her peers and research community. Dakota, although surprised at how he responded in the interview, talked about the research interview as a learning experience. Amari was able to consider his subjective experiences and objectively observe their impact and Casey thought about what she had learnt from her interview experience and how she could input her learning into her overall research experience.

7.6 Conclusions:

The participants' perspectives on additional support indicated that their support needs were not being met in the supervision relationship. Ali required someone who understood her experience of professional doctoral student research. Reese needed someone to talk to about the research process and the isolation he was experiencing as a professional doctoral student. Findley had become disengaged and needed to engage with the research community again and Amari needed a third party for conflict resolution. Most of the participants perceived their research interviews as enjoyable, interesting and a learning experience and most of the participants talked about experiences that they had not talked about before. The idea "transitional phenomena" (Winnicott 1953, p.89) underpinned the research interview relationship and seemed to be the predominant influence that framed the participants' research interview experience and learning.

There were previous concerns that my professional practice as a counsellor and psychotherapist would compromise my role as a professional doctoral student researcher. However, the participants appeared to regard their interviews as being a useful experience. The interview did not seem to compromise them in any way and they did not express any concerns about the way the research interview was conducted. The focus on professional doctoral student experiences, which the participants found difficult to talk about, appeared to be a positive feature of the interview for these participants.

I am not suggesting that supervisors have the time to offer in-depth one-hour long supervisions to their supervisees however I am suggesting that Winnicott's ideas

could help supervisors and supervisees notice the less visible dynamics that influence the doctoral supervision relationship.

In the next chapter, I discuss my findings from chapters five, six and seven.

Chapter 8 Discussion

8.1 Introduction:

This chapter brings together findings from chapters five, six and seven. I use Winnicott's ideas to explain the nature of professional doctoral student difficulties. In response to the first research question, I discuss the wider doctoral education issues that have an impact on professional doctoral student experience in the workplace. In response to the second research question I discuss the supervision relationship within a broader context and then focus on the professional doctoral students' expectations of the supervision relationship and management of their experience in the supervision relationship. In response to the third research question, I discuss wider issues of professional doctoral student support and then focus on the professional doctoral students' perspectives on additional support and what they learnt from the research interview relationship.

8.2 Responding to the first research question:

During the course of the thesis preparation, what difficulties do professional doctoral students face?

8.2.1 Knowledge economy and its impact on professional doctoral education

The development of the knowledge economy (Kot and Hendel 2012) that has been dictated by a growing global competitive market (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development 2014) has contributed to the changes in doctoral education over the last two decades (Gill 2009). In the United Kingdom for example, there has been an expectation that "*researchers' transferable knowledge and skills in collaboration "with the public, business, government and the third sector"*" (Research Councils 2013, p.1) will contribute to a growth in the economy. Further, that the knowledge generated from professional doctoral research is incorporated into industry (Neumann 2005, Kumar and Dawson 2013). The link between knowledge

economy, Higher Education and professional communities (Costley 2013) reflects a need for universities to adapt (The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2014). These changes account for why employers support and fund their employees' professional doctoral programme fees (Usher 2002). Knowledge economy also accounts for the high expectations employers in industry and professional communities have of professional doctoral students in relation to confidence, professional profile, growth of professional responsibility and increased participation (Kumar and Dawson 2013). The impact of being afforded these attributes is reflected in the difficulties professional doctoral students have in the workplace in relation to employer funding and researching in the workplace.

My findings show that the professional doctoral students perceive that their employers have an expectation of their research ideas and are interested in the outcomes. However, a difficult experience for Reese related to the gap between the employer's expectation of his research and the data being generated from his research. Reese perceived that he needed to tone down his research and compromise his position to maintain his employment in Further Education. There was no data however to suggest that Reese had talked about the difficulties he was experiencing with his employer or supervisor. The findings also showed that perceptions professional doctoral students had in relation to their employer were difficult to talk about. Ali's perception was that the ideas emerging from her research process were conflicting with her employer's expectation of the research outcomes. Ali chose to leave her employment and become self-funded to hold on to her values and the direction she wanted to go in. As in Reese's narrative however, there was no data to indicate that Ali had spoken to her employer about her perception or the impact it was having on her research role. Ali therefore did not know if her perception was real or not real (Winnicott 2005). The expectations and perceptions that shaped Reese and Ali's difficult experiences and the decisions they made appeared to be influenced by a wider and less visible context.

What is interesting for me here is that the process of doing a professional doctorate, that institutions invest in, can actually have a detrimental effect in terms of the students' loyalty and affiliation to the contributing institution. In other words, the knowledge economy is not necessarily compliant – there are risks in educating your

workforce. Taking the professional doctoral students' difficulties into account, I think it is important to understand them within the context of knowledge economy and what is expected of professional doctoral students. I think the impact of knowledge economy should be included in supervision training to ensure that supervisees get the support they need. For example, the pressure professional doctoral students are under to input their transferable skills such as "problem-solving, collaborative work [and] leadership" (Usher 2002, p.145) into industry policy and practice. These qualities however are also a recognition (Loxley and Seery 2012) of what professional doctoral students contribute. It is important to keep in mind that there was no data from my analysis indicating that professional doctoral students were aware of, or had been informed about the impact and nature of the knowledge economy on their research and practice.

8.2.2 Transition into the workplace

Professional doctoral students typically research in their workplace and the research skills developed during their professional doctoral candidacy such as "perseverance, resilience, innovation and creative thinking" (Halse and Mowbray 2011, p.519) have an impact on their workplace relationships. For example, professional doctoral students incorporate their research role into their professional role as manager, colleague and friend (Baldwin 2013). Additional to this, professional doctoral students have to negotiate multiple personal commitments and responsibilities for example, domesticity, finances, divorce and health (Lee, Brennan and Green 2009). In the case of most doctoral students I think that negotiating competing demands while adapting from being an insider in the workplace to outsider (Sikes and Potts 2008) can present additional challenges.

