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A Propensity to Thrive: Occupational Therapy Students in Role-Emerging Placements through Understanding of Personality, Resilience and Entrepreneurship

Cade, Elizabeth E

2021

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A Propensity to Thrive: Occupational Therapy Students in Role-Emerging Placements through Understanding of Personality, Resilience and Entrepreneurship

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A Propensity to Thrive: Occupational Therapy Students in Role-Emerging Placements through Understanding of Personality, Resilience and Entrepreneurship

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Director of Studies: Professor M Robbins

Supervisor: Dr N Lloyd-Jones

Research was undertaken under the auspices of Glyndŵr University and was submitted in partial fulfilment for the award of a Degree of the University of Wales

April 2021

Thesis Declaration

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I hereby declare that this work has not been accepted in substance for any degree and is not currently being submitted in canditure for any degree

Signed (Candidate)

Date: 20th April 2021

Statement 2

This thesis is the result of my own inverstigation, except where otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by references.

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The research was completed under the guidance of:

Professor Mandy Robbins (Director of Studies), Glyndŵr University

In my capacity as main supervisor of the candidate, I certify that the above statements are true to the best of my knowledge

Signed (Director of Studies)

Date: 20th April 2021

Acknowledgements

This thesis is the culmination of a long journey undertaken as a professional doctorate student that commenced in 2011. Without the support, guidance and investment of time by many along the way, this post graduate study would not have been possible. I would like to offer my sincere thanks to my Director of Studies, Professor Mandy Robbins who believed in me, guided me with patience and encouragement throughout the ups and downs. I acknowledge the initial support from my supervisor Dr Nikki Lloyd-Jones who navigated me through the proposal stage of the study.

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I am indebted to you all and thank you for making this possible.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my mother, an occupational therapist who encouraged me into the profession many years ago. Sadly, not here to share this achievement but I am certain she would have been very proud of the journey I have undertaken. What an amazing profession occupational therapy is and how priviledged I am to be a part of it, educating and nurturing students to be the practitioners of the future.

.

Abstract

In addition to academic study, occupational therapy students require 1000 hours of practice-based learning to register as an allied health professional. Placements occur in traditional settings or in contemporary areas of practice. The third-sector with emerging and marginal settings is increasingly complimenting statutory services, shaping the profession through diversification and occupationally-focused practice. Unlike traditional placements, role-emerging settings do not have an on-site occupational therapist to supervise the student. This creates a more challenging experience, as students do not have a role-model to guide practice.

This study explores the practice of one University, where a personal approach to placement allocation allows for selection of undergraduate students with a natural propensity for undertaking these more challenging experiences. The aim of the study, to elucidate if and how the constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality determine a student's propensity to thrive in role-emerging placements and how these impact on the experience and its outcome.

A mixed-methods, convergent approach was adopted, using self-rating questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to gather data from two cohorts of students placed in either traditional or role-emerging placements.The qualitative data was analysed by employing an interpretative, inductive approach through a thematic analysis and the quantitative data underwent statistical analysis.

Combining the qualitative and quantitative results generated in-depth understanding, with findings indicating the students placed in role-emerging placements scored more highly in resilience and developed greater resilience as a consequence of their placement. These students scored higher in personality trait of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness and were more emotionally stable compared to the students in traditional placements. Agreeableness was positively correlated with greater resilience in these students.

This study concludes that role-emerging placements provide a platform to develop resilience and professional identity that all students should experience. With the diversification agenda these placements will become absorbed into the norm of

placement opportunities typically experienced without the need to differentiate. Curricula design and personal development should embed opportunities for students to nurture an openness to new experiences, with positive risk taking and building an ability to thrive. Allocation processes need to consider alignment of students to all placements regardless of their nature, optimising the outcome for student and the setting.

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Chapter 1 : Introduction

1.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter provides a context for the study and sets out the research aims and objectives that have guided the process from the proposal stage to design, data collection, analysis and writing up. An overview of the thesis will be provided, indicating the structure of the study and its presentation. A definition of role-emerging placements and their purpose within occupational therapy education is offered, set within the context of contemporary practice-based education. The study design is explained with a rationale for the use of a mixed-methods approach, adopting a convergent configuration, with both qualitative and quantitative data being collected, analysed and discussed simultaneously. Each chapter is outlined in section 1.9.

1.2 Insider Research, Positioning and Reflexivity

This research is situated in practice through the platform of professional doctorate study. Practice-based researchers have to be consciously aware of their positional stance in the research process and evidence a strong ethical approach through transparency giving mindful consideration to the risk of bias (Fulton and Costley, 2019). Insider research proffers a unique position to study a particular issue in depth with insider knowledge about that issue, where the researcher is situated in a prime position to investigate and make changes to a practice situation, through understanding of the complexity of the phenomenon being explored (Costley et al, 2010). Costley et al (2010) discuss the priviledge, power and politics that impact as a consequence of insider research and the notion of ethical 'care' for the participants. A reflexive and reflective critical account (Appendix 1) of the researcher, their positional stance of being a placement tutor within the University where the study was undertaken sets out and explores the issues and values of insider research. Whilst acknowledging the potential issues, such research can yield valuable insights that can be conveyed and are therefore worthy of interest to a wider audience. Chapter 9 and 10 offer critical discussion and recommendations for embedding the study findings in practice, informing occupational therapy education,

across into the higher education sector for healthcare and the occupational therapy profession more broadly.

1.3 The Context of the Study

Occupational therapy students have a mandatory requirement to complete 1000 hours of practice-based learning using placement experiences (Brown et al, 2015; WFOT, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; RCOT, 2019a; Thomas and Penman, 2019) before they are able to qualify and register as an allied health practitioner under the Health Care Professions Council (HCPC). All students must experience a range of placements across different settings, equipping them with the requisite knowledge and skills for practice. (HCPC, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a).

Over the last two decades there has been a shift from placement experiences being predominately in a traditional health and social care environment to a broader and more diverse range of settings (Bossers et al, 1997; Jepson et al, 2006; COT, 2006; Thew et al, 2008; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Overton et al, 2009; Warren et al, 2010/11; Clarke, 2012; Hunter, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2014a,b; Brown et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; RCOT, 2019a; Syed and Duncan, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020). These contemporary placements encompass project type experiences on the periphery of mainstream healthcare, to emerging areas of practice, in marginal settings such as charities and social enterprises (Fortune et al, 2006; Thew et al, 2008; Overton et al, 2009; Clarke et al, 2014b; Brown et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Tyminski, 2018; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020).

Students typically undertake traditional placements in the earlier stage of their training where they learn about the occupational therapy role and underpinning philosophy, modelling their practice on a qualified clinician known as a practice educator (Hunter, 2012; Towns and Ashby, 2014; RCOT, 2019a). Placement experiences are known to shape and promote professional identity through ontological development, as students are immersed in practice, where they observe and learn ways of being, doing, becoming, and belonging, that being, the essence

of occupational therapy, through building greater understanding of occupation-focused practice (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Wilcock, 1999; Watson, 2006; Dall'Alba, 2009; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a,b; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Lawler, 2014; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Clarke et al, 2015a; Thew et al, 2017; Bridges, 2018; Dancza et al, 2018a; Thew et al 2018; Clarke et al, 2019; Syed and Duncan, 2019; Gray et al, 2020).

As prudent healthcare agendas are instilled in practice (Welsh Government, 2016), the role of the occupational therapist typically aligns with mainstream service delivery to facilitate timely discharge and focused interventions, not necessarily allowing the full scope of practice, with a diminished *occupation* emphasis (Gillen and Greber, 2014; Fitzgerald, 2014; Kantzartis, 2019) The development of the contemporary placement has been three-fold (Hunter, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016). One, to increase capacity for placements, as evidence has indicated a significant shortage historically of placement provision to meet demand (Bossers et al, 1997; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Wood, 2005; Jepson et al, 2006; Overton et al, 2009; Schmitz et al, 2018; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). Two, the use of these placements has nurtured new and emerging opportunities for students with the potential to broaden and diversify the profession, shaping the paradigms over time (Bossers et al, 1997; Thew et al, 2008; Overton et al, 2009; Edwards and Thew, 2011; HCPC, 2013; Brown et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Gustafsson, 2016; Thew et al, 2017; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Dancza et al, 2018b; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018). Three, to embed an occupation-focus to practice (Thew et al, 2008; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Dancza and Rodger, 2018c; Thew et al, 2018). The underpinning philosophical worldview of the profession is a belief in health and well-being and how participation and engagement in everyday occupation can empower meaningful and purposeful structure bringing value for an individual (Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Wilcock and Hocking, 2015; Cox, 2017; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020). Occupational therapy can be used at individual, community and societal levels to nurture quality of life and shift healthcare away from the medical model to a wider social model of practice (Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; Clarke et al, 2014b; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Gillen and Greber, 2014; Algado and Townsend, 2015; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Wilcock and Hocking, 2015; Creek, 2017; Lopes and Malfitano,

2017; Thew et al, 2017; Kantartzis, 2019; Lauckner et al, 2019; Welsh Government, 2019a; WFOT, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020).

1.4 Defining Role-Emerging Placements

Contemporary placements, where there is an extended or advanced scope of practice, encompass role-emerging settings that are typically based within the third sector including charitable and social enterprise organisations, often meeting needs of marginal groups such as homeless people, asylum seekers, refugees and veterans (Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke 2012; Hunter, 2012; Gustafsson, 2016; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2017; Tyminski, 2018) or more generic services in mental health, and learning disabilities (Totten and Pratt, 2001; Smith et al, 2014). These organisations are set up and run outside of statutory services with their own governance and structures. The majority of these settings do not employ occupational therapists but do however, provide services that help facilitate transition, life skills, advocacy, health and well-being through goal setting and client-centred practice. An occupational therapy role has the scope to enhance existing services, by putting in place frameworks and processes underpinned with an occupational science theory base (Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; Creek, 2017: Cox, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Merryman et al, 2020; Duncan, 2020), where occupation-focused practice has the potential to optimise service delivery and outcomes for those who engage with the setting (Thew et al, 2018).

A role-emerging placement opens up an opportunity for a student to establish occupation-focused practice, shaping and enhancing existing services (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke et al, 2014b; Gustafsson, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Dancza et al, 2018b; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018). The student may be placed on their own or in pairs (Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; O'Connor et al, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b; Warren et al, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). The primary difference with these placements is that the student does not have an on-site profession-specific supervisor, who would ordinarily be a qualified occupational therapist. Instead, profession-specific supervision and guidance is provided by a long-arm supervisor who is off-site (Bossers, et al, 1997; COT, 2006; Clarke et al, 2014b). The student is accountable day-to-day to an on-site supervisor who may be the

manager of the organisation hosting the placement (COT, 2006; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Dancza et al, 2016; Warren et al, 2016; Copley and Dancza, 2018; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020).

1.5 Allocation to Contemporary Placements

Whilst the use of role-emerging placements is accepted as the norm for practice-based learning and these are well established in occupational therapy education (Bossers et al, 1997; COT, 2006; Thew et al, 2008; Overton et al, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Hunter, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Brown, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Kyte, et al, 2018; Schmitz et al, 2018; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; Syed and Duncan, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020), each university will have its own curriculum design and processes in place for practice-based learning, situated in a local context (Gustafsson, 2016). Students may be expected to undertake these placements as a compulsory element of the curriculum, possibly through a cohort approach and others may have a choice to undertake these experiences (Thew et al, 2008; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Treseder, 2012).

In the University where this study has been undertaken, placement allocation is compulsory and without choice, with not all students having a role-emerging placement. Those who are allocated to these experiences are selected, primarily based on their aptitude, being deemed more capable. Evidence indicates that students who do have a role-emerging placement face greater challenges, as they have to navigate their way through resistance of staff, differing expectations, unstructured governance and cultural polarity (Gregory et al, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Carey and Mechefske, 2016; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Clarke et al, 2019). One clearly evidenced value to these placements is an acceleration of students in developing their professional identity as they independently carve out a role to enhance service user outcomes (Bossers et al, 1997; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a; Clarke et al, 2015a; Boehm et al, 2015; Dancza et al, 2018a; Thew et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019). These placements demand resilience, attributes and qualities to promote professional behaviours and creativity, enabling students to not just survive but thrive as a consequence (Niemiec, 2019), with Kirke

et al (2007) and Thomas and Rodger (2011) noting desirable characteristics of capable students requisite to undertake these experiences. Sullivan and Finlayson (2000) pose the ethical diemma of placing students who are not deemed able to cope with the challenge and demands of role-emerging placements, suggesting careful selection and use of screening for desirable attributes.

1.6 The Aim

This study aims to explore and elucidate understanding of the allocation process and impact for occupational therapy students being placed in these more challenging placements. Furthermore, the study explores why some students are deemed more suited, than others to role-emerging placements through the constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality trait. The study explores what contributes to a positive legacy being left by the student in these placements that optimises perceptions of the profession. Why do some students have a propensity to thrive, turning the challenges into a positive and empowering experience? The study adopts an inductive approach through an exploratory design and is framed by three research objectives to meet the overall aim (Oliver, 2010; Harding, 2013). Each objective addresses a construct that when combined and synthesised as an entirety, brings a depth of understanding unachievable through exploring single elements on their own. A research question was not posed with the researcher taking a deliberative stance in the study design, being exploratory in nature and shaped predominantly by the qualitative inductive method being weighted favourably within a mixed-methods paradigm. Chapter 6 offers an in-depth justification for the adopted method and methodology.

1.7 Research Objectives

1) To explore the construct of resilience and how this allows a student to thrive in a role-emerging setting
2) To establish if students' personality traits are correlated to appropriate allocation and optimises outcomes in a role-emerging placement
3) To ascertain how an entrepreneurial mindset can be of value to occupational therapy students undertaking role-emerging placements.

1.8 The Literature Review

The use of a narrative literature review was adopted for this empirical study (Booth et al, 2016; Onwuegbuzie and Frels, 2016) where a purposeful and focused exploration allows for extensive reference to pertinent evidence and theory. According to Hart (2005) the review of the literature is important to inform understanding of the subject area, and previous research allowing building of new knowledge. Booth et al (2016) suggest approaches to the synthesis of the literature can be characterised as interpretive or configurative, where you seek a broad understanding of a phenomenon. 'Each study holds the potential to contribute additional insights but also contribute to the overall picture' (p22). As new insights emerge there is scope to shape and refine the process. Integrative reviews combine data from theoretical and empirical literature, as in this study. Onwuegbuzie and Frels (2016) suggest the literature review and its need to be conducted rigourously should be defensible within a rationale of inquiry, strategy and design. Equally, the review should be systematic, evaluative and transparent with Hart (2005) also indicating the quality is based on appropriate depth and breadth, with clarity and brevity to justify the approach to the subject, the selection of methods, and demonstrating that the research contributes something new.

The literature review was conducted using a range of resources to underpin the study with a relevant body of knowledge. Primarily this was drawn from primary research adopting qualitative, quantitative and mixed-method approaches. Systematic reviews and Cochrane reviews were included offering robust evidence within the review that supports the understanding and value of the hierarchy of evidence that best meets the needs of the study (Aveyard, 2019). Equally, policy and practice-based literature, theoretical literature and grey literature, including opinion pieces, was integral to the review so that the study aim and objectives could be met (Booth et al, 2016). Seminal work from theorists, within the historical context are also included, deemed requisite for an informed underpinning knowledge-base.

The search strategy primarily adopted use of the University on-line library catalogue 'Resource Finder' with advanced search function and use of Boolean operators. However, Aveyard (2019) whilst indicating electronic searches are most likely the mainstay, by adopting a single strategy will not capture all of the information and

further strategies should be employed. Booth et al (2016) suggest that for complex phenomena searching demands an iterative approach supplemented by additional techniques such as reference list checking, citation searching, author searching and manual searching are equally valid. Snowballing, a literature-searching technique using newly retrieved material opens a new starting point for further citation searches or working back from its references (Booth et al, 2016). This facilitates the development of the body of literature whilst also refining what is already known. In this study the adoption of this technique allowed an in-depth understanding of the complexity of the constructs such as resilience. The notion of thriving, grit and hardiness were a consequence in taking this iterative approach as the body of literature was explored, adding depth to this study.

An inclusion criteria used for searching primary data is outlined in Table 1.1 and key search terms are identified at the start of chapters 3,4 and 5 which form the literature review.

Table 1-1 - Inclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria
International Peer-reviewed Journals English language Primary Research studies of 10 years or less Full text only

The review is presented in three distinct chapters, each addressing a construct, these being personality, resilience and entrepreneurship. The nature of the review process typically lengthy in doctoral study took an iterative approach as the chapters were crafted and refined over time as an ongoing process (Ridley, 2010). In commencement of each stage of the study a scoping search was conducted followed by a refined search through a narrative approach (Booth et al, 2016; Onwuegbuzie and Frels, 2016). The literature and theory base for each construct is vast and the review demanded this purposeful and iterative approach allowing for capturing further pertinent research as it emerged. Profession-specific literature was a key driver within the review and was synthesised throughout the study, with Ridley (2010) suggesting is indicative of professional doctorate theses.

1.9 The Study Approach and Design

This study adopts a mixed-methods convergent approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methods (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2018). The methodology is an inductive, phenomenological design interpreting the lived experience of the students in placement experiences, using semi-structured interviews and a thematic analysis to systematically explore the data for codes, sub-themes and themes (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun and Clark, 2006; Braun and Clarke, 2013; Flick, 2018a). The quantitative data is collected using two measurement scales at differing intervals to score personality trait and resilience levels before and post placement. The discussion chapter synthesises both the qualitative and qualitative findings through the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship, and personality traits.