My findings show for example, that professional doctoral students found it difficult to negotiate their different professional roles in their workplaces as manager and researcher. Casey appeared keen to include her colleagues in her research process however she appeared to be "engaged in the perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet inter-related (Winnicott 1953, p.90) as she also wanted to protect her ideas due to her emotional investment in her research. This idea of "the individual engaged in the perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer

reality separate yet inter-related” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) could be a reminder to supervisors in supervision training about the different roles supervisees have to negotiate. The supervisors may then be in a position to explore with the professional doctoral students the difficulties that shape the less visible dynamics that they experience. With this information supervisors could then help professional doctoral students prepare for going into the workplace in relation to difficulties they may encounter negotiating their professional and research roles. Further, supervisors can remind their supervisees that it could be useful to talk about difficulties that they encounter in the workplace in the supervision relationship.

My findings also show that managing relationships with colleagues and friends in the workplace can influence the difficulties professional doctoral students experience in their researcher roles. Ali appeared to be under the “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) that her workplace colleagues and friends were under her control and would support the ideas she presented. In other words, Ali seemed to assume that her colleagues and friends would not have an opinion of their own. The ideas Ali was presenting however, appeared to be at the incubation stage and therefore Ali did not seem to fully understand them herself. Supervision training could be used to explore how an “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) could influence professional doctoral students’ experience. This could help supervisors identify an “omnipoten[t]...illusion” (Winnicott 1953, p.95) in a supervisee’s narrative and facilitate their understanding of the impact it may have on their research.

These findings are useful as they identify a need to prepare professional doctoral students for researching in the workplace. The preparation could happen during the taught element of the professional doctoral programme and in the doctoral supervision relationship. This could help professional doctoral students make sense of the less visible dynamics that emerge in the workplace and what they contribute to those dynamics. Giving professional doctoral students’ information about the complex dynamics that influence research in the workplace, before going into the field, might inform their choices. It is possible that incorporating this finding into professional doctoral education and supervision training may highlight further gaps. For example, professional doctoral students need preparation to be researchers in

the workplace. Doctoral supervisors need to know why professional doctoral students need preparing before they go into the workplace.

8.3 Responding to the second research question:

What are the expectations professional doctoral students have of the supervision relationship? Are these expectations met?

8.3.1 Expectations of the doctoral supervision relationship

Doctoral supervision models promote a space for “renegotiating what’s possible [and] what’s expected” (Gatfield 2005, p.322) in the supervision relationship in terms of boundaries. The doctoral supervision relationship is also underpinned in complex and less visible dynamics that evoke strong feelings such as “gratitude, resentment, frustration, disappointment and love” (Grant 1999, p.8). Psychoanalytical supervision models (Elliott, Ryan and Hollway 2012, Yerushalmi 2012) are designed to explore the less visible dynamics that emerge in professional doctoral student experience and some supervision models have a pastoral care element. However, doctoral supervision models and doctoral supervision relationships are also shaped by institutional rules and regulations (Manathunga 2007). It seems important therefore, to understand the less visible dynamics that by, the very nature of their invisibility, can cause tension (Wisker 2012) and can influence the ambiance in a supervision relationship.

My findings show for example, that the expectations professional doctoral students have of their supervisors are shaped by different factors. Amari’s expectations were shaped by his early educational experience which led to “disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) as his Higher Education supervision did not reflect his experience as a child. Thinking about the idea, “disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) within the context of supervision training could help supervisors recall their own experience of “disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) and how their experience shaped the expectations they had of their managers and colleagues. The supervisors may then be able to help supervisees understand the “disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) they experience as professional doctoral research students and how their

expectations influence their experience. This may also be an opportunity to negotiate expectations in the supervision relationship and manage “disillusionment” (Winnicott 1953, p.94) when it occurs.

A further example shows that expectation is influenced by the professional doctoral students’ own supervision practice. Reese’s expectation was defined by his professional practice as a supervisor. However, Reese appeared to be unaware that his transition from being a supervisor in his professional role in Further Education to being supervised as a novice researcher in his professional doctoral role would most likely be different. Further, that his supervisor’s expectations of the supervision relationship might also be different from his own expectations. Amari and Reese chose to change their supervisors and look for a supervision relationship that they could trust that is, a “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) within which they could create and develop their research ideas. Supervision training could help supervisors understand the idea, “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) and the impact it has in relation to their supervisees development and potential. The supervisors would then be in a position to provide a “potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) that could help supervisees develop trust in the supervision relationship and find their potential.

These findings highlight a lack of understanding about the nature of the supervision relationship and what this means in terms of the impact professional doctoral students’ expectations have on their doctoral supervision relationship. Informing professional doctoral students about the more practical housekeeping boundaries such as time keeping, dates, agendas, notes and deadlines could be a starting point for building a foundation to achieve a more in-depth knowledge about the nature and the complexity of the doctoral supervision relationship. This information could be incorporated into professional doctoral education and doctoral supervision training. Experiencing Winnicott’s ideas in supervision training and discussing the supervisors’ responses could give supervisors insight into what underpins their supervisees’ experiences and difficulties.

8.3.2 The supervision relationship

Professional doctoral students are not necessarily aware of the intersubjective nature of the doctoral supervision relationship within which they can “explore and discover their own professional and personal selves” (Yerushalmi 2012, p.159). The supervision relationship therefore, needs to be more transparent in terms of the doctoral supervision models that frame doctoral supervision and provide a structure (Gatfield 2005). That is, an academic framework that underpins doctoral supervision and the doctoral supervision relationship (Halse and Malfroy 2010) within which professional doctoral students can work “conceptually, critically and creatively” (Wisker 2012, p.9). Without knowledge of these models and their underpinnings the doctoral supervision process can be misunderstood and therefore become unproductive. Doctoral supervision for example, has been referred to as a “surveillance mechanism” (Manathunga 2007, p.208) influenced by institutional regulation which although inevitable in Higher Education and doctoral candidacy has an impact on professional doctoral student experience.

My findings show that professional doctoral students exclude the messy parts of their doctoral student experience in supervision and present, only, the cleaned-up versions. The professional doctoral students’ choice to exclude information is influenced by their emotions such as fear. Casey’s fear seemed to be influenced by the research “transition [she was in] from a state of being merged” (Winnicott 2005, p.19) with her supervisor to realising that she had her own ideas and that the relationship had become “something outside and separate” (p.20). Casey perceived that her research relationships were also her friendships therefore, taking authority for her research ideas and being separate seemed to fuel a fear that she may lose her friends. The “transition from a state of being merged with the mother [supervisor] to a state of being in relation to the mother [supervisor] as something outside and separate” (Winnicott 2005, pp.19-20) appears to be a natural supervision process. For supervisors therefore, using the supervision training to remind them about their own transition from a “state of being merged” (Winnicott 2005, p.19) with their own doctoral supervisors to “being in relation... [and] separate” (p.20) might give them insight into the less visible dynamics that underpinned their own doctoral student experience. Understanding this “state of being merged...[to] being in relation...and

separate” (Winnicott 2005, pp.19-20) could be useful for supervisors when helping supervisees make sense of their gradual transition from novice researcher to becoming an expert in their field and the impact of this may have on their research relationships. It is important to remind supervisors in training about the need to be transparent with their supervisees in terms of the power relations that are embedded in the supervision relationship.

Power relations in the supervision relationship can evoke feelings of powerlessness in the supervisee. Amari perceived his supervisor as his equal, as he was a manager in charge of others in a powerful position in the workplace. Amari however, was not his supervisors equal within his role as novice researcher as he was in the first stage of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that is, “absolute[ly] dependen[t]” (p.46) on his supervisor for guidance and support. The idea of “*holding*” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) would be useful for supervisors to understand in terms of symbolically providing a space in the supervision relationship for professional doctoral students’ to transition from “absolute dependence...[to] relative dependence...towards independence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). For supervisors, “*holding*” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) within supervision training could be facilitated by the trainer who would give supervisors the opportunity to explore what the different stages of “the holding phase” (p.46) mean in relation to their own professional transitions. This experience could help supervisors understand supervision within a “*holding*” (Winnicott 1965, p.45) context that provides a space for their supervisees to transition through “the holding phase” (p.46). Further, supervisors may also notice the power relational dynamics embedded in the different stages of “the holding phase” (Winnicott 1965, p.46) that they could use in a supervision discussion in relation to the supervisee’s research process.

The findings indicate that the supervision relationship is underpinned in power relational dynamics (Kelly and Lloyd Williams 2013) that if not transparent may undermine the supervision space and create tension (Damrosch 2006).

Friendship in the supervision relationship could create blurred boundaries (Manathunga 2007) for example, compromise its purpose. I do not mean to imply that doctoral supervisors should not be friends with their supervisees as this is “inescapable” (Lee 2008, p.275) and can also enhance the professional doctoral student’s ability to achieve (Manathunga 2007). My findings show however, that it is

important to be aware of the “intensity and...murkiness” (Cherry 2012, p.6) that can underpin the doctoral supervision relationship so that the conflation of the relationship does not lead to further difficulties, i.e. if a supervisor finds it difficult because of the friendship, to deliver a negative evaluation. What is important about my findings is that they highlight the impact of power relations on the doctoral supervision relationships which could be detrimental to the professional doctoral student’s research process.

8.4 Responding to the third research question:

What support might enhance professional doctoral students’ experience with regard to discussing difficult experiences in the supervision relationship?

8.4.1 Incorporating supervision models into practice

Supervision models are designed to support professional doctoral student academic research (McCulloch and Loeser 2016) and promote a “collaborative...alliance...[and a] creative productive use of expert knowledge” (Halse and Malfroy 2010, pp.83-87). Psychoanalytical supervision models focus on the less visible dynamics in doctoral research and facilitate a process of “noticing and listening to oneself, of not closing down, of staying engaged with feelings in relation to self and other, and simultaneously creating a space for associative thinking and reflection” (Elliott, Ryan and Hollway 2012, p.23). Additional to supervision models are peer group models that are designed to be “transformative [and]...integrative” (Kiley 2009, p.297). The different informal and formal peer group models are typically within the context of doctoral cohorts and Skype groups that meet in “co-created space[s]” (Fletcher, Comer and Dunlap 2014, p.102). In theory, peer group models sound an ideal solution for providing support to professional doctoral students that may not be available even in a productive supervision relationship.

My findings show that professional doctoral students’ perspectives on support relate to a space outside of their supervision relationship. For example, a pastoral care context that provides a space to talk about difficult professional doctoral student experiences. Ali’s perspective on additional professional doctoral support was

related to someone who had the “capacity to identify [and]...know what [she was]...feeling like” (Winnicott 1986, p.28). Ali inferred that she perceived the supervision relationship as not having a pastoral element and the experiences that she found difficult in her research needed to be sorted out somewhere else. Amari’s perspective on support related to conflict resolution suggesting that he was taking responsibility for his part in the conflict between himself and other. For Findley, having someone to help her understand and make sense of her research process defined the type of support she perceived as useful. The findings infer that the perspectives on support are influenced by feelings of isolation, feeling stuck and conflict. However, the findings also indicate that professional doctoral students do not perceive the doctoral supervisor as providing the pastoral support they require which suggests they perceive that something is missing such as the “relational occurrences... between [themselves and the] supervisor” (Yerushalmi 2012, p.155). The implication for professional doctoral students however is that additional support could become an additional supervision relationship without the academic framework.