1.10 Overview of Chapters

Chapter two offers an in-depth exploration of occupational therapy practice-based learning and placement experiences, primarily focusing on role-emerging placements and the nature of these. This chapter also explores the context for these placements, their development and impact on diversification shaping the profession, providing a background in which to situate the study.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 presents the literature review to inform the study (Onwuegbuzie and Frels, 2016; Aveyard, 2019), with each chapter focusing on one of the core constructs of personality, resilience, and entrepreneurship. Each chapter develops understanding of the theories surrounding the construct and considers how these apply to this study, exploring the relevance through a robust critique of the evidence-base.

Chapter 6 provides an in-depth explanation of the mixed-methods approach combining the methodology with the methods adopted and employed. The use of a convergent approach using qualitative and quantitative strategies simultaneously and data collection tools is justified through a detailed rationale, allowing for pragmatism in the study design .

Chapter 7 and 8 present the qualitative and quantitative findings respectively. The qualitative data is offered through an in-depth analysis and is structured using the objectives with the themes and subthemes synthesised throughout. The quantitative findings are presented as statistical results, with scale properties and correlations set out in tabular format from the data of students in both traditional and role-emerging placements.

Chapter 9 is a comprehensive discussion that culminates from both the qualitative and quantitative findings and brings an exploration of these within the constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality. The interpretative nature of the qualitative approach combined with the objective measurement of the quantitative data allows for making sense of the research findings.

Chapter 10 concludes how the study has contributed to the generation of new knowledge, recommendations in practice, the limitations of the study and further research. This includes a conceptual model to inform the relationships between individual difference, the constructs and how these impact on competence and professional identity. The chapter offers the Model of Resilience, Entrepreneurship and Personality (REP) as a toolbox for practice informing development of competence and professional identity.

The appendices include a reflexive account of the researcher exploring the stance or worldview underpinning the study and methodology and how the values, beliefs, and subjective experiences influence the research and its process. This explores insider research within the context of practice-based studies, the ethical challenges exploring the priviledge, the power and the politics touched on earlier in this chapter. The ethical approval, data collection documents and measurement scales are included as appendices along with extracts of the thematic analysis.

Chapter 2 : Practice Education in Occupational Therapy

2.1 Outline of Chapter

To understand the nature and complexity of practice education within occupational therapy today requires deliberation of the contextual factors that shape and influence its development over time. Contemporary curriculum delivery and the tenet of occupation, being positioned centrally to this is discussed to provide understanding of the purpose and value of role-emerging placement experiences This chapter offers explanation of the role of the practice educator and the critical part they play in the facilitation of students' learning and development within the scope of their practice. The notion of professional identity and its development will be explored, alongside professional socialisation and how this differs in the contrasting settings of traditional and role-emerging or contemporary placements. The historical context will then convey how the profession and its paradigms have fundamentally shaped practice and practice education, so determining the current models of placement provision. The chapter discusses the broader healthcare agendas and how these drive the profession and placement provision in practice. The final part of the chapter explores the challenges and benefits of role-emerging placements.

2.2 Practice Education: A Core Requisite

2.2.1 The Nature of Placements in Occupational Therapy Education

The occupational therapy profession, and those who practice within it, acknowledge the fundamental purpose that practice education serves in the training of its students (Alsop and Ryan, 1996; Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Bossers et al, 1997; QAA, 2001; Jepson et al, 2006; Craik, 2009; Healey, 2011; Clampin, 2012; CAOT, 2012; Hunter, 2012; Lawrie and Polglase, 2012; COT, 2013, 2014a, 2015; Clarke et al, 2014b; Knightbridge, 2014; Smith et al, 2014; Brown et al, 2015; Roberts et al, 2015; AOTA, 2016; Gustafsson, 2016; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; WFOT, 2016; HCPC, 2017a; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Drynan et al, 2018; Schmitz et al, 2018; Brown et al, 2019; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; RCOT, 2019a; Syed and Duncan, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020). This premise is grounded in profession-specific standards that pertain to all students that enable them to qualify and register

as a practitioner (COT, 2014a; HCPC, 2012, 2013, 2016, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a). The World Federation of Occupational Therapists (WFOT) (2016) currently imposes the expectation that all students complete a minimum of 1000 hours of practice education across a range of placement settings. However, a professional dialogue is taking place across the globe to inform a forthcoming review of the pre-registration standards by WFOT. A key aspect will be to review the requisite compulsory attainment of 1000 hours (Thomas and Penman, 2019). Placements are integral and are embedded throughout the duration of the degree programme in blocks of varying time, being either full or part time in nature (Mason and Bull, 2006; Baxter and Bolton, 2010; COT, 2014a; Hamilton et al, 2015; WFOT, 2016; RCOT, 2019a). Practice education is therefore viewed as central to the educational process (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Craik, 2009; AOTA, 2016; WFOT, 2016; HCPC, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a) and is where students synthesise knowledge, develop professional skills and apply clinical reasoning to a level of competence ultimately required by a graduate occupational therapist (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Craik, 2009; Baxter and Bolton, 2010; Holmes et al, 2010; Cade and Polglase, 2012; COT, 2014a; Hamilton et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2016; Chambers et al, 2016; HCPC, 2017a; Short et al, 2017; RCOT 2019a).

Placements provide students an opportunity to situate their learning in real life contexts (Higgs and Edwards, 2002; Thomas et al, 2005; Higgs et al, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Knightbridge, 2014; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Brown et al, 2015; AOTA, 2016), where they can legimately participate in a supervised environment. This immersion is essential to producing skilled clinicians who are fit for practice (Evenson, 2009; Clampin, 2012; Gray et al, 2012; Lawrie and Polglase, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Smith et al, 2014; Chambers et al, 2016; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; RCOT 2019a). Experiential learning remains the most emphasised approach in occupational therapy education (Hooper et al, 2013), where skill acquisition and knowledge are created through the process and transformation in practice-based contexts (Treseder and Polglase, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Towns and Ashby, 2014). Curriculum delivery and placements can then serve to help a student develop beyond skills and knowledge, but to help them understand what is expected of them as a professional and to adopt such behaviours (Towns and Ashby, 2014).

Research suggests that situational learning within a practice context is the most influential aspect for students in developing and constructing their professional identity (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Clarke 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2015a; Boehm et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Dancza et al, 2018a; Thew et al, 2018; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; Matthews et al, 2019; Zubriski et al, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020; Gray et al, 2020) and that this is deemed important for forming values, beliefs, attitudes and understanding of role through professional socialisation (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Krusen, 2011; Stuart, 2013; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Ashby et al, 2016; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020; Gray et al, 2020). This prepares students for transition into professional practice and shapes the essence of who they are and who they become as a practitioner (Dall'Alba, 2009; Evenson, 2009; Trede and McEwan, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2015a; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Boehm et al, 2015; Ashby et al, 2016; Bridges, 2018; Matthews et al, 2019; Gray et al, 2020). The construct of identity and its significance will be explored later in this chapter, as exposure to professional socialisation, known to help shape professional identity, depends on the nature of the setting and placement model (Beveridge and Pentland, 2020).

Consequently, the critical importance of the remit of practice education (Gustafsson et al, 2017; Thomas and Penman, 2017), which according to Hamilton et al (2015) is acknowledged to be of concern to the profession, cannot be underestimated as to its influential impact upon the students and also for the broader context for the profession as a whole. Hamilton, (2015) furthermore suggests, the responsibility for the delivery of practice education lies with key stakeholders including employers, educators, and policy makers to ensure placement provision is fulfilling its purpose and addresses the demands for meeting healthcare and workforce agendas. Furthermore, Thomas and Penman (2017) report the increasing need for enhancing practice education through an ongoing research agenda and that the existing body of work provides a solid foundation on which to develop and build through future scientific enquiry.

Governmental policy acknowledges the essential nature of education and placements to the development of a well-trained, adaptable workforce valuing prudent healthcare, who can deliver high quality services (DoH, 2011, 2016; NHS

England, 2014, 2017, 2019; Welsh Government, 2016, 2019a&b; CoDoH, 2020; SCW and HEIW, 2020). With SCW and HEIW (2020) indicating ′the education and training pipeline makes a critical contribution to the supply of our workforce ….by delivering the kind of education, learning and training that supports future needs and future service models. In particular, we need to maximise the benefits from a graduate workforce with a focus on supporting people to work at the top of their licence/competence' (p24). Such strategic policy reflects collaborative and new ways of achieving this remit, through diversification and developing the breadth of opportunities that student's experience to inform their practitioner role, (Turner, 2011: DoH, 2011; Edwards and Thew, 2011; COT, 2013; Gray et al, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2014a; Clarke et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thomas and Penman (2017); RCOT, 2019a; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020), now more so than ever, in light of the covid-19 pandemic (WFOT, 2020). Practitioners and students have to be responsive, adaptable and pro-active to ever-changing healthcare demands. The need for resilience has become a fundamental aspect of professional practice.

Custom and practice of healthcare education through placement learning remains a mandatory element of curriculum delivery with regulatory standards stipulating placement provision should be procured across a diverse range of providers including third-sector and independent organisations (Jepson, 2006; Overton et al, 2009; Clampin, 2012; Hunter, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018; RCOT, 2019a; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). However, recent challenges to placement delivery open up scope for alternatives through different models such as simulation, student-led university-based clinics, telehealth and other creative ways of students learning core competencies (Hamilton et al, 2015; Gustafsson, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020; WFOT, 2020). Acceleration of this, as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic, when a significant number of placement experiences were postponed during the pandemic, has shifted the focus of student learning out of necessity, as the NHS responded to the crisis. However, these alternate models cannot wholly replace placements, that are still recognised as being pivotal to a student's learning and development (CoDoH, 2020; WFOT, 2020). Only a small proportion of practice-based learning can be achieved through

simulation, with the majority of the requisite 1000 hours captured through placement experiences (RCOT, 2020).

2.2.2 Models of Practice Education

Occupational therapy students are typically exposed to a range of placement settings and differing experiences of practice over the duration of their degree (COT, 2014; WFOT, 2016; RCOT 2019a). These placements fall into key categories or models of provision (Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020) in either statutory services including health and social care settings, known as role-established or traditional placements (Bossers et al, 1997; Hunter, 2012; Hunter and Volkert, 2016). Alternatively, they are established as non-statutory placements encompassing the voluntary, charitable and third-sector settings that are known as role-emerging or non-traditional placements (Bossers et al, 1997; Huddleston 1999; Totten and Pratt, 2001; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Wood, 2005; COT, 2006; Jepson, et al, 2006; Overton et al, 2009; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; RCOT, 2019a).

National audit data collated in 2011 from education providers, reports these placements are also labelled as *contemporary* suggesting they reflect practice at the forefront of healthcare, not necessarily marginal and radical services beyond the norm (COT, 2011). Contemporary placements, where there is an extended or advanced scope of practice, encompass settings such as the prison service and frontline settings such as Fire and Rescue, where different statutory bodies align. Equally, Hunter (2012) recommended use of *partnership placements* to encompass all forms that placement take, given the requisite for collaborative working regardless of the setting. This concurs with the broader direction healthcare is taking, with the statutory and third-sector increasingly working collaboratively in partnership for sustainable delivery of services (NHS England, 2014; NPCa&b, 2016; Welsh Government 2019a&b; SCW and HEIW, 2020). Within allied health, best practice has been acknowledged in building a flexible and responsive workforce, recognising that the occupational therapy profession has been a 'champion' in the development of these innovative placements (DoH, 2011; Kyte et

al, 2018). Hamilton et al (2015) suggests pressure of limited placement capacity continues to place a tension on the health sector and forces innovative solutions to be created. However, Kirke et al (2007) and Linnane and Warren (2017) argue of the danger in utilising innovative placements bringing risks of compromising fieldwork quality.

Despite debate within the profession, role-emerging placements are still widely regarded as a valid alternative to traditional placements and deemed of value on many levels. (Bossers et al, 1997; Thew et al, 2008; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Lawson-Porter, 2009; Overton et al, 2009; Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Clarke et al, 2019; Syed and Duncan, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). The distinct nature of healthcare organisations where placements occur and their purpose is therefore becoming less defined with blurring of roles, integrated provision of services and procurement across the sectors. This fundamental shift in healthcare delivery will be explored later in the chapter. Regardless of the terminology applied to these placements, the most notable difference between the placement types of setting is whether occupational therapy services and roles are established within them or not (Bossers et al, 1997; COT, 2006).

Literature suggests these types of placement have a long, established history within the occupational therapy profession and that their differing nature and purpose has been borne out of a three-fold requisite (Alsop and Ryan, 1996; Bossers et al, 1997; Johnson et al, 2006, Overton et al, 2009; Hunter, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013). Firstly, there is widespread recognition of the need to develop non-traditional and role-emerging placements in response to the shortage of provision within the statutory healthcare settings and increased student numbers (Huddleston, 1999; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Craik and Turner, 2005; Wood, 2005; Thomas et al, 2005; Jepson et al, 2006; Kirke et al, 2007; DoH, 2011; Hunter, 2012; Roberts et al, 2015; Gustafsson, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018). Secondly, the need for the occupational therapy profession to respond to workforce changes and diversify service delivery agendas acknowledged in policy (COT, 2014b; WFOT, 2016, NHS England, 2017; Welsh Government, 2019a; SCW and HEIW, 2020) and research evidence (Overton et al, 2009; Treseder, 2012; van Bruggen, 2014;

Hamilton, 2015; Schmitz et al, 2018; van Rensberg, 2018; Leclair et al, 2019). Thirdly, the recognised need to embed an occupation-focused philosophy within practice, historically difficult to achieve and often elusive in traditional settings where constraints surround practice, given the paradigms bring a ‘medicalised’ focus for many clinicians (Thomas et al, 2005; Fortune et al, 2006; Molineux and Baptiste, 2011; Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Boehm et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018).

2.3 The Tenet of Occupation Driving Curriculum Design

Education providers delivering pre-registration occupational therapy curricula are expected to meet learning and development standards that reflect current and future needs of the profession (WFOT, 2016, HCPC, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a). In recognising that the profession is not static, but instead responsive and evolving and that graduates must establish a stong sense of identity as well as having core skills, knowledge and professionalism to take the profession forward. ‘The values and beliefs central to occupational therapy remain largely unchanged, however, the shape and form of our services are dynamic as are the contexts within which they are delivered’ (p1) (RCOT, 2019a). ‘Occupation’ must be core and explicit within curriculm design and must allow students to experience the transformative potential of occupation and to situate this as the central tenet of the profession (RCOT, 2019a). Universities must ensure academic and practice-based learning embed occupation at the heart of the curricula. Where historically learning has occurred in role-established or traditional settings, the use of alternative and non-traditional settings for practice-based learning helps to cement this firmly within the curriculum (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012).

This shift addresses the fundamental importance of occupation in achieving health and well-being which now serves as a catalyst and offers the profession a long awaited opportunity to diversify, push boundaries and lead with visionary thinking, shaping contemporary healthcare through education (Pattison, 2008, 2010; Holmes and Scaffa, 2009; Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; COT, 2013, 2017; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Brown et al, 2015; Jackson, 2015; Clewes, 2016; Gustafsson, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Kantarzis, 2019). Role-emerging placements have seemingly provided a controversial and debatable stopgap solution in

addressing both placement shortages and redeveloping agendas, where students can serve as ambassadors for the profession and articulate the value and purpose of occupational-focused practice (Bossers et al, 1997; Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Thomas et al, 2005; Alsop, 2006; Cameron and Morley, 2007; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Lawson-Porter, 2009; Baxter and Bolton, 2010; Healey, 2011; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Thew et al, 2017,2018; Schmitz et al, 2018). Cooper and Raine, (2009) suggest this as being an essential risk for the development of the occupational therapy profession as practitioners lay the foundations for the shift towards a contemporary occupation-focused paradigm in practice.

2.4 The Practice Educator: Roles and Responsibilities

Occupational therapists who regularly engage in the supervision of students are known as practice educators (COT, 2014a; WFOT, 2016; RCOT 2019a). The practice educator is an experienced clinician who has developed knowledge and expertise in their area of practice with a role in the facilitation of student learning (Cross et al, 2006; Rodger et al, 2011, 2014; Cade and Polglase, 2012; Hall et al, 2012; O'Connor et al, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Bell et al, 2014; Towns and Ashby, 2014; BDA, 2016; NHS Education for Scotland, 2016; RCOT, 2019a). The designated educator has a responsibility to guide the student through the supervisory process and to ensure the student meets the expected competency outcomes for the placement (Copley and Nelson, 2012; Polglase and Treseder, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Bell et al, 2014; COT, 2014a; Gopee, 2015; WFOT, 2016; Short et al, 2017; RCOT, 2019a). The role of being an accredited practice educator is not mandatory within occupational therapy in the United Kingdom. However, there is a professional expectation to provide practice-based opportunities for students and to demonstrate involvement in student education (DoH, 2011; COT, 2016a, 2017; HCPC, 2017b).