Within universities pastoral spaces seem to be accommodated in personal tutor meetings and the university’s student counselling service. Difficult experiences however, within the context of professional doctoral research are part of supervision support and therefore taking research matters elsewhere leaves the supervisor and the supervisee with a missed opportunity to discuss difficulties. It is important therefore for supervisors to discuss their “capacity to identify [and]...know what [supervisees are]...feeling like” (Winnicott 1986, p.28) and to explore what this means for them in terms of a supervision model that would facilitate their experience. The supervisor’s supervision training could be used to explore different supervision models. Identifying a doctoral supervision model or a psychoanalytical supervision model may then provide a structure for the supervisor to work with when facilitating the supervisees’ academic, professional or personal research process.

The need for additional support is influenced by the multiple demands professional doctoral students’ experience which includes commitments and responsibilities outside their professional management role for example, domesticity, finances, divorce and health (Baldwin 2013). Although these competing demands are

applicable to most doctoral students on most doctoral programmes the remit for professional doctoral students is different. Professional doctoral students are required for example, to import their knowledge into industry (Kumar and Dawson 2013) and conduct their research in the workplace. This suggests that one of the factors missing in doctoral supervision literature is more of a focus on the difference between professional doctoral education (Baldwin 2013) and the more traditional academic PhD (Thomson and Walker 2010) that doctoral supervisors (Jackson 2013) are typically used to.

Understanding the difference between the professional doctorate and the traditional PhD is difficult because they have different research structures (Kot and Hendel 2012). There is however, recognition in the doctoral research community that further studies are needed (Lahenius and Martinsuo 2011). It is important to implement an understanding of the difference between doctoral programmes in doctoral supervision training and in professional doctoral education. This needs to happen in order that appropriate doctoral supervision models can be incorporated into professional doctoral student support. It is important to keep in mind that what I am suggesting is that professional doctoral students and doctoral supervisors consider separately and together what additional support means and if what is needed can be resolved in the supervision relationship. Using Winnicott's psychoanalytical ideas as an academic and experiential framework for supervision training could resolve the gap.

8.4.2 The interview space

I asked the professional doctoral students to reflect on their research interview for this thesis to attempt to establish an understanding of their experience. The research interview process (Mosselson 2010, Berg and Smith 1988) highlighted the "share[d]... history" (Garton and Copland 2010, p.547) I had with my peers. This meant that I had "access to resources that are not always available in more traditional social sciences interviews" (Garton and Copland 2010, p.548). My peer position seemed to be the reason the participants talked about experiences they did not typically share. I think this is why I very quickly established "a rapport and empathic connection" (Roulston 2010, p.56) with my peers and why we appeared to

experience an “interpersonal connection...in the search of mutually understood meaning” (Doyle 2007, p.905) and insights. As a peer interviewer however, like any interviewer, I “inevitably accrue[d] power” (Sikes and Potts 2008, p.179) which meant I had to be vigilant and reflexive (West and Bainbridge 2012, Denzin and Lincoln 2013) at all times about my influence on the less visible (Hollway and Jefferson 2013) relational dynamics.

The findings showed that the nature of the interview enabled the professional doctoral students to talk about the impact of their difficulties on their research experience. This has highlighted how difficult it was for the supervisees to understand and make sense of their experiences on their own. Dakota came to the research interview thinking that the only experience he had to talk about was transcribing however, what he found was that he talked about experiences he had not thought about until the research interview. What is important in Dakota’s narrative is that “a creative experience” (Winnicott 2005, p.67) emerged as a result of the research relationship and is an example of “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) that is, a relationship that happens in the research interview space. The idea “creative experience” (Winnicott 2005, p.67) could be explored in the supervision training for noticing when an experience changes from being difficult to being creative. Supervisors may then be able to help supervisees notice when the difficult experiences they are talking about change and become easier to talk about.

The professional doctoral students were surprised at how emotionally charged their experiences were in the research interview. Most importantly for the professional doctoral students, the research interview space evoked a positive reaction and they experienced the interview as insightful professionally, academically and personally. A “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) that is, the research interview relationship appeared to facilitate a space in which professional doctoral students could talk about experiences that were difficult and that they had not spoken about before. For supervisors in training, experiential learning could help them to hold Winnicott’s theoretical ideas in mind. Supervisors may then be equipped to develop a supervision relationship that is a “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89) within which the supervisees can experience “a holding environment” (Winnicott

1965, p.47) and “a potential space” (Winnicott 2005, p.144) to play, create, and develop their professional doctoral research.

What is interesting about my findings is that the professional doctoral students were able to talk about the difficulties they had experienced, in their research interview. Their willingness to reflect on their experiences highlights the question of why some of the professional doctoral students did not talk about these experiences in supervision. Supervision training would be an important forum for a discussion about the supervision relationship and how Winnicott’s ideas could be used to make sense of the less visible dynamics that influence the supervision space. For example, doctoral supervisors could incorporate supervision models, psychoanalytical supervision models and a sensitive interview structure into their supervision practice. It’s important to keep in mind that professional doctoral students have experiences they find difficult to talk about. Being encouraged to discuss these difficulties in the doctoral supervision relationship could enhance the doctoral students’ professional, personal and research experience within an academic context.

In the next chapter, I consider the implications of my research and offer my recommendations. I present questions for future studies in the second part of the chapter and to conclude I reflect on my own research experience.

Chapter 9: Implications and recommendations

9.1 Introduction

I believe that the primary implications from the findings in this thesis relate to the practice of doctoral supervision. Therefore, in the first part of this chapter I present suggestions for practice, mostly directed to doctoral supervisors, derived from the understandings yielded in this thesis. In the second part of this chapter I suggest some questions that could be considered for future studies. In the concluding part of this chapter I reflect on my own experience as a professional doctoral student and describe what helped me to explore my research questions. I discuss what I would do differently, and describe what it was like to be part of a cohort and what I have learnt from my experience.

9.2 Professional doctorate and the PhD

It seems important for supervisors to understand the distinction between a professional doctoral student and a PhD student so that the research needs of the professional doctoral student can be met and the right sort of support be given. A professional doctoral student typically conducts research in their workplace and, therefore, has to negotiate different roles such as manager, colleague, friend and researcher. A PhD student is usually based in an academic department in a university when not researching in their field. A professional doctoral student is often a mid-career and part-time student with a full time job and competing demands that include family, carer and financial and domestic responsibilities. A PhD student is typically full time over three to four years and part-time, over six to eight years. The PhD student therefore may also experience different competing demands.

9.3 Vigilance of doctoral student difficulties

I have shown through this thesis that it is important for supervisors to be aware of the difficulties professional doctoral students encounter and the impact of those difficulties. An example from the data would be the difficulty professional doctoral

students have relating to colleagues. These included the conflict of roles, which the participants were negotiating in the workplace, and coping with power relational issues that occurred with managers and colleagues. Other students were challenged either by a breakdown of communication in the supervision relationship, or by experiencing isolation and disengagement from peers as a result of taking leaves of absence. If doctoral supervisors were aware of what professional doctoral students were experiencing they would be in a better position to support and help the doctoral student. When noticing difficulties professional doctoral students may be experiencing, supervisors could ask whether the difficulties are related to the students' research roles or if the difficulties are more personal. Supervisors could then either resolve what was happening for the professional doctoral student within a supervision context or signpost the student to other forms of support available in the university such as peer support (their cohort) or student counselling support.

9.4 Make expectations explicit

The nature of the supervision relationship can be understood to require a mutual expectation that responsibility for the research process is both shared and separate. The doctoral supervisor, for example, is expected to advise and support the doctoral student's research process, and the doctoral student is expected to take the initiative in completing the process and in assuming responsibility for all choices made along the way. This thesis showed how, when the specific aspects of these expectations on either side are not made explicit, misunderstandings and even frustration can occur. This might be particularly acute for some professional doctoral students who manage demanding jobs in the workplace where they are often used to assuming control, setting clear objectives and taking action to achieve them. When professional doctoral students understand their supervisor's expectations, they are in a better position to negotiate those expectations. Similarly, when professional doctoral students understand the various dynamics that may be influencing their own expectations they might find it easier to talk about these dynamics with their supervisor. The key implication from much of the difficulties explored in this thesis, seems to be that more effort could be expended in the supervision relationship to make explicit the student's and the supervisor's specific, and often changing, expectations of one another and of the process itself.

9.5 Listening to the professional doctoral student

Professional doctoral students' expectations and perceptions, as shown in this thesis, may be signalling at times a lack of confidence and a fear of being vulnerable. While I am certainly not suggesting that supervisors should leap to such interpretations, the broader implication of this for supervisors is the importance of careful and sensitive listening, not only to the content of what their students are saying but, also, to how the students are expressing themselves through their perceptions. The ability to listen in a doctoral supervision relationship may need to be built on and enhanced. The implication of not exploring ways of listening could mean that misunderstandings might occur. I recommend, therefore, that learning how to listen is made explicit in supervision training and the two-year taught component of the doctoral programme. I further recommend that listening is included in the terms and conditions of the professional doctoral student and doctoral supervisor initial contract.

9.6 Make space to talk about difficulties

The doctoral supervision relationship provides a space for professional doctoral students to create and develop their research ideas, as mentioned in chapter two, in relation to Linden, Ohlin and Brodin's (2013), Gatfield's (2005), Elliott, Ryan and Hollway (2012), Lee's (2008), Yerushalmi's (2012) and Halse and Malfroy's (2010) supervision models.

One area of particular interest in this thesis was the extent to which even profound difficulties experienced by the student, and sometimes the supervisor, could be excluded altogether from conversations in the supervision relationship. As a result, the natural difficulties and mess of any research process may not be discussed in the supervision relationship, which could exclude a student from understanding core issues in the research. Difficulties, for example, in the supervision relationship itself may be tidied away from the supervision discussion in ways that can lead to misunderstandings, festering conflict, loss of confidence and hampered productivity. Clearly, a supervisor walks a delicate line in opening the supervision process to welcome and work through difficulties, for these can tread close to students'

personal spheres that are beyond the boundaries of most supervision relationships. It may be important therefore for supervisors and professional doctoral students to discuss openly the complex nature of the supervision space. This might involve supervisors listening to the professional doctoral student and trusting that ideas, mistakes and misunderstandings are part of the creativity the doctoral student is trying to understand and make sense of and not necessarily a problem that has to be fixed at the time.

9.7 Academic research focus in doctoral supervision

Pastoral care seems to be an established form of support provided by universities in student support departments, for example, in relation to learning, money, mental health, spiritual care, career guidance and student counselling. Beyond these services, the use of a cohort model, organising doctoral students in groups that work together over a period of years, can provide, also, informal pastoral support. These additional forms of support are important to the supervision relationship, otherwise the supervisor can become the sole respondent to all of a student's needs and difficulties. This sort of situation is unfair to both the supervisor and the student and could compromise even the academic research process that doctoral supervision is intended primarily to support. The implication of this thesis is that, while supervisors are called upon to help students make expectations and difficulties explicit and to listen and respond supportively to these difficulties, they may need, also, to help keep the supervision relationship firmly focused on academic research. This does not mean a focus on the cognitive and rational but on understanding and working through experiences – however messy– related to the student's research process.