Professional registration is explicitly dependent on evidence of continuing professional development (CPD) (HCPC, 2012, 2017b; COT, 2017). Engaging in and facilitation of practice-based education serves as contributory evidence to meeting this requisite (Ellison and Tempest, 2016; Warren et al, 2016; HCPC, 2017b; RCOT 2017). Practice education also supports postgraduate career development through embedding the educator role within the four pillars of practice,

one of which is in the facilitation of learning (NHS Wales, 2010; NHS Education for Scotland, 2016; RCOT, 2017; Interprofessional CPD and Lifelong Learning UK Working Group, 2019). However, the nature of involvement in practice education varies from delivery of a one off learning experience such as providing a shadowing, observational experience, to the facilitation of a placement over a period of several months with full supervisory responsibilities. A clinician's decision to engage in placement provision is multi-faceted and is influenced by complex intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Unpublished MSc research by Cade (2010) outlines findings such as the importance of organisational culture and managers supporting educators to embed practice-based learning as a norm within practice. Additionally, this 'bottom up, opt in' approach in choosing to take students relies upon an intrinsic desire by clinicians to share their expertise. These clinicians willingly act as competent role models and inspire students regardless of the challenges and practicalities such as workload pressure or working part-time, often adopted as a reason for not taking students (Adamson, 2005; Kirke et al, 2007; Thomas et al, 2007; Cade, 2010).

Skills and competence of the practice educator are requisite to facilitating an effective placement experience achieved through training and development platforms (RCOT, 2019a). Accreditation processes are on the cusp of change as the nationally recognised accreditation scheme for practice education (APPLE) is phased out. The expectation is now under the remit of universities to ensure practice educators, who are responsible for student learning in placements, are trained, prepared and updated (HCPC, 2017a; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019; RCOT, 2019a). However, as accreditation is currently not an explicit requirement for professional registration, allows practitioners to 'opt in' to complete educator training enabling them to competently offer student placements, knowing they are prepared to do so. Thomas and Rodger (2011) indicate success of role-emerging placements is aligned to preparation of the student, the on-site and long arm supervisor as being key. The complexity and influences that impact upon a clinician and their decision to engage in practice education are not a remit of this study. However, understanding of the practice educator role in practice and what it entails is fundamental to placement provision regardless of whether these are traditional or role-emerging in nature and therefore has a relevance to the background of this study.

Practice educators play a vital part in the education of students; they often do more than just facilitate learning but act as an inspiration to students and contribute to student development in unique and individual ways (Healey, 2005; Craik, 2009; Rodger et al, 2014). Practice educators therefore serve as role models to their students (Mulholland et al, 2006; Kirke et al, 2007; Rodger et al, 2011; Stuart, 2013; Linnane and Warren, 2017), and are described by Baird and Winter (2005) as one of the most critical elements of practice education. Flynn (2011) suggests that role modelling is key to character formation and that 'this in turn can direct personal and professional growth and development' (p167). Practice educators portray the attributes that are expected of healthcare professionals, including personal qualities such as behaviour, attitudes and values (Stuart, 2013). These qualities should be witnessed by students in the observable actions of the educator, and in so doing, reflect a strong, professional ethos within their practice for students to mirror and learn from (Flynn, 2011; Peloquin, 2011; Rodger et al, 2014). Ashby et al, (2016) align this to professional socialisation, that is achieved through immersion in placement environments where the student is working alongside occupational therapists, absorbing the essence and culture, shaping professional identity (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Brown et al, 2015; Matthews et al, 2019).

2.5 Professional Identity and Socialisation

2.5.1 Developing Professional Identity as a Transformational Process

The educational process brings more than the acquisition of theory, knowledge and skills but is known to inform the foundations for development of professional identity through a transformational process (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Dall'Alba, 2009; Webb et al, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Higgs et al, 2012; Towns and Ashby, 2014; Brown et al, 2015; Ashby et al, 2016; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; RCOT, 2019a) that in turn establishes an occupational-focused philosophy underpinning a clinicians practice (COT, 2013; Boehm et al, 2015; Clarke et al, 2015a; Ashby et al, 2016; WFOT, 2016; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Dancza and Rodger, 2018c; Thew et al, 2018).

Identity formation involves helping students to form the character, dispositions, beliefs, values, ways of knowing, and ways of seeing that embody the profession's

unique ethos (Peloquin, 2005, 2011; Lawler, 2014; Matthews et al, 2019; ADEE, 2020), which Hooper (2008) suggests, allows students to grasp what kind of person they are to be as an occupational therapist. Davis, (2006) discusses how the community of practice informs identity development through a reflexive process and professional discourse (Webb et al, 2009). This shaping of professional identity is deemed important within occupational therapy, facilitating successful transition from student to practitioner and socialisation into the profession (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a; Ashby et al, 2016; Brown et al, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Matthews et al, 2019). Mackey (2011) expresses identity both in terms of the role individuals play in shaping their own professional distinctiveness and the collective shared identity through membership of a professional group achieved through being an occupational therapist. These interactions through practice exposure and engagement with peers, learning and jouneying together facilitate the development of professional identity (O'Connor et al, 2012; Bridges, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). Mackey (2011) also suggests social cognitive processes inform this membership in how ways of belonging are initiated and upheld, which is important for obtaining role-valued recognition from others and protecting professional boundaries. This recognition comes from the wider collective of healthcare professions, the public, those who have need for occupational therapy services, and from within the profession itself.

Boehm et al (2015) suggests that students' construct this sense of identify through belonging to a community where they are able to actively participate throughout the duration of their study. This transformational process starts to evolve from the beginnings of being an occupational therapy student and exposure to placement experiences throughout the duration of the educational journey (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Bridges, 2018; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; Matthews et al, 2019; Gray et al, 2020). Furthermore, identifying with a chosen profession comes from exposure to wider student platforms such as belonging to university societies and student membership of the professional body, the Royal College of Occupational Therapists, alongside and in addition to curricula delivery (Gray et al, 2020). According to Ashby et al (2016) the development and maintenance of professional identity provides a 'protective factor that sustains professional resilience and career longevity allowing practitioners to combat issues such as role-blurring and difficulty enacting occupation-based practice' (p234). This allows practitioners to work successfully in

environments where they may be the only occupational therapist or in generic posts where roles are non-profession specific including role-emerging placements. Therefore the nature of the setting in which occupational therapists and students practice is of importance in initiating, shaping and upholding this concept of professional identity (Thew et al, 2018; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020; RCOT, 2019a).

Hooper (2008) and Gray et al, (2020) discuss the notion that identity formation is influenced by implicit curriculum that encompasses the culture of the educational programme, also argued by Ashby et al (2016) that the main implicit curricula component experienced by occupational therapy students is the 1000 hours of practice education (WFOT, 2016; RCOT 2019a). Each university designs its curricula and practice-based learning element to facilitate and optimise development of competence, professional behaviours and values in readiness of becoming a graduate practitioner, with the tenet of occupation, being core, underpinning a learner’s professional identity (RCOT, 2019a).

2.5.2 Professional Socialisation

McIntosh (2011), Brown et al, (2015), Constable (2018) and Gray et al (2020) discuss the notion of professional socialisation and that placements afford opportunities for assimilation of discipline-specific norms as a means of developing professional identity, reflecting early research findings by Thompson and Ryan (1996). With Stuart (2013) suggesting students become professionals through the transformational process of professional socialisation. Ashby et al (2016) echoes this concept and suggests ‘socialisation opportunities afford students with experiences, acquisition of knowledge and skills which contribute to the internalisation of values and norms central to the construction of professional identity’ (p234). The placement environment generates tacit knowledge and professional development through exposure to these experiences (Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014).

Furthermore, Krusen (2011) offers supporting evidence suggesting placement environments provide enculturation in addition to socialisation. Students have to develop understanding of the unique cultures and abide by these, often achieved by

listening and observing routines of experienced practitioners. This suggests the value of this through social cognitive mechanisms that enable individuals to interpret sitautions and behave accordingly, discussed further in chapter 3. Where there is no profession-specific occupational therapy role model, as in non-traditional placements, the students learn to fit in by 'sink or swim' methods and employ strategies of adaptation to a greater degree than in traditional settings. This could also be assumed to be employed through self-efficacy and emotional intelligence that is increasingly recognised of importance for practitioners and is discussed further in chapter 3 (Chaffey et al, 2012; Andonian, 2013; McKenna and Mellson, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Brown et al, 2017b; Gribble et al, 2018; Perkins and Schmid, 2019). (Clarke (2012) concurs, with key findings based upon the student's sense of being 'thrown in' and 'going it alone' due to professional isolation in role-emerging placements. With Warren et al (2016), Linnane and Warren (2017) and Beveridge and Pentland (2019, 2020) indicating that the long-arm supervision model restricts opportunities for professional socialisation and role-modelling as the student is working without direct exposure to a qualified practitioner.

Placements that bring professional isolation, such as role-emerging settings, where a student is immersed in a team where cultural and professional expectations are at odds to discipline-specific norms, typically exposed to in traditional settings, could create a more challenging, even negative placement experience, affecting confidence and identity formation (Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Gregory et al, 2011; Hunter and Volkert, 2016). Governance, organisational structures and practice cultures can appear remarkedly different to those in mainstream health and social care settings creating a tension and discomfort for the student as they navigate their way through the placement. Described by Clarke et al (2015b) as 'facing unchartered waters', these adverse and challenging placements, can, however, also allow students to draw positives by recognising what is poor or unfavourable practice and selecting which elements to disregard or base their own development upon.

However, in contrast, role-emerging placements can enhance professional identity by the interactions with those outside of the profession, affording opportunities to reflect on their own ways of being and becoming an occupational therapist (Clarke et al, 2019). Working as an occupational therapist would do, the students learn the

skills, values and beahviours of the profession, often accelerated in these experiences (Clarke et al, 2014a).

Furthermore, through striving to demonstrate the value of occupational therapy in non-traditional settings allows for greater opportunity to develop this sense of identity (Clarke et al, 2012, 2014a, 2014b; 2015a, 2019; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2018). Equally, this notion depends upon students aleady having an understanding of the occupational therapy role, allowing them to draw parallels and deductions on which to inform their own practice and in establishing the role competently (Wood, 2005; Linnane and Warren, 2017).

Placement experiences, regardless of their setting are known to influence students through exposure to the cultural ethos and the team dynamics of the staff within it (Krusen, 2011; Stuart, 2013). Where practice environments are supportive and value the occupational therapy role, instils respect creating a positive experience, shaping perceptions held by the student to inform their own development and identity (Kirke et al, 2007; McIntosh, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Stuart, 2013; Gopee, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Clarke et al, 2019; Golos and Tekuzener, 2019; Matthews et al, 2019; Gray et al, 2020).

2.6 Curricula Design and Delivery

Placement learning has to be embedded throughout the curriculum within each academic level, and or, year of study and must offer a logical progression (RCOT, 2019a). Students are expected to experience a wide range of practice-based learning opportunities with scope for these taking place in settings where there is no occupational therapist currently employed (RCOT, 2019a). Whilst educational standards stipulate this, the design and delivery is dependent on local, contextual factors, the culture and characteristics pinned on the uniqueness of each programme. Capacity and demand also impacts on the scope to accommodate all students in diverse placement experiences. Some education providers expect compulsory exposure to role-emerging placements as a requisite for all students, whilst others take a more eclectic approach, where some students may have this opportunity but not all. Models of practice education remain at the forefront of discussion and decision-making for education providers with the numerous facets,

stakeholders and complexity driving and shaping reality of custom and practice (Thompson and Ryan, 1996; Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Brown et al, 2015; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic further shaping these models of placement delivery as innovative practice is now requisite across services (WFOT, 2020).

Historically, students have undertaken placements across a range of mainstream settings within health and social care organisations (Jepson et al, 2006; Healy, 2011; DoH, 2011). These settings are where occupational therapists are predominantly employed and are therefore where the majority of placement experiences occur (Hunter, 2012; Hamilton et al, 2015). Students are typically placed in hospital settings such as in-patient acute wards, community teams and specialist settings such as orthopaedics, wheelchair services and stroke or cardiac rehabilitation.

These traditional health and social care settings are typically deemed to be most suited to initial immersion in placement experiences where core skills, knowledge and identity can be constructed under the continual guidance of a practice educator (Hunter, 2012). The student has the benefit of an occupational therapy educator to work alongside and be guided by, so would suggest greater scope for developing and forming professional identity. Having an on-site occupational therapy educator in a traditional placement setting fosters role-modelling, professional socialisation and facilitates student learning with consolidation of occupational therapy skills, which some argue is less likely to be achieved through role-emerging placements where there is no on-site occupational therapist to provide profession-specific guidance (Wood, 2005; Kirke et al, 2007; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020).

Boehm et al (2015) suggests it is however, through the latter stages of training that the sense of identity aligns with attainment of desirable graduate attributes allowing transition into practice. Gray et al, (2020) in recent study findings, conclude that second year students can still be struggling to form their professional identity supporting the concern that not all students would cope with a placement where a strong sense of identity is requisite. This notion pertains to common practice within the educational sector of the profession, where students are assigned to placement

types in line with the stage of their training (COT, 2006, 2011; Linnane and Warren, 2017). The more challenging role-emerging placements, where there is no profession specific on-site supervision to guide practice are typically utilised by students in later stages of training (COT, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Linnane and Warren, 2017) as it is deemed more appropriate to draw upon core skills, knowledge and a sense of professional identity that are already established (Wood, 2005). Evidence suggests these experiences are also recognised as where students can develop a greater sense of professional identity, as they have be autonomous practitioners, shaping their own role without fitting into established practice in an existing occupational therapy service (Thew et al, 2008; Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Thomas and Rodger, 2011; Clarke, 2014a, 2015a; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020).

Contemporary placements in emerging areas of practice are known to offer opportunity for greater occupation-focused practice in contrast to traditional settings in health and social care (Thomas et al, 2005; Fortune et al, 2006; Molineux and Baptiste, 2011; Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; Clarke et al, 2014b; Boehm et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018) offering students a means to learn about occupation as a core tenet informing their professional identity (Clarke et al, 2014b; RCOT, 2019a). This dichotomy of how students can learn the true value of occupation, whilst in medically driven settings, such as hospital environments, generates a fundamental tension, where immersion in emerging ares of practice can fulfil this need. However, apprehension and concern over these experiences articulated by Cooper and Raine, (2009), and discussed within this chapter, yield a consensus that students should be exposed to these placements in the second half of their training, as a degree of professional identity has already been established through exposure to professional socialisation in role-established settings (Linnane and Warren, 2017).

2.7 Shaping the Profession

2.7.1 The Paradigms Across Time: A Potted History

Delivery of practice education has been shaped over time, as paradigm shifts influence the underpinning philosophies guiding occupational therapy practice in the

context of healthcare agendas (Wood, 2005; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Rodger et al, 2009; Healey, 2011; Hunter, 2012; Kearsely, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020). Duncan (2020) suggests paradigm shifts are 'the moments in which shared vision and understanding of a field changes and a new consensus regarding the fundamental beliefs of the profession is adopted' (p18). Higgs (2009) suggests that a professions history provides an understanding of the way current practice and knowledge emerges. Practice education has responded and contributed to this evolution: how the profession educates its students today is determined by changes in cultural, political, social and educational contexts (Roberts et al, 2015). Regulatory bodies governing education delivery, recognise and instil the need for students to experience a breadth of learning experiences that meet contemporary agendas addressing prudent healthcare and well-being through the stipulation of placements in a range of settings across sectors (DoH, 2011; COT, 2013; NHS England, 2014; Welsh Government, 2016; WFOT, 2016; HCPC, 2017a; RCOT 2019a; SCW and HEIW, 2020). Higgs (2009) further argues the importance of making 'explicit our epistemology' (p26) in practice and education that allows us to consider ways of knowing and how we come to exist. With Dall'Alba (2009) suggesting professional ways of 'being' must come about through a transformational process, focusing beyond the epistemology or what students know and can do, with a need to explore ontological considerations relating to who students are 'becoming'. Practice education within occupational therapy is therefore symbiotic, where each shapes the other over time.

During the 1940s and 1950s the profession came under pressure from the field of medicine to become more scientific, objective, measurable and medically driven (Kielhofner, 2009; Molineux and Baptiste, 2011). This period informed practice over the following three decades, which Duncan (2020) describes as the 'mechanistic paradigm' suggesting practice was systematic, reductionist and therapist led. This prescriptive, biomedical approach placed impairment and disease as the central construct, where meaningful occupation was disregarded (Wilcock and Hocking, 2015: Hocking and Wilcock, 2020). Healey (2011) suggests this caused discomfort for the profession as it adapted ways of working to fit within a medical-model based system.

A shift in the late 1980s brought a call for the profession to resume an occupation-focus to practice having diluted and lost this over the previous decades (Duncan, 2020). The shift brought back empowerment of individuals through engagement in meaningful occupation (Ikiugu and Pollard, 2015). This 'occupational' paradigm continues to shape the profession, allowing practitioners to evaluate their roles and services in light of this philosophical foundation, with the therapeutic goal of engagement in occupations to promote health, well-being and meaningful participation (Kielhofner, 2005; Holmes and Scaffa 2009; Baptiste and Molineux, 2012; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Wilcock and Hocking, 2015; COT, 2017; WFOT, 2016; Thew et al, 2017; Kantartzis, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020).