9.8 Discuss specific concerns

A discussion about specific professional doctoral student concerns that may arise in the research process could be useful to include in a taught module. One concern might be the relationship professional doctoral students have with their employers that pay the doctoral education fees. A second concern could be negotiating research in one's own organisation and working out relationships with colleagues and managers who are also involved in the research. For example, competing roles,

organisational dynamics, control of the research design, balancing obligations of organisational and research ethics, and research boundaries. A third concern might be examining, within this complexity, professional doctoral students' expectations and perceptions.

9.9 Explain the supervision process

A description of a supervision relationship and its remit could be included at the transition stage of the professional doctoral programme, from the taught component to the independent research stage. Professional doctoral students as well as supervisors may benefit from examining different supervision models and the transitions encountered by professional doctoral students. Further, the strategies students have used to resolve difficult experiences and the challenges of discussing difficult issues openly with supervisors.

9.10 Consider assumptions

During the taught component of a professional doctorate, it could be useful for professional doctoral students to consider critically particular assumptions that influence the difficulties they may experience in their learning environment. The purpose would be to encourage professional doctoral students to think about what they would like to articulate and how they might begin to speak about these difficulties. Role play and case study exercises could be devised involving supervisors and students in small groups discussing difficult experiences that have arisen in different research contexts. For example, in groups of three (doctoral supervisor, student and observer), a student might explain to the supervisor what was difficult about bringing their experience to supervision.

9.11 Map the research process

Professional doctoral students, possibly with supervisors, could be encouraged to map their research needs, working styles, and goals for the research process and, then, try to collaboratively design with the supervisor, a supervision model or a set of principles that might best support the sort of supervision relationship that could suit

them both. From this exercise they may be able to imagine what their invented model will include as well as what it could potentially exclude.

9.12 The importance of training

Including Winnicott's ideas in professional doctoral programme modules and supervision training could be useful for supervisors. That is, in terms of understanding and listening for the less visible dynamics that influence the professional doctoral students' experiences inside and outside of the supervision relationship and research process. This could help professional doctoral students understand themselves in relation to others and the role they play in their experience.

Doctoral education tutors could write modules for doctoral supervisors and professional doctoral students. This could include a description of doctoral and psychoanalytical supervision models that can then be discussed in supervision training and in the supervision relationship. Knowledge of doctoral supervision models and psychoanalytical supervision models, for example, might provide professional doctoral students and doctoral supervisors with an opportunity to take responsibility in the supervision relationship for negotiating the terms and conditions of the particular model being used.

I further recommend that professional doctoral students are provided with an induction on the taught element of the professional doctoral student programme that includes:

- Information about issues that may arise for professional doctoral students who have their doctoral education fees paid by their employer.
- Finding out what the professional doctoral students' perceptions and expectations are for example, of their funders and exploring how to negotiate and resolve the issues that may arise.
- Exploring the professional doctoral students' perceptions that influence their expectations.

- Understanding and making sense of why individual perceptions and expectations influence professional doctoral student experience.
- A discussion on the notion of taking authority (responsibility) for the professional doctoral student research process when researching in the workplace.
- Managing competing roles, organisational dynamics, professional and professional doctoral student boundaries, considering implications.
- A description of a doctoral supervision relationship and its remit.
- Examples of doctoral supervision models.
- Exploration of the professional doctoral students' perceptions and the expectations they may have of doctoral supervision.
- A discussion on the professional doctoral students' transition from their professional role to their professional doctoral student role and the implications.
- A discussion on how professional doctoral students resolve difficult experiences.
- A discussion on experiences professional doctoral students may not talk about in their supervision relationship and the implications.

I also recommend that:

1. Supervisors are supported in developing a flexible understanding of what supervision strategies and the supervision relationship can offer professional doctoral students with different needs.
2. Supervisors consider the assumptions, perceptions and expectations that doctoral students may have of their supervision relationship.
3. Supervision teams map out a supervision model that supports the supervision relationship which suits both supervisors and doctoral students.
4. Doctoral supervisors who supervise professional doctoral students receive professional supervision and support.

9.13 Questions for future studies

This thesis has highlighted further research that could be useful for professional doctoral students and doctoral supervisors to consider. For example, the thesis has shown that the participants' perceptions seemed to have a deep impact on their difficult experiences. More research, therefore, could be done on what professional doctoral students need to know in relation to their perceptions.

The power relations, which have been discussed in this thesis, refer to friendship in the supervision relationship and boundaries. This suggests that further research may be needed on the meaning of friendship in the doctoral supervision relationship and whether the power relations that exist define the nature of the friendship. This could include research on whether giving personal advice is part of the doctoral supervisor's role and, if it is, how giving personal advice to professional doctoral students might contribute to power relational issues in the supervision relationship.

The issue of responsibility in the supervision relationship has been discussed including where the responsibility for the relationship is situated. Psychoanalytical research could be used, therefore, to explore whether a productive supervisor relationship is dependent on the professional doctoral students' willingness to talk about their difficult professional doctoral student experiences. This could include research on whether, in the doctoral supervision relationship, supervisors need to be more transparent with their doctoral students about what model of supervision they are using in their supervision practice. Further, psychoanalytical research could be used to explore questions such as: What do professional doctoral students know about the nature of supervision? What do professional doctoral students need to know about the nature of the doctoral supervision relationship?

This thesis has explored professional doctoral student experiences and their supervision relationship. Professional doctoral students could explore supervisors' experiences and the relationship they have with their supervisees using focus groups and in-depth interviews. This could be done alongside the professional doctoral students' reflections on the process.