2.7.2 Career Pathways

Education and training are fundamental to the development of a safe and effective workforce meeting the demands of legislation and driving implementation of key agendas (DoH, 2011; HM Government, 2012; NHS, 2014; WEDS, 2016, WFOT, 2016; Welsh Government 2019a&b; SCW and HEIW, 2020). The Department of Health and the National Health Service (NHS) has had a commissioning role within the United Kingdom to educate healthcare students (Healey, 2011, HEE, 2016). However, UK wide differences now exist between the four nations (Wilson and Baldwin, 2015), with Wales continuing to employ commissioning of health education. This driving force, as a means to facilitate placement provision, based upon commissioned-based education, aligns to local health boards, that inevitably exposes students to placement experiences predominantly in the NHS. Bodies such as Health Education Improvement Wales (HEIW) generate workforce plans based on staffing levels and predicted staffing for delivery of services (SCW and HEIW, 2020). This exposure within the established norm and career path structure usually dictates the chosen route post qualification, where many graduates secure employment in the NHS. Occupational therapists typically remain working in mainstream services for the duration of their career and consequently this sector has the highest number of clinicians in practice compared to the third or independent sectors (Centre for Workforce Intelligence, 2012; HEE 2016). However, evidence now indicates that the impact of increasing use of role-emerging placements can enhance skills in qualified practice, particulary in innovative service development. This opens up employment outside of established roles in mainstream health

sectors as an alternative career path (Clarke et al, 2014b; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018; Syed and Duncan, 2019).

The nature of being a registered health professional with a protected title (HCPC) brings employment status and structured career progression with associated salary, which may preclude employment choices in the third sector in an explicit occupational therapy role. Statistical trends in workforce demographics estimate 64.7% of occupational therapy registrants being situated in the NHS compared to 35.3% in other sectors in 2014. In direct comparison to 2011, just 3 years earlier figures reflected 72.8% in NHS posts and 27.2% in non-NHS employment (Health Education England, 2016). This demographic shift may impact on the profession through a process of natural evolution, as graduates move away from traditional role recruitment and take posts in the third and independent sector (Schmitz et al, 2018). Such posts may not have the protected job title but are commensurate in terms of the occupational therapy skills that can be clearly implemented to benefit those in need of the service provided (Healey, 2011). Jackson (2015) and Kantartzis (2019) suggests the need for courage to push boundaries and take risks to shape the profession and healthcare delivery. This transformative opportunity for occupational therapy places the profession at the heart of service delivery but it remains uncertain how and where clinicians will situate themselves in practice as commissioners see their role firmly within medical model structures (Thew et al, 2017; Welsh Government, 2019a).

Placement experiences can be powerful facilitators of career choice both in terms of exposure to an area of practice not previously considered as desirable, through networking and creating opportunities for employment (Rodger et al, 2007; Rodger et al, 2009; Kearsley, 2012; Knightbridge, 2014; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018). Placements also allow for immersion within the scope to practice as the profession intended, through an occupation-focused lens, not always feasible in mainstream clinical settings (Molineux and Baptiste, 2011; Dancza and Rodger, 2018c). Diverse placement experiences optimise this scope of practice for graduate therapists beyond the norm of statutory healthcare settings (Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Syed and Duncan, 2019; OT News, 2020a&b). Practice educators and placement experiences therefore shape and influence the ontological development of a student and their own professional

identity, which in turn informs the practitioner they become and where they practice (Davis, 2006; Craik, 2009; Hooper, 2008; Dall'Alba, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2014b; Boehm et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2015; Ashby et al 2016; Thomas and Penman, 2017; Matthews et al, 2019; RCOT, 2019a). Furthermore, embedding entrepreneurship in curriculum delivery, such as exposure to social enterprise, highlighting its value and alignment to occupational therapy can serve to inspire students into exploring broader opportunities and business potential.

2.7.3 Positioning the Profession

Through the profession adopting a stronger occupational perspective creates a catalyst in which to diversify the practice arena and develop the scope of the occupational therapy role. The past decade has witnessed a growing momentum in the emergence of new and diverse areas of practice and these are now pivotal in meeting healthcare and education agendas at a national and global level (Thew et al, 2008; Holmes and Scaffa, 2009; Healy, 2011; Centre for Workforce intelligence (CFWI), 2012; COT, 2013; DoH, 2013; Gillen and Greber, 2014; Van Bruggen, 2014; Bergson, 2015; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Public Health England, 2015; NCP, 2016b; Creek, 2017; Thew et al, 2017, 2018; Kantartzis, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020). However, the reality of practice and roles for many clinicians working predominently within traditional health and social care sectors remain distanced from the idyll of an occupational paradigm (Gillen and Greber, 2014; Fiztgerald, 2014; Jackson, 2015).

Recent legislative statutes in the United Kingdom are accelerating this pace of change and offer key driving forces that encapsulate the essence of occupational therapy practice. The Care Act (2014) applicable to England and in Wales, the Social Services and Well-being Act (2014), The Well-being of Future Generations Act (2015) and A Healthier Wales (Welsh Government, 2019b) bring fundamental change of emphasis to healthcare delivery where personalisation and innovation is at the heart of integrated services (COT, 2014b, 2016c; NHS, 2019). In so doing, this presents a timely mode in which to focus on diversification and in accelerating the shift of the professions domain of concern; that being occupation (Kantartzis, 2019). The profession has to capture the moment and use these key agendas and opportunities to its advantage (Gillen and Greber, 2014; Jackson, 2015; Kantartzis,

2019, WFOT, 2019; Welsh Government, 2019a), so services and the communities they deliver to can benefit and students can be instrumental in realising this (Public Health England, 2015; Ikiugu and Pollard, 2015; Welsh Government, 2019a; WFOT, 2019). There is a responsibility within the education sector to ensure that occupational therapy graduates are able to withstand the shifting nature of contemporary healthcare if the profession is to have an enduring presence with recognition of the value our practice can bring (WFOT, 2016, SCW and HEIW, 2020). Role-emerging placements serve as a key platform to drive this forward (Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Thew et al, 2017, 2018; RCOT 2019a).

2.7.4 A Fundamental Shift in Healthcare

The National Health Service (NHS) has historically been the cornerstone of our society providing universal healthcare regardless of age, race, social status or ability to pay (NHS England, 2014). Other statutory responsibilities lie in the remit of local authorities. Both sectors, exist as vast and complex bureaucracies holding decision-making powers in where and how the needs of society are met.

A key impetus for the radical shift in healthcare comes from the sustainability of the National Health Service given current trends and future demands. Resources are targeted and are at capacity in meeting health and social care needs in an increasingly diverse society. (NHS, 2014; NCP, 2016a, NHS England, 2017; NHS England, 2019; Welsh Government 2019b). With an intensifying burden on service provision, an ageing population and the pressure upon budgets to target priority interventions for complex issues, the NHS has to evolve to meet these new challenges (DoH, 2010; HM Government, 2010; Wilson and Baldwin, 2015; NHS, 2019; Welsh Government, 2019a&b; SCW and HEIW, 2020). Hancher-Rauch et al, (2020) discuss the further impact of COVID-19 shaping roles and responsibilities in rapidly shifting public health priorites.

With Thew et al (2017) suggesting commissioners of emerging services including social prescribing overlook occupational therapy, perceiving the profession to be situated in hospital-based services and rehabilitation, equipment provision and home adaptation services in social care sectors. Placement evaluation, serving as anecdotal evidence, highlights students are often despondent with their exposure to

mainstream services that are based upon discharge planning and lack of occupationally-focused interventions, creating an ongoing tension for the profession (Gillen and Greber, 2014). Kantarzis (2019) suggests our understanding of the problems and possible solutions had led to how we practice within existing health service delivery and that a new lens is required through a complex systems approach. One where we position ourselves as a profession to influence future delivery of practice (Welsh Government, 2019a).

The NHS Long Term Plan (NHS England, 2019) sets out a shared view to shape universal services through greater engagement with communities and to promote health, well-being and longevity. Occupational therapists understand that for individuals to thrive and remain healthy in the long term they need to be able to engage in meaningful activity and facilitate occupational performance (NHS England, 2017). For this reason the profession, within allied health is ideally situated to be central to these changes (Welsh Government, 2019a). The ambitious vision allows occupational therapists to step aside from the constraints of existing and traditional roles and strengthen beliefs, and values in occupation as a powerful enabler of health and well-being through creative service provision (Thew, 2011; Fortune and Kennedy-Jones, 2014; Hocking, 2014; Public Health England, 2015; Ikiugu and Pollard, 2015; Kantartzis, 2019; Lauckner et al, 2019; Welsh Government, 2019b). Role-emerging placements serve as a vehicle to drive this forward opening up opportunities for shaping healthcare delivery (Thew et al, 2017; Schmitz et al, 2018; Welsh Government 2019a).

2.8 Role-Emerging Placements: The Challenges and Benefits

The challenging nature of role-emerging placements brings different rationale to the use of these in practice (Gregory et al, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Schmitz et al, 2018). Early research urged caution in determining whether these experiences are appropriate for occupational therapy students to undertake (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Wood, 2005; Kirke et al, 2007; Cooper and Raine, 2009), whilst other studies suggest all students should undertake a role-emerging placement as a compulsory requisite (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012, Clarke et al, 2014b). Individual universities need to consider curriculum design, placement focus, resources and capacity in a local context, whilst meeting

regulatory standards that stipulates the need for a range of placement experiences (HCPC, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a).

In role-emerging placements, students have to work autonomously, without the benefit of an occupational therapist on-site, receiving profession-specific supervision in a long-arm model (COT, 2006; Polglase and Treseder, 2012; Clarke, 2014b, 2015b, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). Studies, suggest that students require a strong sense of professional identity before embarking in these placements (Wood, 2005) and that not all students would cope without a role-model in practice (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Clarke et al, 2014b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017). Typically, students are placed in pairs where they can benefit from peer support and shared learning. (Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; O'Connor et al, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b; Warren et al, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). Whilst this can be a positive, can equally create tensions between the students themselves and host setting as a consequence of individual differences in personality and aptitude. An ability of the students to work together with complimentary or shared values and disposition will help to negate this occurring.

Many studies exploring role-emerging placements maintain that these experiences are challenging but equally value the nature of them that facilitates ontogical development and a strong sense of professional identity, amongst other benefits (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2014b, 2015b, 2019). The challenges go beyond the student, but can be equally evident for the placement host, who may have different expectations, role misinterpretation and experience the impact of staff resistence. Consequently, the students need to be highly professional and diplomatic as they navigate their way through the placement, whilst not being seen as threatening or overly confident in order that they continue to fulfil the remit of the placement without feeling alienated or in conflict. These tensions can influence the legacy left by the student(s) in a negative way leaving a misunderstanding of the occupational therapy role and dis-engagement from facilitating further placements by the provider.

Students can be seen as an extra pair of hands as their role is not explicit or is misunderstood and can be easily led in a different direction or be at risk of exploitation by the setting (Wood, 2005; Linnane and Warren, 2017), demanding an assertive approach by the student, as they attempt to embed a scope of practice underpinned with a strong sense of professional identity (Cooper and Raine, 2009). Students have to be able to practice autonomously, often relying on greater levels of resilience and determination (Clarke, 2012). Whilst acknowledging the individual differences in students, their personality, resilience levels and creativity, and how these impact on placement allocation, it is important to account for this within models of placement and ensuring the experience and outcomes are optimised to benefit the student, the setting and the profession. Placement allocation processes must align students to appropriate experiences allowing them to thrive rather than survive.

These experiences are typically deemed more appropriate and suited to students in the later stages of study due to the more challenging nature of them and the need for a sense of professional identity being already in place (Wood, 2005; COT, 2006; Clarke, 2012; Linnane and Warren, 2017). Furthermore, Clarke (2012) suggests role-emerging placements can also highlight a student's lack of professional identity, as they struggle to establish a meaningful role or fail to be valued for the contribution they bring. This can impact upon a student's confidence and ontological development. Findings indicate placements in role-emerging settings situated mid-training would be beneficial to inform a student's development of identity and competence. There remains a consensus that role-emerging placements should be retained for those in the latter stage of training, but not necessarily restricted to the final placement (Clarke, 2012; Linnane and Warren, 2017).

Whilst role-emerging placements have an undoubted presence in the profession and practice-based education arena, with some capturing these as contemporary, it is arguable that the nature of these will gradually run their natural course becoming absorbed into the range of all placements typically experienced. Gustafsson (2016) articulates diversity in occupational therapy roles across the sectors, brings a need for extended and advanced scope in practice that will inevitably shape the norm of placement experiences. There will not be a need to make explicit reference to these as being unique or different to other placement contexts through the diversification agenda. The differentiation between types of placement and their demands,

historically required, will therefore be less and the allocation process of students to experiences be more of a matching alignment process However, there will still be a need for students to develop their resilience and entrepreneurial mindset if they are to become competent practitioners who are fit for purpose and able to thrive in healthcare environments.

2.9 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presents an in-depth discussion of the occupational therapy profession and the important role of practice-based learning in generating practitioners who are competent to meet healthcare agendas. The context of role-emerging placements has been explored to offer an understanding of how these experiences bring benefits, despite the challenges, to students who undertake them. These benefits and challenges, not only impact on the student but equally, the organisation who is hosting the placement, the university and the occupational therapy profession. Over the last two decades, the development of role-emerging placements and an increasing use of these experiences has been studied from different perspectives but little research has been focused on the allocation of students to these more challenging opportunities. Where some students are deliberately selected or not to undertake certain placements, based on an assumption of aptitude and propensity is to be explored. This chapter also articulates the diversity agenda within the profession and how the use of placement experiences will shape the future paradigms of practice. In the following three chapters personality and the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship will be discussed through a comprehensive literature review that informs this study, its outcomes and subsequent recommendations for practice.

Chapter 3 : Personality

3.1 Outline of Chapter

The concept of personality is complex and is broadly deemed to be a psychological construct influencing behaviour through the interaction of internal, mental and physical dimensions of a person (Maltby et al, 2017). The complex and multi-faceted nature of personality brings a fusion of terms and underpinning theory that has been generated over time (Corr, 2019). From ancient Greek philosophers to contemporary psychologists, their thinking has been influential in developing the field of psychology and personality theory. Given the breadth of the theory, it is necessary and judicious to narrow the scope of this chapter to discuss the pertinent aspects of personality trait in regard to this study.

The key search terms employed were: personality, trait, individual difference, big five, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, occupational therapy, student, health, resilience, entrepreneur, characteristic, qualities, aptitude, attributes.

The chapter presents a discussion of personality with a focus on trait theory and how this explains differences between individuals, the characteristics they hold and their behaviour. To make sense of this, the chapter will initially define what a trait is and offer the theoretical base that has led to the five-factor model, argued as being robust to use in determining personality traits. Trait theory, allows the individuality of the occupational therapy students and their characteristic ways of behaving in role-emerging experiences to be explored using established measurement tools. Justification will be offered over the selection of a measurement scale to rate openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism, which are the five personality facets recognised universally as the trait dimensions (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015).

A dialogue of how personality aligns with the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship will be presented to explore the characteristic nature of the resilient and entrepreneurial person. However, these constructs will be presented to greater depth in chapter 4 and 5. The three chapters forming the literature review, combine to acknowledge the explicit nature of these constructs as separate entities,

each with their own underpinning theory, research and evidence-base but equally having an overlap with commonalities to explore the uniqueness and differences of an individual.

The final part of the chapter will present a discussion of the characteristics and attributes that reflect those who practice within occupational therapy. The contemporary construct of emotional intelligence is discussed through the body of profession-specific evidence, as it manifests as a fusion with personality theory. Whilst not explicit within the study, emotional intelligence is acknowledged where there is a relevance to do so (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Brown et al, 2017b; Gribble et al, 2018; Perkins and Schmid, 2019). There will be discussion to explore trait theory and the notion that the perceived nature and attributes of a person; the occupational therapy student and their individual differences can be measured to help determine what faciltates a propensity to thrive in role-emerging placement experiences. The challenging nature of such placements and the demands they place on students is discussed in the previous chapter that sets out fully the context and background to this study.

3.2 Personality and Individual Differences

3.2.1 Implicit Personality

In exploring the concept of personality there is a breadth of theories, terminology and attempts to define it (Soto and John, 2017) with Brandstätter (2011) suggesting this as being 'fuzzy' in both psychological research and common sense understanding. With the nature of human interaction, the lay definitions of personality are often evaluative and based on value judgement from social contexts, typically based on commonly held beliefs and generalisation. Stereotypical perceptions are reinforced through these opinions of traits being identifiable in individuals. Such perceptions may be typified in a belief that redheaded people are fiery, passionate and impetuous or the dumb blonde, suggesting they are less intelligent and frivolous.

Maltby et al (2017) discuss these general population perspectives posited as 'implicit personality theory' that we all construct to help us understand both others and ourselves through observing and collating information. We assume people

behave in the way they do because of the sort of people they are, pinning this on their personality. Judgement of character is a valuable skill but can be flawed and unreliable, without a scientific theory base (Maltby et al, 2017). Taking this implicit personality theory and its implications for both being an occupational therapist and educator raises the question of how judgements are made for both the individuals we work with on a professional level and the students who we are educating to enter the profession. Chapter 2 explains the process undertaken to allocate students to placement types (being either traditional or non-traditional settings) reflecting a personal approach taken by the placement tutor in one University that demands judgement on a student's aptitude and propensity for experiences that are known to be more challenging.

Minda (2020) suggests this is attained through inductive reasoning where predictions can be made about future outcomes, based on our knowledge of something. The knowledge of a student and their characteristics is accrued through observation and collating information of how they behave, communicate and interact with their peers, tutors and on placement, with their practice educators and service-users, in addition to summative and formative assessment. Attitudes, values, professionalism, attributes and their personality traits can be ascertained and employed in the decision-making process, with those students deemed more capable with a natural propensity to thrive being allocated to role-emerging placements. However, the judgement stage of decision-making relies on probabilities, benefits and value of alternatives with determining which students should be placed, where and why. Why allocate one student over and above another to a placement setting? Minda (2020) suggests this decision-making is susceptible to biases, risk and uncertainty, and difficulty can arise in making a choice unless you rely on a heuristic or strategy. The student deemed less suited to a role-emerging placement could be overlooked and disadvantaged as a consequence of this decision making process.

The affect heuristic is a cognitive shortcut and a way to use knowledge and familiarity to solve a problem or make a judgement through intuition (Minda, 2020). With Mikels et al (2011) suggesting individuals with a high level of skill or expertise within a given domain appear to rely to a greater extent on intuitive judgements, indicating intuition is an advanced means of decision-making that can result in

superior choice quality. Furthermore, Mikels, et al (2011) sumise dual process theories combining both intuitive and deliberative, play an important role in decision-making recommending further research in how these can interact and to understand when 'going with the gut' can harm decision-making. Therefore, ascertaining a students personality and propensity for a placement can either be based on a heuristic, intuitive 'gut feeling' based on experience, expertise and professional judgement or deliberative, by controlled analysis and detail. Measuring trait and aligning student attributes to placement demands, achieved through psychometric testing or screening would fit with the deliberative process to aid decision-making. (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000; Mikels, et al, 2011; Paterson et al, 2012; Minda, 2020). However, how this could be implemented or used as a tool requires informed consideration, as to its value and use in programme delivery and is discussed in Chapter 9 and 10.

3.2.2 The Emergence of Trait Theory

Over time psychologists have attempted to articulate a theoretical base to define personality, with a suggestion that there is not a consensus and of it being understood from numerous perspectives, with no universal agreement (Maltby et al, 2017). Early theorist, Allport, a lexical researcher, with seminal work on trait theory determined personality as dynamic and internal to the person, creating characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings. Allport, coined the term of *personal disposition* to represent the uniqueness of the individual and how the traits produce a unified personality capable of constant evolution and change. Maltby et al (2017) suggest that to unravel the definition is of value; the dynamic nature suggests a process that is continually reacting to the experiences and changes we have throughout our lives. The influence of the mind on our body is deemed to be a psychophysical system that interplays to influence behaviour and that these characteristic patterns are stable becoming typical of that individual. The individual differences between individuals, their genetic disposition and the internal, dynamic processing, results in ways of behaving that are characteristic. Wilde and Williams (2013) indicate the trait approach views personality as a taxonomy, with a number of durable characteristics in which individuals vary allowing for a unique pattern of traits that distinguish a person's individuality.

Personality can therefore be defined as being the characteristics or qualities of an individual, with the traits being the dimensions used to categorise people according to the extent to which they manifest. Maltby et al (2017) state traits are the fundamental units of personality that remain relatively stable over time and across situations. Cobb-Clark and Schurer (2012) discuss the stability of the big-five personality traits and conclude from their findings that whilst not literally fixed, personality traits remain stable among working-age adults. Hutchinson et al (2010) similarly discuss the stable and enduring nature of temperament by focusing on the biological basis of behaviour. The trait theorists, including Eysenck, advocate individual differences in personality in terms of both biological and psychological factors influenced by genetics and inherited disposition. Consequently, this offers explanation as to why personality remains largely unchanged throughout the lifespan (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). The logic of the trait approach is that it focuses on general descriptions and consistent patterns of behaviour and in what way groups of people along the continuum might behave. However, Maltby et al (2017) suggest the theorists are increasingly looking to explain behaviour both from an individual and population perspective, allowing for comparisons of disposition to respond in certain ways along this continuum. Consequently, theorists have not seemingly addressed understanding and reasoning of individual behaviour and behaviour change and could explain how professional attitudes can be more difficult and complex to nurture, with some attributes coming more naturally to some individuals compared to others who lack desired behaviours expected of being a healthcare professional (Childs-Kean et al, 2020). McGinley (2020) suggests these professional behaviours and qualities such as adaptability and commitment, as being non-cognitive, in contrast to cognitive or academic ability. Exploring the selection of students for entry onto occupational therapy programmes based on both cognitive and non-cognitive aptitude, McGinley (2020) discusses the complex debate of how professional skills can be assessed due to the impact of variables, lack of robust evidence and measurement tools on which to base recruitment decisions. Whilst pre-entry selection of occupational therapy students is not part of this study, the fixed nature of characteristics/ aptitude or in contrast, an ability to nuture their attributes as a consequence of their journey is of relevance to understanding a propensity to thrive.

3.3 Personality and the Trait Theory Approach

Fleeson and Jayawickreme (2015) discuss the debate, which is fuelled by two key approaches to explaining personality trait that continue to inform contemporary thinking in this field of psychology. The trait approach concludes that an individual's traits are more likely to be consistent across contextual situations, which suggests being more fixed and stable over time. However, in contrast the social-cognitive approach offers the notion that social-cognitive mechanisms enable an individual to interpret situations and behave accordingly. These individual differences will be influenced by expectations, competencies, self-regulation and goals, driving motivation. According to Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) the social-cognitive paradigm bases itself on self-perception and aspiration arising from social interaction that may fluctuate according to the situation. Fleeson and Jayawikreme (2015) suggest these two approaches have effectively determined underpinning theory. They also conclude little research has furthered an explanatory account of traits. With both approaches, evidence suggests that their stance has only offered descriptors of individual differences without exploring where traits come from, how they operate and how they produce differences in behaviour. Furthermore, Fleeson and Jayawikreme (2015) propose the notion of 'whole trait theory' that aims to unite the two approaches merging both the person and the situation into the definition of traits. Previously deemed as separate entities the whole trait theory aims to provide an explanatory account of traits, in addition to the description brought by the Big Five Factor analysis. Whilst whole trait theory offers logical argument to this study applied to the context of occupational therapy students immersed in role-emerging environments where behaviour is shaped by these challenging experiences, there is evidence to suggest incompatibility and some social-cognitive psychologists reject the notion of integrating the two approaches (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015).

3.4 Trait Theory: A Lexical Approach

The development of the trait model utilises a lexical approach, which draws on the hypothesis that differences in personality extricated from societies and human interaction can be labelled as single terms. Early attempts to describe personality drew on meaningful descriptors and words from the English language used as an assumption to label the most important aspects of a person's nature and individual

difference (Maltby et al, 2017). These major dimensions of individual difference can be derived from the total number of descriptors in a language system that cluster together to form an individual trait. This became known as the lexical hypothesis attributed to Galton in 1884 (John, et al, 2010; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Gillis and Boyle (2019) suggest the later work of Cattell set out to map human traits using the lexical hypothesis to systematically analyse and elucidate a taxonomy of personality constructs identifying 16 primary factors. According to Cattell's theory, these traits represent the basic structure of personality and are ranked in the importance of predicting an individual's behaviour (Maltby et al, 2017). Psycholexical studies explore the use of personality-descriptive adjectives across different languages to reveal the underlying structure of personality accounting for differences in dialect and meaning within cultures (Ashton et al, 2004; John et al, 2010).

Whilst acknowledging this potential direction of trait theory and approaches that have been developed over time, including that of key psychology theorists, Cattell (16-factor model, 1947) and Eysenck (3-factor model, 1947, 1976), much of the research focuses on the consensus of traits through the Five-Factor Model attributed to the work of McCrae and Costa (McCrae and Costa, 2010; Wilde and Williams, 2013; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby et al, 2017; Gillis and Boyle, 2019). However, earlier findings by Fiske (1949), Tupes and Christal, (1961) and Norman (1963) established the five factor solution, as being more robust to describe personality compared to the 16 factors established by Cattell (Maltby et al, 2017). Gillis and Boyle (2019) equally maintain the Five-factor model gained greater credibility with researchers and still remains the preferred approach to explore personality traits. The five factors initially identified were Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Culture. The Five-Factor solution underpins the influential work by McCrae and Costa that continues to inform the trait approach theorising personality. Both Cattell and Eysenck situated the traits (or factors) of neuroticism and extraversion within their models and these are still reflected in the later Five-Factor Model developed by McCrae and Costa (1985, cited in Maltby et al, 2017) defining Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism as the five universal traits describing personality.

Furthermore, each of the trait models has used factor analysis on the lexical definitions, as a way of statistically analysing the stable characteristics of personality that best describe us universally. The application of factor analysis as a data-reduction technique determines relationships between a large number of variables that are reduced to find correlation between fewer underlying factors. However, by the very nature of there being theoretical models with different factors to describe personality suggests limitations in the trait approach and its critics maintain it does not explain how or why a person behaves in the way they do (Wilde and Williams, 2013). The trait approach provides descriptors or categorisations of how people behave that has allowed the construct of personality measurement to be developed and embedded in the field of psychology (John et al, 2010).

3.5 The Five-Factor Model

Recognised as influential and robustly supported as explaining personality, the Five-Factor model is based on the Big Five personality traits and this was initially theorised in 1985 by McCrae and Costa (McCrae and Costa, 2010; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Their seminal work has facilitated the understanding and measuring of personality traits with five dimensions identified. These are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Wilde and Williams, 2013). Despite this, the model does not bring consensus amongst researchers with some debating the explicit nature of the five factors (Maltby et al, 2017) and that a further model based on traits offers further insight into personality through six dimensions (HEXACO, The Six-Factor model, Ashton et al, 2004) building on the earlier work by McCrae and Costa. The additional trait is described as honesty-humility. Those advocating the Five-Factor model suggest this correlates too closely to the trait of agreeableness and therefore criticise the emergence of the later model. Saucier (2002) argues that the Big-Five model consists of independent factors as separate entities to bring distinct traits and that the deviation in language diversity and culture challenges the lexical universals to identify traits that are distinct.

3.6 The Traits of the Five-Factor Model

The personality dimensions or traits that are identified in the Five-Factor model are outlined in the following section of this chapter, with each being described in turn using the acronym, OCEAN, that is commonly used to present each trait (Brandstätter, 2011). The following definitions are widely accepted and explored through the characteristic nature that typifies an individual's behaviour, their propensity for being resilient or to thrive, and entrepreneurial based on the factors identified by Costa and McCrae (1985) (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010; Brandstätter, 2011; Wilde and Williams, 2013; Kolb and Wagner, 2015; Wang, 2016; Maltby et al, 2017; Oshio et al, 2018).

3.6.1 Openness

This trait refers to an individual being open to new experiences. The characteristics indicate intellectual curiosity and divergent thinking. Being innovative with an active imagination, creativity and a willingness to explore new or unusual ideas reflects the nature of being entrepreneurial. The openness to these new experiences suggests a propensity to take risks and to exploit opportunity. It could also indicate effective problem solving through the characteristic of creativity. Those who score highly on openness are unconventional and independent thinkers whereas those with low scores prefer the familiar and conventional contexts. These individuals prefer routine, structure and predictability in their life.

3.6.2 Conscientiousness

Characterised by self-discipline, diligence and commitment, these individuals act dutifully, work hard and are thorough and organised. Those with high scores are determined and will plan meticulously for life events having a need to accomplish goals. Their qualities include dependability and reliability. Conscientiosness reflects volition and therefore suggests a motivation to learn and learning performance (Lepine, et al, 2004). With these characteristics a person will be perseverant and persistent by being ambitious and mirrors the qualities of an entrepreneur in the form of grit and resilience (Adomako et al, 2016; Lucas et al, 2015; Mooradian et al, 2016; Mueller et al, 2017). In contrast, scoring low in conscientiousness individuals are

haphazard, unreliable and easily distracted. Individuals may be prone to making impulsive and last minute decisions.

3.6.3 Extraversion

These characteristics typify being sociable and gregarious in nature. Often friendly, energetic and optimistic, individuals have a tendency to be outgoing and assertive suggesting a social confidence. An extravert will typically score highly in this trait. These people focus on the external world, draw energy from being around others and they thrive in exciting situations and environments. Individuals are likely to act rather than contemplate or procrastinate. This confidence places them with high self-regard and self-belief. Those with low extraversion are introverted and are typically reserved and are less comfortable in social situations or in being at the centre of attention. Individuals do not seek out excitement and are less optimistic. According to Wilde and Williams (2013), introversion, whilst perceived as a negative characteristic, suggests those scoring low on extraversion can be more independent and achieve highly, working methodically with a solitary approach opposed to being a leader and socially driven.

3.6.4 Agreeableness

This trait is concerned with orientation towards others. Being insightful and aware facilitates tactfulness, empathy and sensitivity. Findings by Bacq and Alt (2018) suggest individuals who are more able to experience compassion and concern for others are more likely to draw on self-efficacy to facilitate social entrepreneurship. Equally, those able to situate themselves in ‘other people shoes’ (empathy) could perceive greater certainty over whether their action is valued. This self-worth drives greater intention to engage in social entrepreneurship. Individuals are trusting, loyal, kind and affectionate in nature. They are altruistic and modest, being open and uncomplicated with Burks et al (2012) associating empathy with altruism as a requisite for healthcare professions. Those scoring higher in agreeableness enjoy social interaction, getting on with people and are well respected. The characteristics of the agreeable individual are explored later in this chapter through the notion of prosocial behaviour as a term and its association with empathy and self-efficacy

(Caprara et al, 2012). People who are less agreeable are uncooperative, less likely to be trustworthy and cynical resulting in an unfriendly, antagonistic manner.

3.6.5 Neuroticism

This factor measures emotional stability and personal adjustment. Those with high levels of neuroticism are emotionally volatile, pessimistic with ranging mood swings. An individual typically responds poorly to stressful situations becoming anxious (Froutan et al, 2018). Lacking self-confidence individuals can be self-critical and over sensitive or vulnerable. People exhibiting high levels of neuroticism are prone to irrational thought. Those with low scores of neuroticism are calm, well adjusted and cope with stressful situations, deemed as being more emotionally stable and less anxious. As a consequence individuals will feel more in control of their environment, with the potential to achieve greater performance.

3.7 Operationalisation of the Psychometric Tests

The five factors each have a continuum along which a person can be situated according to a scored scale. The person can be scored as low or high in each trait determining a propensity or characteristic nature within each trait. Costa and McCrae devised the measurement of these traits in the Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) (1985). According to McCrae and Costa (1995) within each of the Big Five dimensions of personality are more specific personality attributes that all cluster together and combine to score as one overarching trait. These are referred to as facets or subordinates and there are six of these within each of the five traits.

The Five-Factor Model has been operationalised to scales in measuring personality traits (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010; Wang et al, 2016). One such measurement scale is the Big Five Inventory (BFI), which according to Soto and John (2017) has been utilised to measure personality traits in a considerable portion of studies. Developed from a lexical foundation yielding 100-trait-descriptive adjectives relevant to the Big Five, this scale aimed to bring clarity by using short phrases removing ambiguity for scale construction. Soto and John (2017) refer back to the original BFI that was developed by John, Donaghue and Kentle (1991) building on

this in their further studies to develop the Big Five Inventory (BFI-2) (2017). Whilst this chapter is not evaluating trait measurement scales, it is of value to consider these in the context of personality and the development of robust evidence over time to inform this discussion. Chapter 6, discusses the methodology to provide detail on the use of the original Big-Five Inventory (John, et al, 1991) as a data collection tool in the context of this study. There is also consideration of the use of psychometric testing with students and its potential in higher education to serve as a tool for self-development, aswell as a platform for decision making in placement allocation processes discussed within chapter 9 and 10.

3.8 Personality: Learning Theory Perspective and Self-Efficacy

Whilst the focus of personality in this study sits within the realms of the trait approach, there is associated evidence of self-efficacy as an attribute or characteristic that warrants some consideration within this chapter. This section offers discussion on differing perspectives to personality that permit self-efficacy to be argued as a personal resource, which is of relevance to occupational therapy students undertaking placements (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2019; Fan et al, 2020). The literature informing this study identifies self-efficacy as a concept within personality theory (Bandura, 2012) and aptly evidences this within the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship (Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Mansfield, et al, 2016; Staniewski, 2016; Wang et al, 2016; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017; Bacq and Alt, 2018; Fuller et al, 2018).

Earlier in this chapter, the whole trait approach argued by Fleeson and Jayawickreme (2015) draws on both a trait and social-cognitive approach to explore personality. This notion articulates individual differences and how people interpret situations and behave or change behaviour according to the context. These individual differences in traits are influenced by expectations, competencies, self-regulation and goals to explain variability. Whilst trait theories suggest a genetic disposition to personality and stability or fixed nature of traits that shape our behaviour, the development theories explore how personality develops through the interaction with our environment. The work by Bandura, cited in Maltby et al (2017) theorises how personal factors (cognitions, emotions and biological variables), behaviour and environmental factors interact to influence behaviour. Social learning

theory or social cognitive theory conceptualises that humans have an ability to think beyond the immediate situation and to anticipate possible outcomes, which Bandura termed as ‘forethought’. This understanding or insight affects how we chose to behave and what we learn from situations. Motivation is central to this learning and incentive factors or goals drive this process requiring self-regulatory processes. Bandura maintains these to be self-praise or criticism, personal standards, evaluation of attainment and acceptance of challenges (Maltby et al, 2017).