I have not focused on educational policy due to the nature of the psychoanalytical theoretical perspective that I have used to underpin this thesis. Therefore, I suggest that more research needs to be done on the integration of professional doctoral student issues in policy. For example, how might professional doctoral student experiences be reviewed consistently and enhanced, particularly in the present context emphasising the knowledge economy and its relationship with industry?

9.14 Reflections on my research experience

9.14.1 Exploring the research questions

Aside from the growing research literature relating to doctoral education, it was the participants' contributions that helped me to explore my three research questions. Winnicott's theories and ideas provided an insight into the less visible dynamics that underpinned the participants' narratives. Brown and Gilligan's (1992) voice method gave me a tool to analyse the participants' narratives and "capture the layered nature" (p.11) of their experiences in-depth. The participants' descriptive accounts of their experiences in relation to their employers/fee payers and researching in the workplace helped me explore my first research question. Mining the participants' descriptions led me to understand and make sense of their perceptions and expectations and how these influenced their decisions to leave their employment, compromise their research or negotiate a way forward. This helped me to understand the link between the participants' expectations and the difficulties that emerged in their supervision relationship.

The participants' willingness to share their narratives in such depth provided an opportunity to understand and make sense of what emerged from the second research question in terms of how the participants' expectations and perceptions influenced their experiences. The specific narratives shared by participants about their difficulties and transitions helped me with my third research question in relation to their perspectives on support. This highlighted that for some participants talking about their experiences outside of the supervision relationship was more comfortable than talking about them in the supervision relationship. The participants' reflections on their research interview experience seemed to disclose "highly personal aspects

of their lives...beyond what...[they] would normally disclose” (Dickson-Swift, James and Liamputtong 2008, p.8). Some participants suggested that disclosing information was influenced by the in-depth nature of the semi-structured interviews that enabled them to dip in and out of the questions I asked and understand their experiences without feeling overwhelmed.

9.14.2 What I would do differently

Reflecting on what I have learnt while researching for this thesis got me thinking about what I would do differently. I think, for example, if I had considered involving students earlier in the study, when I was first designing it, I might have realised that my original focus on ‘dilemma’ was too general. The interviews indicated, for example, that it was not dilemmas that informed the participants’ difficulties but the “basic experience of the[ir]...lived world” that as a qualitative researcher I had “privileged access to” (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009, p.29). While I am satisfied that the small sample size, which I used for this study, has generated substantial information for a sensitive and in-depth analysis of the participants’ narratives, what I might have considered doing differently is using a larger sample made up of students from different professional doctoral programmes. The advantage of using a larger sample would have been to cover a wider spectrum of experience and professional contexts that are not typically available in a small sample. I wonder too if a comparative approach may have identified different and additional factors.

I had no idea when starting the professional doctoral programme that it would have such an impact on my professional and personal life. I have spent most of the time managing competing demands and unexpected family and physical health issues this has meant that I have lost large chunks of study time along the way. Yet, this length and duration of my project allowed me to circle back and re-think many themes that I did not comprehend at first. Due to the nature of unexpected events, it seems that it would be impossible to know if there was anything I could have done differently. If I had known what was going to happen, however, I would have worked out that I needed more time to complete my thesis and I would have planned the timetable in a different way at the start of the research process.

9.14.3 My cohort experience

The consistent relationship with my professional doctoral programme cohort has been an invaluable informal support network. The first two years of the taught programme were spent learning and understanding education policy and practice. Informally, as peers, we listened to each other and talked about different issues and concerns we experienced as professional doctoral students.

After getting through the taught component of the professional doctoral programme, we were all allocated our initial research supervisors. At this time, and due to the nature of my research, I was adamant that, although separated, I was going to stay in touch with my cohort which involved regular email contact and informal meet ups. The biggest contribution to my professional doctoral student experience has been the cohort's willingness to stay in touch and support each other.

9.14.4 What I have learnt

What I have learnt through the research process is that I have been in a privileged position metaphorically of walking the talk. As my research developed, for example, my doctoral supervision became a laboratory for learning what happens when negotiating and talking about difficult experiences. Further, this laboratory was a reference point within which I could understand and make sense of the participants' experiences and use my own experience to work out what was different. What underpinned my difficulties, for example, was often the assumption that my perceptions, expectations and ideas were right. The supervision relationship became the place for checking out my assumptions. These assumptions, however, could be categorised sometimes as an "illusion" (Winnicott 1953, p.94) because what I thought was right was sometimes wrong. My internal response was influenced by my ego which meant that receiving feedback from the doctoral supervision team tactfully suggesting I might have been a bit off track was sometimes difficult and painful.

I further learnt that having two supervisors meant two lots of feedback. I learnt that the position of a second supervisor was as outsider looking in however, this position

was interchangeable between my supervisors. This meant that consistent fusion was punctuated with differences and changes and facilitated the potential for me to keep transitioning through the research process. I learnt that doctoral supervision was “an intermediate area of *experiencing*” (Winnicott 1953, p.90) that was at times uncomfortable, interesting, supportive, and fun. When presenting at a conference, I described my supervision relationship as like other relationships that we experience in life, as loving, despairing, painful, exciting and interdependent.

What I gradually became aware of through my research experience was that “transitional phenomena” (Winnicott 1953, p.89), one of the ideas I have used to frame this thesis, represented my supervision relationship. I have been able to incubate my ideas, for example, play with the ideas and develop those ideas within a facilitative creative academic space which has facilitated my transition from “absolute dependence...[to] relative dependence...towards independence” (Winnicott 1965, p.46). A key point, which I realise about my supervision relationship, is that from the start of my candidacy to the stage of submission I have taken responsibility for my part in the research process. This responsibility has been messy, recursive and full of difficulty. However, I am in no doubt that a central part of my professional doctoral student research experience was in working through this responsibility, supported by my cohort and my supervision team.