According to Bandura the most powerful self-regulatory mechanism is self-efficacy (2012), which is an individuals belief, as to the extent they can behave to achieve a desired and positive outcome. According to Hughes et al, (2011) self-efficacy is deemed primarily as cognitive perceptions of competence and self-confidence with a context-specific judgement of capability to perform a task. Similarly, the work of Rotter (1954), drawing on behaviour potential and expectancy, led to the construct of ‘locus of control’ that can take the form of being internal or external influences to the person that control beliefs and behaviour (Martin and Harrison, 2018). Rotter established that locus of control is a relatively stable personality characteristic (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Those with an internal locus of control are more likely to feel in control of their lives and empowered to make decisions and change situations typifying the entrepreneurial nature. In contrast, individuals who believe external forces determine outcomes, typically feel powerless and ineffectual or passive, with a dependence on others. This can have a protective function on the person’s self-esteem, as failure is not of their own making and that success happens through destiny or by accident rather than by their own actions (Martin and Harrison, 2018). Karabulut (2016) suggests entrepreneurs believe they can control outcomes, are motivated and persistent in striving to achieve their goals suggesting an internal locus of control. Comparably, this may be a requisite for students undertaking role-emerging placements enabling them to take control of the challenging circumstances to shape and facilitate change.

3.9 Personality, Entrepreneurship and Resilience

Chapter 4 and chapter 5 respectively offer an in-depth exploration of the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship. This chapter synthesises trait theory with these constructs through what is known about the inherent nature or characteristics of the

resilient and entrepreneurial individual. Brandstätter (2011) discusses the historical quest to establish unique personality traits that align to characteristics and identities of entrepreneurs. Staniewski et al (2016) equally acknowledge the attempt by research to support the relationship between entrepreneurial success and personality traits. This takes the form of exploring the characteristics such as self-efficacy, autonomy and need for achievement, whilst others postulate the entrepreneurial personality can be explained using the five-factors (Furnham and Fudge, 2008). Shane and Nicolaou (2015) explore the creative personality and whether there is a tendency for these people to be more likely to recognise entrepreneurial opportunity as a springboard to create a business. In the trait approach, creativity is recognised as being characteristic of openness, the trait where imagination and exploration are typical. Findings of the study substantiated their hypothesis determining this to be the case and that the creative personality is similar in magnitude to other trait dimensions in resulting in a tendency to be an entrepreneur. The research is underpinned with the notion of whether genetic factors serve as a predisposition to the creative personality and entrepreneurship or that the environmental context impacts or both. However, Shane and Nicolaou (2015) acknowledge the results 'do not indicate that either genetics or the environment determine creative personality and entrepreneurship' but suggest a value for influencing and accounting for entrepreneurial behaviour (p408).

Leutner et al (2014) also explore the entrepreneurial personality and the relationship with the Big-Five traits. Their findings conclude personality traits of the Big-Five correlate to entrepreneurial success. However, a narrower measure of entrepreneurial personality (Measure of Entrepreneurial Tendencies and Abilities (META), (Ahmetoglu et al, 2011) was a stronger predictor of success compared to the broad traits using the Big-Five measure. This scale utilises four entrepreneurial dimensions:- Proactivity, Creativity, Opportunism and Vision. Leutner et al (2014). acknowledge that the findings make theoretical sense given the META was explicitly developed to measure entrepreneurial personality.

Brandstätter (2011) suggests the robust nature of the increasing research on the Five-Factor Model supports the body of evidence exploring the personality aspects of the entrepreneur. However, this paper states that a purely descriptive notion of traits would have limitations in personality research and identifies the need to

consider behaviour and the influence of traits on entrepreneurial intention and success. Brandstätter (2011) concludes the Big Five personality traits are different when entrepreneurs are compared to managers. Equally the Big Five are relevant in predicting entrepreneurial intention and performance. Entrepreneurs score higher in openness correlating with characteristics such as creativity and innovativeness. Conscientiousness is also greater in entrepreneurs being linked to the sub-facet of achievement motivation with extroversion and a proactive personality, initiating actions on opportunities and persistence to achieve goals scoring more highly. The traits of agreeableness and neuroticism scored lower in entrepreneurs in comparison to managers. This reflects the earlier findings of Furnham and Fudge (2008) that indicate high extraversion, conscientiousness and openness and low agreeableness and neuroticism in the entrepreneurial personality. Nga and Shamuganathan's (2010) study investigating the influence of the Big Five traits on social entrepreneurship similarly found that openness and conscientiousness had an impact. However, in contrast to studies exploring business entrepreneurship, this study found agreeableness had a significant influence in this context, whereby they suggest the ability to foster social consensus and develop rapport in alliances is pivotal.They conclude this dominating trait of agreeableness facilitates appreciation of social responsibility that positively impacts on social vision and innovation driving successful enterprise. Social entrepreneurship, discussed further in chapter 5 is aligned closely to the type of organisation that provide role-emerging placements for occupational therapy students. In a later study, Bacq and Alt (2018) suggest empathy is a key trait distinguishing social entrepreneurs from traditional entrepreneurs with commercial intentions. They hypothesise the presence of two mechanisms to explain empathy and social entrepreneurial intention. One, the agentic mechanism refers to self-competence (self-efficacy) and the other to other–orientated feelings of connection to and regard to others described as a communal mechanism. Whilst not explicitly situated in trait theory with the use of the Big-Five, these findings logically reflect the characteristics of an agreeable person and concur with the earlier study of Nga and Shamuganathan (2010). Furthermore, there are some challenges in developing clarity of the characteristics of the traits given that Brandstätter (2011) describe extraversion as establishing a social network, which could equally be construed as agreeableness. Those higher in agreeableness enjoy social interaction and getting on with people.

Saebi et al (2019) present a robust review of social entrepreneurship research with analysis of individual characteristics explored as the prosocial personality. The social entrepreneur displays innovativeness, ability to recognise opportunity, resourcefulness and propensity to take risk, typically entrepreneurial. But also associate with a strong socio-moral motivation adopting empathy, compassion, and concern for welfare and rights of others. Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) offers further explanation of the nature of personality and social interaction, in that psychology draws on the terms pro-social and antisocial behaviour. Studies cited in the literature denote pro-social behaviour encapsulates altruism, volunteerism and community engagement. Similarly to above, individuals with traits of extraversion and agreeableness are more likely to seek out opportunities in socially orientated situations such as social enterprises. As such, this correlation could equate to the occupational therapy students in role-emerging placements, which despite being mandatory in terms of programme requirement, are also situated in the charitable sector and demand altruism and a pro-social approach to optimise the experience. This notion of altruism and the associated characteristic of empathy is the focus of a study by Burks et al (2012) whose findings establish a significant association. Whilst suggesting their findings are relevant to healthcare professions, the paper acknowledges limitations in utilising psychology students as being too narrow to represent other populations, justifying it broadly with the need for further research. Equally, Caprara et al (2012) study findings corroborated the posited link between agreeableness and empathetic self-efficacy beliefs and pro-sociality. Drawing on trait research they maintain the Big-Five framework and individual differences in personality evidences agreeableness as a major determinant of pro-sociality. Highly agreeable individuals show willingness to sacrifice self-interest (altruism), respond constructively to interpersonal conflict, cooperate and display self-control. Furthermore, Caprara et al (2012) report self-efficacy or the ability to make judgements and emphasise about others feelings in situations can be attributed to individual differences supporting the notion of pro-sociality discussed further in chapter 5.

A further body of research that informs understanding of the entrepreneurial personality has been drawn on by Karabulut (2016), whose study explores trait theory to explain entrepreneurial intention. This paper draws on seminal work by McClelland (1961) who conceptualises Acquired Needs Theory. This theorises

motivation as the acquisition of three basic needs, these being the need for achievement, affiliation and power. Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) however, suggests that Costa and McCrae place achievement motivation as a sub-facet of conscientiousness. This alongside, dimensional traits such as internal locus of control (self-efficacy), risk tolerance and entrepreneurial alertness are identified by Karabulut (2016), as having a positive effect on a persons deliberate intention to become an entrepreneur. The alignment of self-efficacy, which is defined as a personal judgement: an ability to perceive effective change and a belief by an individual to control their own thoughts and actions, to the trait approach is also evidenced (Wang et al, 2016; Fuller et al, 2018). Findings indicated that extraversion, openness, conscientiousness and agreeableness predicted entrepreneurial intention through self-efficacy.

Pemberton (2015) indicates that resilience was initially deemed a stable trait in personality theory, with individuals having it or not as a consequence of genetic disposition. Subsequently, resilience has been explained in other ways, including that of the importance of conditions surrounding a person such as security and belonging, or that resilience is a developed as a process over time as a continuum through experiences. Chapter 4 explores these theories but evidence offers clear alignment between resilient characteristics and personality traits that Pemberton (2015) advocates as being valid but only ‘part of the story’ (p7).

Resilience or the notion of thriving through character strengths is explored by Niemiec (2019), with Brown et al (2017a) postulating that strong well-being and performance at times of adversity and opportunity nurtures this. Thriving is described as the ultimate fulfilment in life, emphasising characteristics of positive well-being with Niemiec (2019) suggesting character strengths play an importance role in capturing, developing and appreciating the positives and opportunities in life, as well as protecting, managing and changing the adversities faced. Niemiec (2019) explores this through six ‘opportunity’ and ‘adversity’ functions that are interrelated. The understanding of thriving through positive psychology advocated by Niemiec (2019) is based on the VIA classification of 24 character strengths situated under 6 virtues (wisdom, courage, humanity, justice, temperance and transcendence) accounted for in situational contexts. Niemiec (2019) aligns these character strengths to protective factors in a buffering and resilience function with adversity.

Connor and Davidson (2003) and Wong (2011) suggest such personal qualities and protective factors allow for successful stress coping ability enabling an individual to thrive.

Liu et al (2017) present a multi-system model to explain the nature of resilience with 'core resilience' at its centre, deemed to be intrapersonal factors within the individual. These are physiological or stress-reactive systems and health behaviours including coping strategies. They argue that under or over physiological reactivity may be representative of resilience and adaptive capacity. Equally, Liu et al (2017) suggest that external influences such as life experiences, family and friends are interpersonal indicators of resilience that can be fostered, developed or acquired over time and deemed to be non-trait variables. Their study draws on evidence to conclude these factors encompass self-control and regulation, self-appraisal, social competence and resourcefulness, which mirror that of social learning theory of personality and the theories of Bandura discussed earlier.

In contrast, returning to trait theory, hardiness, a construct aligned with resilience (Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013), as an individual's ability to respond to stress is studied by Merino-Tejedor et al (2015) using the Five-Factor Model of personality. Their research hypothesises that individuals with high levels of extraversion, emotional stability (low levels of neuroticism), conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness employ a greater level of work effort in response to stressful situations. They conclude that certain stable factors of personality influences work effort and those with higher levels of hardiness (commitment, challenge and control) employ greater effort and consequently less fatigue. Hutchinson et al (2010), hypothesise a possible relationship among temperament, character strengths and resilience. Findings indicated statistical significance to support the study aim, which was to research psychological well-being and suggest that these reflect evidence of the biological base of temperament but that this is not solely deterministic. The interactional effect of individuals with the environment influences behaviour too. This study used four scales to measure the constructs of personality and resilience with young adults (n=620). Whilst not directly comparable in terms of use of a different personality scale to the Five-Factor Measure, there is still value to consider this within the construct of resilience.

3.10 Personality Traits in Occupational Therapy Practitioners and Students

Similarities and differences in personality traits between physiotherapists and occupational therapists were explored by McCombie et al (2015) using the Big-Five Inventory and two further rating scales to measure personality, assertiveness and empathy. The quantitative study was undertaken on the premise that allied health professionals work collaboratively and by developing understanding of strengths, uniqueness and commonalities enhances interprofessional working and patient care. Findings indicated differences in the traits of agreeableness and openness with occupational therapists scoring higher in these than physiotherapists. There were similarities in the traits of conscientiousness, extraversion and neuroticism. Physiotherapists were perceived as more assertive, scoring higher in ranking by both professions and occupational therapists perceived as more empathetic, again scoring higher by both professions. McCombie et al (2015) purport that given the professional nature of practice demanding thoroughness and organisation would support similarities in conscientiousness across both professions. Emotional maturation and expertise developed over years of practice was deemed to explain reducing the trait of neuroticism given likelihood of greater confidence and professional identity. Extraversion scored comparably but with greater individual variability. The study concludes that occupational therapists have a need to be creative and imaginative pertaining to a less mechanistic or reductionist way of working, supporting higher levels of openness, echoing diversity in practice. This reflects the call for entrepreneurship in driving the profession forward, towards one that promotes occupational justice and equality, advocated by McClure, 2011; Anderson and Nelson, 2011; Van Bruggen, 2014; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Creek and Cook, 2017). Saebi et al (2019) support the prosocial personality suggesting the social entrepreneur displays innovativeness, an ability to recognise opportunity, resourcefulness and a propensity to take risk. But also associate with a strong socio-moral motivation adopting empathy, compassion, and concern for the welfare and rights of others. The traits of assertion and empathy could be argued as correlating to lower or higher agreeableness; occupational therapists score higher in empathy and are lower in assertiveness reflecting the character of wishing to be socially liked, diplomatic and non-confrontational. Furthermore, Patterson and Zibarras (2017) discuss the need for creativity and innovation in healthcare. Their study establish the trait of openness to experience is positively related to creativity

and motivation to change using two scales, one a trait based measure of creativity and the Big-Five Measure. Whilst the participants are postgraduate physicians embarking on general practice education there are comparisons that are worthy of consideration to align with students.

Early research offers exploration of personality explicitly in occupational therapy students, that whilst being of interest, this focuses on personality type theory utilising the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) measuring 16 types or characteristics (Jamison and Dirette, 2004). Of the sample (n=130), participants evidenced a prevalent type, where they typically share concerns for the feelings and harmony of others with a preference for reliance on personal values. The study concludes the types exhibit characteristics that would be useful to a competent therapist demonstrating an overarching personal connectedness and sharing concern for others, mirroring the pro-social personality. Whilst type and trait theories are explicitly different, this could be reflected in the traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness where the personable nature of the student practitioner is important particularly in working with vulnerable client groups. This equally applies to a role-emerging environment where diplomacy and diligence are important attributes to hold to navigate through the challenges students are exposed to.

3.11 Emotional Intelligence

Brief consideration of the more contemporary construct of emotional intelligence, which is defined as the ability to perceive, understand and manage emotions (Ciarrochi, et al, 2000), brings a fusion with trait theory and is now recognised of importance for the occupational therapy profession (Chaffey et al, 2012; Andonian, 2013; McKenna and Mellson, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Brown et al, 2017b; Gribble et al, 2018; Perkins and Schmid, 2019). Whilst a variety of theory underpins the construct of emotional intelligence, argued as an ability (Mayer et al, 2016), Gribble et al (2018) suggest it is competency driven, with Chaffey et al, (2012) indicating two aspects of competence. One is accurate reasoning of emotion and two, the use of emotion to enhance thinking. Talarico et al, (2013) discusses the array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competences, such as professionalism, integrity that impact on the ability to cope with challenges and pressure as conceptualising emotional intelligence.

Underpinned by two theoretical approaches, one of which is the model theorised by Goleman (1996) suggesting emotional intelligence is determined by capability in team working, adaptability and attitudes such as optimism. In contrast the ability-based approach allows for intelligence in influencing problem solving (Andonian, 2013). O'Connor et al (2019) explore the methods of classifying emotional intelligence by either ability EI or trait EI and suggest a further mixed approach that allows for measurement of a combination of traits, social skills and competences that overlap with other personality measures. Gribble et al, (2018) suggest the construct of emotional intelligence is a core competency for practitioners and students to ensure effective team working and for sustaining collaborative and meaningful relationships. Therefore, emotional intelligence is an essential ability for all healthcare students in placement experiences, and logically, more pivotal in role-emerging placements. Utilising measurement scales with occupational therapy students (n=139) over a period of time incorporating practice placements, results indicated an increase in emotional intelligence scores, suggesting placement is a facilitator of these competencies. Sub-scales measured characteristics including self-actualisation, optimism, assertiveness, stress tolerance, and empathy that could be construed as having commonality with the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship. Ciarrochi et al, (2000) set out to explore IQ, personality and self-regulation with a significant correlation found between emotional intelligence, empathy, extraversion, openness to feelings and self-esteem. The study suggests a fusion of constructs of personality traits and emotional intelligence that are 'generally indistinguishable' and that the affective aspects of personality, that being extraversion, emotional stability (low neuroticism) and agreeableness are synthesised within emotional intelligence.

Brown et al (2016) explored both personality traits and emotional intelligence as a predictor of fieldwork performance, so is of interest to this study. The occupational therapy student sample (n=114) were used to collect data using two scales: The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI) and Ten-item Personality Inventory (TIPI). A placement evaluation form was used to add to the quantitative data. The results suggested emotional intelligence is a predictor of placement performance, particulary in professional behaviours and communication skills. However, students' personality traits were not. As personality and emotional

intelligence are deemed to be aligned and one is reflected in the other, it could be argued that differentiation is not easily determined. To exhibit professional behaviours reflects characteristics within the big five traits. i.e. being conscientious and agreeable. A parallel study by Brown et al, (2017b) utilised the same participants and data collection tools plus a Teams Skills Scale as a predictaor of team working skills in the students. Findings of the study established that extraversion and emotional stability are positively linked with team skills, enabling these individuals to function well in multi-disciplinary environments. These suggest a value to draw on to inform this study.