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GLOSSARY

Apperception: An awareness of a perception related to past experience.

Caretaker Self: An individual's defence mechanism to protect themselves.

Central Self: The core personality of an individual.

Creativity: Colouring of external reality.

Creative apperception: A perception that is influenced by what an individual perceives as reality.

Defence against anxiety: An intermediate state between an individual's inability and growing ability to recognise and accept reality.

Ego integration: The integration of the individual's different emotional parts of themselves and their environment.

False Self: A defence to protect the self from a perceived threat which is often masked in polite and compliant behaviour.

First not-me possession: The infant's capacity to recognise this is me and this is my teddy bear.

Forgo[ing] omnipotence: Giving up perceived power.

Good enough mother: A primary care-giver that adapts to the infant's needs and is fully devoted, acutely aware and protective, sacrificing her own needs (sleep) to fulfil his/her infant's needs.

Holding: Optimal environmental provision for good enough parenting.

Holding environment: A resting place for an individual to understand and make sense of their internal and external experiences.

Holding phase: Stages of transition from absolute dependence to relative dependence towards independence.

Illusion-disillusionment: A perception and an idea that an individual can experience as their own although, later, he/she may discover that it is not their own idea and that it is part of a wider context.

Intermediate area of experience: This is an area in which inner and external life both contribute.

Major anxiety: A threat to an individual's central self.

Reparation: An ability to reconcile difficulties and realise that good and bad exists in others as well as in ourselves.

Play: A creative experience that is subjective and what an individual objectively perceives.

Potential space: A space between an individual and significant other in which the relationship, social contact and environment is negotiated.

True self: Having feelings that are spontaneous and unforced

Reality-testing: Checking if a perception is real or not real.

Transitional object: Facilitates the infant's state of being merged with the mother to a state of being in relationship with the mother and separate. At this stage the infant starts to discover that the world exists outside of him/her self.

Transitional phenomena: The early stages of the use of illusion without which there is no meaning for the human being and therefore no relationship.

The perpetual human task of keeping inner and outer reality separate yet interrelated: A resting place where there is no challenge as there is no claim made of its behalf.

APPENDIX A

Email sent inviting participants to participate in the research interview

Dear [name]

I am an EdD student at the University of Stirling and I am researching dilemmas encountered in research for professional doctorates.

I am writing to ask if you have encountered dilemmas in the process of your research. If so would you be happy to talk about the dilemmas you have encountered and explore them further? If you have encountered dilemmas in the process of your research and would be happy to explore them further would you be willing to be interviewed?

The interview will take one hour. The location for the interview will be in a public place and decided by you. The interview will be semi-structured and within a psychoanalytical framework. The questions are designed to explore your subjective experiences and could have the potential to evoke uncomfortable feelings. Before the interview a copy of the interview questions will be sent to you with the consent form in order to give you time to reflect and alert you to what is going to be asked. The interview will be audio-recorded. Notes will be taken when the audio-recorder is turned off. Names and places will be changed in the transcription in order to ensure your anonymity. I will incorporate excerpts from the interview at the write-up stage of the thesis as part of my analysis.

Thank you for your time and I look forward to hearing from you.

Best wishes

APPENDIX B

Consent form

This consent form has a longer format than usual because the ethics of this project are quite complex. For this reason a research proposal was submitted to the Stirling School of Education Ethics Committee to be reviewed. As a result of the review I have been granted permission to conduct my research.

My name is Margot Kirkland and I am a student at the University of Stirling currently conducting research for an EdD. The aim of my thesis is to highlight the role of dilemmas in research that is conducted for professional doctorates. The objectives are to understand these dilemmas, to consider the extent to which they may inhibit the conduct and analysis of research and to highlight implications for future students.

As you have experience of conducting research for a professional doctorate I would like to request your consent to be interviewed. The interview questions will be sent to you before the interview. The purpose of sending the questions before the interview takes place is that it will give you time to reflect and alert you to what you are going to be asked. However please be aware that there will be follow up questions that I cannot anticipate in advance. The interview will take approximately one hour. An audio recorder will be used to record the interview. The interview will be transcribed. The audio recorder can be turned off in the interview for breaks if requested. You have the choice at any stage to end the interview and to request that your data be removed from the data set. When the audio recorder is turned off at the end of the interview I will ask your permission to continue to record on-going conversation in note form. When transcribing the audio recording your name and any places mentioned will be changed to ensure your anonymity.

A copy of the transcript will be sent at your request. The information generated from your interview will provide an essential contribution to understanding the dilemmas professional doctoral students encounter in research.

I am an EdD student at the same university in which you are studying. Information you disclose about your own research in the course of the interview means it is possible that you could be identified by other students and staff on the EdD programme, even though you will be referred to by a pseudonym throughout the thesis or subsequent publications.

Please do not hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns about the interview via my email m.a.kirkland@stir.ac.uk and I will get back to you as soon as possible.

Researcher: Margot Kirkland

I understand that:

- The interview will be recorded.
- That I may request a copy of the transcript.
- There is a possibility that I may be identified by other students and staff on the EdD programme at the university in which I am studying.
- If I have any cause for concern about the conduct of this research I may contact the Head of School, (Professors name and email address).

Name of participant.....

Signature.....

Date.....

APPENDIX C

Record of interviews

Participants	Date	Length	Place
Findley	16.3.11	1 hour	University
Amari	18.3.11	1 hour	University
Reese	5.4.11	1 hour	University
Casey	7.4.11	1 hour	University
Dakota	21.6.11	1 hour	Home
Ali	21.6.11	1 hour	Home