3.12 Summary of Chapter

The research evidence and literature explored in this chapter elucidates understanding of the complex nature and multi-facets of personality and individual difference. The discussion has facilitated and articulated the argument to support trait theory and its manifestation in the overlapping constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship. The commonalities have been extrapolated to make sense of these within the three constructs that underpin this study. The chapter presents understanding of the Big Five trait theory, borne out of the lexical approach and outlines the five traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. The latter part of this chapter explores evidence of personality traits in occupational therapists and student practitioners, with further consideration of emotional intelligence, as a construct, that is known to align itself closely to trait theory. Pertinent studies explore personality trait, emotional intelligence and placement experiences.

Chapter 4 : Resilience

4.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter explores the construct of resilience and considers its relevance to this study, in the context of occupational therapy students undertaking role-emerging placements and their propensity to thrive in these experiences. Initially, the discussion will focus on the development of resilience, from its emergence through early research to current understanding of resilience as a dynamic and complex construct. A definition of resilience will be considered including the characteristics and attributes deemed to reflect a resilient person. The notion of positive psychology to develop resilience will be explored. The chapter will offer a critical review of the measurement of resilience and how this informs this study. The notion of thriving and hardiness with alignment to resilience will be discussed. Through exploring the literature, there is also the need to acknowledge the links of resilience to personality. However, trait theory has been addressed in depth within the previous chapter that explicitly explores personality and its importance to this study. Similarly to chapter 3, the link between emotional intelligence and resilience will only be briefly touched upon, as this construct is not strictly within the remit of this study but, does however, have some commonality.

Research will be drawn on to explore the contexts of where resilience is acknowledged and applied to practice across different disciplines but will place specific emphasis in the context of healthcare and the importance of resilience for practitioners and those who are training to enter healthcare professions. The literature and evidence of the construct of resilience across healthcare professions is predominantly from nursing and social work but is now being recognised within occupational therapy. Furthermore, the construct of resilience and developing this with individuals and communities to promote health and well-being will be discussed, as it has relevance to students undertaking role-emerging placements.

The key search terms employed were: resilience, adversity, thriving, hardiness, grit, coping, challenge, optimism, occupational therapy, student, health, placement, entrepreneur, personality, characteristics, qualities, aptitude, attributes.

4.2 The Emergence of the Construct of Resilience

The emergence of resilience, as a science, has been borne out of the fields of psychology and psychiatry, particularly within the practice of working with children and families who have experienced trauma, adversity and challenging experiences (Masten, 2001, 2019; Schoon, 2006; Rutter, 2012). However, the fundamental premise of resilience came out of the salutogenic concept of health (Antonovsky, 1979), derived from understanding of what makes people healthy. Furthermore, that control (an individual can influence and make choices), commitment and challenge (expectation that change is inevitable and beneficial) (Kobasa et al, 1979; Kobasa, 1979) impact. The seminal work of Garmezy in the early 1970s explored childhood resilience in children facing adversity with parental mental illness (mother's with schizophrenia) (Cited in Luthar et al, 2000 and Rutter, 2012). Early research by Rutter (1993, 2007, 2012) and Masten (2001) has been particularly influential in the shaping of current thinking of resilience to inform practice with those experiencing trauma and detrimental experiences such as poverty and deprivation in childhood.

These early researchers of the construct of resilience primarily focused on identifying the characteristics, qualities and strengths of individuals that protect them from the stressors or risks they are exposed to. In doing so, they provide some understanding of how the study of resilience can help to reason and distinguish between those who can overcome and adapt to the circumstances and those who cannot (Schoon, 2006; Pooley and Cohen, 2010; Herrman, 2011; Rutter, 2012; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013). Pemberton (2015) supports the early premise that resilience was initially conceptualised as a personality trait, borne out of a genetic disposition, fixed and stable.

From these early studies research has evolved over the last four decades to explore, not just the attributes of individuals, but the psychosocial aspects and the impact of the wider social environments, such as socioeconomic disadvantage on resilience (Rutter, 2012). Furthermore, studies have attempted to understand how these factors may contribute to positive change outcomes for a person facing adversity and life-changing circumstances through an adaptive, developmental process and personal growth (Luthar et al, 2000; Masten, 2001, 2019; Schoon, 2006; Smith et al, 2008; Herrman, 2011; Windle, 2011; Wong, 2011; Guadalupe Jiménez Ambiz et al, 2012; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Seery et al, 2013; Harms, 2015; Crane and

Searle, 2016). The evidence therefore suggests that the construct of resilience can be drawn on as a developmental process, informed by individual circumstances and the innate characteristics and aptitude of a person. Masten (2019) advocates the science of resilience is currently positioned to elucidate how this adaptive capacity in humans, develops and operates to promote resilience, guiding intervention models and strategies.

Resilience has emerged as a commonly coined term in an array of arenas, including health and social care delivery (Herrman et al, 2011; Pipe et al, 2012; Edmonson and Asturi, 2015; Hegney et al, 2015; Matheson et al, 2016; Robertson et al, 2016; Brennan, 2017; Froutan et al, 2018; Misretta et al, 2018; Cleveland et al, 2019; Kunzler et al, 2020b), healthcare education (Beddoe et al, 2013; Crombie et al, 2013; Jameson, 2014; Bahadir-Yilmaz and Oz, 2015; Reyes et al, 2015a & b; Boardman, 2016; McGowan and Murray, 2016; Monteverde, 2016; De Witt, 2017; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017; Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018; Lopez et al, 2018; Tambag and Can, 2018; Brown et al , 2019; Kunzler et al, 2020a), and communities on a wider lens, perhaps suggesting a complexity and increasing challenge for each of us living in social worlds to survive and thrive (Brown et al, 2017a; Welsh Government 2019a & b; HCPC, 2020).

Within the higher education sector the need for resilience in student communities is now recognized, with responsibilities falling on universities and students themselves to support and enhance resilience (Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018). Developing resilience and an ability to cope, and thrive in student practitioners, to prepare them for the reality of clinical roles is increasingly a key facet explicitly embedded in curriculum delivery and regulatory body standards and expectations, with a fundamental remit of fitness for practice and professional suitability (RCOT, 2019a; Kunzler et al, 2020).

Cicchetti (2010) maintains that historically empirical studies have focused on the psychosocial and behavioural aspects of resilience but scientific advancement has opened up scope for study of genetics and neurobiology. Such evolution of this understanding of these factors and their affect on an individuals resilient functioning brings a multilevel perspective (Herrman, 2011). Meins, (2017) suggests this ‘burgeoning interest’ (p24) in the interaction between genetics, human development and the environment in determining resilience and vulnerability has given

provenance to the understanding of the complexity and dynamic nature of this subject (Schoon, 2006; Herrman, 2011; Rutter, 2012; Masten 2019). This is reflected in the three-factor model advocated by Pemberton, (2015) in Figure 4.1.

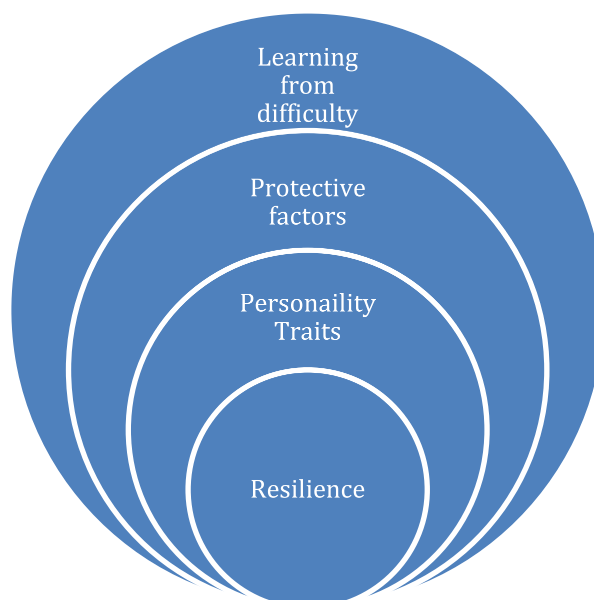

Figure 4-1 - The three-factor model of resilience (Pemberton, 2015)

Liu et al (2017) also discuss the notion of resilience being a dynamic, multidimensional process, as an interaction between individuals and their larger socio-ecological context, that according to Connor and Davidson, (2003) is variable across time and circumstances. With Masten (2019) equally advocating that humans develop through a myriad of interactions at many levels, with adaptive systems reacting to external contexts. These determinants of resilience are biological, social, psychological, economic and cultural factors, which all determine how a person responds to stressful experiences (Herrman, 2011; Wong, 2011). These determinants differ between contexts and individual circumstances (Southwick et al, 2014; Froutan et al, 2018). Harms (2015) concurs with the notion that resilience is often seen as an 'inner world' quality, a trait, rather than something highly contextual (p 11). The notion of human thriving and psychosocial variables that combine through personal and contextual enablers is postulated by Brown et al (2017a). With Rutter (2012) suggesting that facing adversity and negative experience may either increase vulnerabilities through a sensitisation effect or decrease vulnerabilities through a strengthening *steeling* effect.

4.3 Defining Resilience

4.3.1 Resilience as a Process of Adaptation

The construct of resilience is widely considered and debated within literature and research, yet there remains difficulty in articulating a consensus in its meaning, measurement and of the value it brings (Schoon, 2006; Pooley and Cohen, 2010; Windle et al, 2011; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Southwick, 2014; Walsh-Dilley and Wolford, 2015; Harms, 2015; Liu et al, 2017). Much of the literature refers to resilience as 'bouncing back' (Smith et al, 2008; Herrman, 2011; Windle et al, 2011; Windle, 2011; Wong, 2011; Grant and Kinman, 2013a, 2013b; Ledesma, 2014; Southwick et al, 2014; Harms, 2015; Pemberton, 2015; Russell, 2015; Lui et al, 2017) and is derived from the word 'resile' or latin verb 'resilire' which literally means to jump back or recoil.

There is, however, a consensus within the literature that all humans encounter challenges, difficulties and adversity during their life course and that these range from daily stresses to major life changing catastrophic events (Davis and Asliturk, 2011; Wong, 2011; Jiménez Ambriz et al, 2012; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Southwick et al, 2014; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a; Niemiec, 2019). Luthar et al (2000) draws upon the dynamic nature of resilience by suggesting this develops within a person as they thrive in stressful circumstances and that facing this facilitates positive benefits. Therefore to define psychological resilience requires these two core concepts: adversity and positive adaptation (Masten, 2001, 2019; Windle, 2011; Rutter, 2012; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Ledesma, 2014; Southwick et al, 2014; Harms, 2015; Russell, 2015; Liu et al, 2017). Or according to Connor and Davidson (2003) resilience may be viewed as a measure of successful stress-coping ability through personal qualities and protective factors that allow a person to thrive. Niemiec (2019) discusses this as character strengths for thriving at times of adversity and opportunity.

These protective factors, according to Wong (2011) are embedded in the individual and are also found within the culture and environment, that Brown et al, (2017a) describe as personal and contextual enablers. Windle (2011) describes these as assets and resources. Resilience is deemed to be a 'process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats or even significant stress' (APA, 2003)

with Windle (2011) concurring, with resilience being a process of effectively negotiating, adapting to, or managing stress or trauma. Furthermore, Wong (2011) suggests that if adaptation and positive adjustment are to be optimised requires the interdependency of both negative and positive emotions. Described by Bradburn in 1969 (cited in Wong, 2011) as the 'balance affect' this has developed into the field of positive psychology informing understanding of coping strategies, resilience and well-being. By reflecting on the positive and negative experiences of past and present, Davis and Asliturk (2011) suggest resilience and well-being can be developed through understanding of oneself (abilities, strengths and weaknesses) and context or environment in which one finds oneself. Schoon (2006) and Masten (2019) concur with the notion that resilience has to take consideration of the dynamic person-environment interaction reflecting adaptive changes to adversity. Students can therefore reflect on their previous positive and negative experiences as a positive psychology in coping with anticipated events such as facing allocation to role-emerging placements. Equally they can reflect on their role-emerging experience to develop further resilience as a consequence of the challenges they faced during the placement.

Acknowledging the danger of conceptualising resilience purely as a personality trait, Schoon (2006) suggests there is a potential to label the individual as likely to cope with adversity and succeed in life or not. With Rutter (2012) suggesting resilience is an 'inference based on evidence that some individuals have a better outcome than others who have experienced a comparable level of adversity' (p335). Pemberton (2015) supports the belief that resilience with underlying processes and contextual circumstances must be accounted for too, with the notion of a three-factor model to explain resilience depicted in Figure 4.1. Going beyond the use of personality trait, the association of resilience with an individuals past experience, current life context and protective factors or personal enablers is explored in more recent studies with evidence suggesting a more complex understanding (Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Brown et al, 2017a; Froutan et al, 2018; Brown et al, 2019; Masten 2019). Wilks and Spivey (2010) concur with this, perceiving 'resilience is a product of survival, as well as an indication of hardiness and of present and future strength' (p278). Furthermore, this supports the notion of developing resilience in students as a dynamic process through various platforms both in study (Bleasdale and

Humphreys, 2018; Avrech Bar et al, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020) and practice education (Brown et al, 2019) and is considered further in chapters 9 and 10.

Resilience, as a construct, is defined by Luthar et al (2000) and Masten (2001) as the ability to draw upon personal qualities or referred to by Brown et al, (2017a) as personal enablers, that allow a person to adapt and thrive in adverse and stressful circumstances. This concurs with Russell (2015) who suggests that resilience can be reflected in response to a continuum of 'setbacks' ranging from profound tragedy and trauma to the most mundane life events such as interview failure or losing a sporting event. In education, academic failure can be normalised to build resilience (Edwards and Ashkanasy, 2018). With Davis and Asliturk, (2011) indicating resilient people hold a tendency for entering uncertain contexts, prepared for outcomes that may be desirable or not and view adversities as something that can happen to anyone. This perception of resilience therefore allows for more than just 'bouncing back' and resuming pre-adversity state but suggests adapting to adversity, facilitating growth and positive transformation for those responding to their experience (Masten, 2001, 2019; Pooley and Cohen, 2010; Windle, 2011; Wong, 2011; Southwick et al, 2014; Crane and Searle, 2016; Brown et al, 2017a; Liu et al, 2017; Niemiec, 2019). Furthermore, Russell (2015) discusses how this construct of resilience by some research psychologists is the ability to resume normal functioning after facing adversity. However, maintaining this narrow definition fails to address the full spectrum of circumstances where a person may demonstrate or draw on resilience to overcome whatever it is they face. The adaptation that occurs allows a person to develop beyond their pre-adversity state demonstrating resilience as a process (Windle, 2011). Pooley and Cohen (2010) suggest that resilience is synonymous with the 'potential to exhibit resourcefulness by using internal and external resources in response to different contextual and developmental challenges' (p34). Wong (2011) supports this need for sufficient resources to cope with life and the challenges it brings but also that resilience depends upon learning effective coping strategies and skills, mirrored by Brown et al, (2019). Therefore supporting afore mentioned evidence that maintains the developmental nature of resilience facilitating personal growth and its importance for healthcare students within curriculum delivery (Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020).

4.3.2 The Notion of Thriving and Hardiness

Exploring the construct of resilience, aligned with the notion of thriving, establishes its use commonly informing the array of disciplines who recognise its value and importance for healthcare students and practitioners (Kennedy, 2018; Martin, 2018; Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). Human thriving may be reasoned as being similar to resilience (Ledesma, 2014). However, more in-depth searching of evidence generates a more focused perspective and understanding that refutes the term as being interchangeable in nature (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015). Brown et al (2017a) purport a fundamental difference between the two, defining thriving as a distinct construct and a state of positive functioning, where to thrive does not depend on an adverse or occurance of a negative event, as advocated in resilience (Rutter, 2012; Niemiec, 2019). Niemiec (2019) explores thriving within the realms of positive psychology and the importance of character strengths aligned with opportunity and adversity functions. The character strengths have a role in preventing problems or *buffering* individuals from adversities and support the bounce back from setbacks as a resilience function.

Both resilience and thriving reflect a capacity for positive adaptation and growth (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014; Niemiec, 2019). According to Flinchbaugh et al (2015) it is the challenge stressors that elicit growth and development associated with perceptions of thriving, that enhance life satisfaction, compared to hindrance stressors. First presented by Cavanaugh et al, (2000) as the Challenge-Hindrance Stress Model (CHM), focusing on workplace stressors. The model posits that hindrance stressors interfere with performance or goals, whilst challenge stressors contribute to performance opportunities. Horan et al (2020) in reviewing the model recommend the consideration of the stressors through appraisal to differentiate between the challenges and hindrances and that one single stressor could be appraised simultaneously as being both. Ledesma (2014) suggests thriving is a transformation and includes a cognitive shift in response to challenge to reconstruct meaning. A person may refocus priorities or have a greater sense of self. Patterson and Kelleher (2005, cited in Ledesma, 2014)) suggest thriving is largely determined by a person's resilience capacity that requires three *fuel sources*: personal values, personal efficacy and personal energy. As an individual deals with challenge,

strengthens these fuel sources, that in turn builds capacity to face further challenges.

Role-emerging placements are known to bring greater challenges for students in these experiences as discussed in chapter 2 (Clarke, 2012; Clarke, et al, 2015b, 2019). Therefore, adopting the notion of thriving rather than resilience leads to consideration of how a student perceives and reacts to the inevitable stressors within a placement that could serve to challenge or hinder their experience, allowing them to not just survive but to thrive (Cavanaugh et al, 2000; Ledesma, 2014; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Brown et al 2017a). A student's personal enablers (or fuel sources), assets or protective factors will help them deal with the stressors, capitalising on these as positive (challenging) and therefore allowing them to thrive. In contrast, a student may lack personal enablers, assets or protective factors hindering their ability to deal with the stressors and consequently lead to a negative and adverse placement experience. Understanding and synthesising these as individual differences in students within trait theory discussed in the previous chapter allows for determining how a person approaches and responds to challenging and stressful experiences (Wong, 2011). Therefore, mirroring the notion of positive psychology to coping with anticipated events or building resilience and thriving as a consequence of experiencing them (Davis and Asliturk, 2011; Niemiec, 2019).

For the purposes of this study, where students are exposed to challenging placement experiences suggests resilience is an appropriate term to use and has been adopted as a means of framing this from the outset. The wider use of this being an acceptable and recognised as a means to capture the essence of what students faced and the positive adaptation that was a consequence of a role-emerging placement. However, on reflection could equally be envisioned as thriving, as these experiences need not necessarily be a negative event and present challenge stressors, promoting satisfaction and positive adaptation for some students (Flinchbaugh, et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a; Niemiec, 2019).

Furthermore, in exploring the construct of resilience, the term of *hardines*s also features in the literature and has, at first glance, an interchangeable function with commonality, being defined as the ability to endure difficult conditions. However, on

closer examination, hardiness is deemed to be an attribute or trait of certain people that allows them to respond effectively to stress demands to perform better and stay healthier (Schoon, 2006). According to Maddi (2013) hardiness is a pathway to resiliency. This synthesis of hardiness within resilience theory warrants further consideration as it is reflected as a characteristic of the resilient individual (Grant and Kinman, 2013; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Jameson, 2014) and is therefore discussed further in this chapter.

The concept of hardiness was originally articulated by Kobasa (1979) and defined as a personality characteristic consisting of components of commitment, control and challenge, which Maddi (2013) describes as hardi-attitudes. These provide the courage, strategies and motivation to cope during stressful situations (Kobasa et al, 1979). The first C is ‘commitment’ with the belief that no matter how hard things get, it is important to stay involved rather than become alienated and disengaged. The second C is ‘control’, a belief in your ability to influence and turn stresses into growth opportunities and the final C is ‘challenge’ where you accept life by its nature is stressful but you see this as an opportunity for personal growth through learning and developing. A combination of all three ‘Cs’ constitutes hardiness and according to Maddi (2013) is the key to resiliency, for not only surviving but also thriving and enhancing performance and health. As with resilience, the concept of hardiness is being recognised as an important factor in maintaining physical and psychological health and personal well-being. Wong (2011) supports this in his thinking situated in the emerging field of positive psychology identifying four pillars of the ‘good life’ comprising of meaning, virtue, resilience and well-being. Studies have explored its importance in increasingly stressful work environments (Merino-Tejedor et al, 2015; Froutan et al, 2018). Wilks and Spivey (2010) suggest resilience is a ‘product of survival as well as an indication of hardiness and of present and future strength’ (p278) which meets with the notion of resilience being a developmental process or continuum built through successful coping in previous adversity and a belief in resistance to future stressors.

4.4 Characteristics of Resilient People

The notion of resilience is deemed as being an innate ability linked to personality characterised by perseverance, self-efficacy, optimism, internal locus of control,

emotional management and awareness, sense of humour, and an ability to problem solve (Youssef and Luthans, 2007; CIPD, 2011; Guadalupe Jiménez Ambriz, 2012; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Beddoe et al, 2013; Harms, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a). Furthermore, Friborg et al (2005) establish a positive correlation between the well-adjusted personality profiles to resilience factors in a study based upon the Big Five and the Resilience Scale for Adults (RSA). The person with a *hardy* or resilient personality is considered to have characteristics including greater control, motivation, and greater orientation to challenges and change (Malim and Birch, 1998). Resilience is known to be important to those in 'helping professions' (Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Froutan et al, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020), with Brown et al, (2019) exploring this specifically within occupational therapy students. It is suggested that through educating resilient practitioners can embed these strengths (Beddoe et al, 2013). Connor and Davidson (2003) establish factors that determine resilience including tenacity, personal competence, trust in one's own instincts, tolerance of negative effect, positive acceptance of change, secure relationships, and control. According to Feldman (2014) resilient people have control over their own destiny and make the best of whatever situation they are in, aligning to self-efficacy and emotional intelligence discussed in chapter 3.

The hardi-attitudes of commitment, control and challenge described by Maddi (2013), discussed in 4.3, as being the key to resilience also reflect and encapsulate some of the characteristics described within resilience theory. This fusion of terms cannot be disregarded and the following section of this chapter will elucidate the individual and innate aspects of resilience through exploring the characteristics that typify a resilient person.

The research evidence and literature identifies that the construct of resilience is also associated with personality theory (Friborg et al, 2005, Hutchinson et al, 2010, Merino-Tejedor et al, 2015; Froutan et al, 2018; Avrech Bar et al, 2018; Oshio et al, 2018). Chapter 3, within this study explores personality theory in greater depth, however, there is value here in considering the intrinsic, stable characteristics a resilient person is deemed to possess. The attributes, strengths and innate traits are those that are drawn on to bring about the adaptation and positive outcomes and are the internal resources or assets advocated as necessary by Pooley and Cohen (2010) and Windle (2011). Grant and Kinman (2013b) indicate that social, cultural

and emotional competencies are known to be importance, which encapsulate strengths and qualities innate within an individual. Furthermore the multidimensional nature of resilience encompasses the dynamic relationship between the person and contextual environment. Grant and Kinman (2013a) categorise resilience into three components; firstly personality and individual differences: intrinsic individual characteristics. Secondly, the Environment: outcomes from contextual experiences and thirdly, the Person – environment and the interaction between the first two components. This again, reflects the three factor model of Pemberton (2015) in Figure 4.1.

These intrinsic individual characteristics are documented throughout the research and literature and reflect those typically integrated into resilience measurement scales that will be discussed later in this chapter (Connor and Davidson, 2003, Smith et al, 2008; Niemiec, 2019). In exploring these characteristics there is also a need to offer consideration of the synthesis between personal attributes, professional behaviours, values and aptitude which are interrelated and cannot seemingly be extricated into distinct entities.

Problem solving, planning skills and autonomy are recognised as a requisite to building resilience (Connor and Davidson, 2003) and these link to professional expectations of students in terms of critical thinking skills and an ability to reflect on and learn from experiences. This informs the need for continuing professional development (CPD) and engagement with reflective practice through self-reflection and reflexivity (Bolton and Delderfield, 2018). A positive self-concept and strong sense of identity is also highlighted as a characteristic of a resilient person (Grant and Kinman, 2013a). The importance of identity is also reflected in the profession specific literature based on role-emerging placement experiences (Clark et al, 2014a, 2014b; Clark et al, 2015a; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2018).

Souri and Hasanirad (2011), Beddoe et al, (2013) and Adamson et al, (2014) suggest that the trait of optimism is a desirable requisite for developing resilience and this is also reiterated in the literature exploring emotional intelligence (Chaffey et al, 2012; Andonian, 2013; McKenna and Mellson, 2013; Brennan, 2016). With Davis and Asliturk, (2011) referring to this as a *realistic orientation* that allows for effective adjustment to adversity through anticipating challenge, deemed as an

acquired skill rather than a fixed trait. This correlates to the characteristic identified by Connor and Davidson (2003) who maintain resilient people view change or stress as a challenge or opportunity, therefore suggesting the importance of optimism, hope and a sense of not giving up or giving into failure (Adamson et al, 2014). With Youssef and Luthans (2007) suggesting hope primarily focuses on internal, self-directed agency and pathways, whereas, optimism is a broader perspective, not limited to the self but includes external causes such as other people and situations. For the students, this could be the approach taken by the placement tutor as a consequence of appropriate allocation and their educator holding optimism for a successful placement experience and outcome. An ability to have self-belief and determination, alongside a sense of purpose builds upon the optimistic trait, allowing individuals to endure stressful circumstances over time (Guadalupe Jiménez Ambriz, 2012). This capacity to transform negatives into positives is founded within the psychology of well-being that according to Wong (2011) allows for optimal positive adaptation or thriving (Niemiec, 2019). Equally, adopting a realistic orientation when facing a time of uncertainty (such as a role-emerging placement) through proactively anticipating potential scenarios, not just the likelihood of occurance but coping strategies for if and when they do occur allows for smoother positive adaptation (Davis and Asliturk, 2011). These people who hold a realistic orientation do not cope passively, but actively read and respond to challenge and threats by redoubling efforts, changing tactics, revising goals and if necessary accepting reality (Davis and Asliturk, 2011). Furthermore, a sense of humour is documented within the literature as a necessity for developing or determining resilience (Connor and Davidson, 2003; Adamson et al, 2014; Minulescu, 2015; Brennan, 2016; Clompus and Albarran, 2016) and is a specific characteristic measured within the rating scales.

Research indicates attributes such as self-awareness, self-efficacy and empathy are linked to the development of resilience (Kinman and Grant, 2011, Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Rajan-Rankin, 2014). Earlier in this chapter, the attribute of adaptability is highlighted as key to developmental process of a resilient person (Harms, 2015; Russell, 2015). This openness to varying experiences and successful, positive adaptation to change is deemed to be a core characteristic and is therefore measured when determining resilience (Luthar, 2000; Schoon, 2006).

Resilience is also known to indicate the need for an element of control in day-to-day life for an individual and the need to maintain a balance in their lives, with a commitment to manage self-care to promote well-being. Wilks and Spivey (2010) discuss the importance of social support, relationships and access to significant others such as family and friends as being crucial to developing protective factors in times of stress. This is also recognised by Connor and Davidson, (2003) as being characteristic of resilience and is measured explicitly in the rating scales. This is pertinent for students whilst undertaking placements and often presents a period of time when work life balance is harder to maintain as they endure the challenges. These relate to the coping strategies clearly documented within the research on resilience, described by Brown et al (2017a) as being personal enablers. However, Harms (2015) suggests such protective factors alone do not facilitate resilience but it is the positive adaptation at times of stress and adversity that allow an individual to develop resilience.

4.5 Measuring Resilience

Seery et al (2013) reiterate the thinking of Rutter (1993) in that resilience is not deemed to be a dispositional characteristic but a response and interaction between an individual and the stressor and that to assess resilience both the stressor and individual response must be taken into account. The individual context and previous adversity faced by a person will impact with varying circumstances and environments, mirroring earlier discussions by Davis and Asliturk (2011). Consequently, the measurement of the construct of resilience has to allow for its complex and dynamic nature to be accounted for and according to Quinlan et al (2016), therefore, does not easily lend itself to measurement. The methodological chapter will discuss in detail, the justification and application of the chosen measurement scale (CD-RISC 25) as a data collection tool for this study. However, the measurement of resilience will be explored within this chapter through an appraisal of research studies that utilise different rating scales within varying contexts, of which some have greater relevancy to this study.

Ahern et al, (2006) published a robust review of instruments measuring resilience, which evaluated the psychometric properties of six scales. The purpose of the review was to establish the most appropriate scale for measuring resilience in

adolescents and how risk and protective factors through childhood influence this. This review utilised a 3-point scoring system that focused on application to adolescents so lacks some relevancy to this study. Ahern et al, (2006) concluded that the CD-RISC (25) (Connor and Davidson, 2003) was one of three scales demonstrating reliability and with sound psychometric properties. Its use being limited by the small number of studies purely situated within mental health practice at the time of publication. The review favoured the Resilience Scale (Wagnild and Young, 1993) that had been used in numerous studies to validate the use of this scale with population groups of varying ages. The CD-RISC had only been developed three years before the review compared to the Resilience Scale that emerged in 1993, some ten years earlier and allowed for more time to test its properties and use.

Both the CD-RISC and Resilience Scale use a 25 item rating scale, which combine scores, with the higher scores indicating greater resilience. Smith et al, (2008) suggest that these two measures draw upon protective factors or resources including personal characteristics and coping strategies that embody resilience. Consequently, Smith et al (2008) developed the Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) aimed at measuring the ability to 'bounce back' or recover from stress. The sample participants came from student populations and cardiac and chronic pain patients. Whilst arguing that the BRS is the only measure to assess resilience in its most basic meaning: which is to bounce back and an ability to recover or resist illness, suggests a focus suited to health outcomes. In contrast, the use of a scale such as the CD-RISC (25) measuring characteristics that promote positive adaptation is deemed more suited to the focus and aim of this study.

Windle et al (2011) indicate the need for reliability and validity measures given the complexity of the resilience construct with different approaches and focus. A number of measurement scales have been developed in an attempt create tools that bring relevance to the context and population. Despite the review by Ahern et al (2006), Windle et al (2011) suggest this has historically been arbitrary and not always appropriate leading to inconsistencies. In an attempt to identify, compare and critically assess the validity and rigour of the psychometric properties of conceptually similar scales, Windle et al (2011) published a methodological review of fifteen scales, using stringent criteria that allows for systematic and meaningful

comparison. In doing so, the review offers a valuable resource to draw upon in selecting the most suitable measurement scale to explore the construct of resilience. Clearly, this was published some years ago so could be considered as having limited application to current studies. However, scales included in this review are frequently selected as methodological data collection tools. Therefore, the body of evidence in their application expands with each year through up-to-date research publication of studies. The review established three scales were rated highly and these are the Connor Davidson Resilience Scale (CD RISC-25) (Connor and Davidson, 2003), the Resilience scale for Adults (RSA-37) (Friborg et al, 2005) and The Brief Resilience Scale (Smith el, 2008).

The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale 25 (CD-RISC-25) was developed through the work with individuals with post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and levels of resilience whilst facing adversity (Connor and Davidson, 2003). Based upon the work of early researchers including Kobasa's construct of hardiness and that of Rutter (1985) where salient characteristics such as adaptability and optimism were established as underpinning resilience. The scale has subsequently been used for studies with the general population including with young adults and students (Souri and Hasanirad, 2011; Allan et al, 2014; Madewell and Ponce-Garcia, 2016). The scale consists of 25 questions rated from 0-4. The higher the total scale score suggests greater resilience. The scale has been reviewed for its psychometric properties and is rated as one of the most robust scales to measure the construct of resilience (Windle et al, 2011).

The relationship between resilience, optimism and psychological well-being in medical students was researched by Souri and Hasanirad (2011) in quantitative study with medical students (n=414) using 3 measurement scales to collect data. The study established an interactive relationship between the variables of resilience and optimism but also determined that cultural and religious values can impact too. The study was carried out in the Middle East and therefore brings a different focus to that of studies in Western societies with different cultural and religious contexts.

Allan et al, (2014) carried out a robust large-scale quantitative study that explores the profiling of psychological resilience in university students (n=1534) over a years transition into UK higher education. Although this study links this to the outcome of

academic success, the study used the Connor-Davidson Scale as proposed in this study. Therefore this has a relevance to inform this review as it confirms appropriateness of the methods chosen. The findings inform practice in the higher education sector and the importance of how resilience impacts upon a student population and support mechanisms to promote successful study. The use of transition and a student's resilience during this time can be applied to occupational therapy students undertaking placement experiences.

A more recent study by Madewell and Ponce-Garcia (2016) drew upon commonly used resilience scales in the context of emerging adulthood with a sample of college students (n=421) who reported significant stress or trauma. Comparing the CD-RISC 10 and 25, the Resilience Scale 14 and 25, with that of the Scale of Protective Factors allowed not only cognitive / individual factors to be measured but also the interpersonal / social factors in determining resilience. Friborg et al (2005) present a study using the Resilience Scale for Adults and the Big Five measure of personality trait (McCrae and Costa, 1997) with military students (n=482). This study aimed to elucidate earlier findings that the resilient personality profile is characterised by a high score of the Big Five factors with a positive correlation across all factors. These factors are extroversion, openness, conscientiousness, emotional stability or absence of neuroticism and agreeableness (Maltby et al, 2013). Therefore the correlations demonstrate an individuals ability to psychologically adapt with greater sociability and with extroversion indicates competitiveness, drive and energy which increase coping capacity. These are reflected in the attributes and characteristics identified as necessary for students to undertake role-emerging placements by Wood (2005) and Kirke et al (2007). Brown et al (2019) in their quanitative, cross-sectional study (n=135) utilised two standardised scales being Resilience Scale for Adults (RSA) and Resilience at University Scale (RAU) plus the placement evaluation form to measure factors that predict placement performance, success for occupational therapy students and the value of resilience. In support of the Connor-Davidson resilience scale, Bleasdale and Humphreys (2018) used the 10 point scale (CD-RISC 10) in collecting undergraduate student data in a UK university and subsequent report offering highly relevant findings to draw on. The study adopted this as a measurement tool based on its international use across many sections of society deeming it reliable to measure self-perceived resilience of participants in situations of stress. These timely

studies will be drawn on in chapter 9, discussing findings and drawing links where findings support this piece of research.

4.6 Resilience and Context

Throughout this chapter the interaction between the person and environmental context has been discussed as core to the construct of resilience. Adamson et al (2014) explore the need for resilience in the face of workplace demands and stressors in a narrative study of 21 social workers who self-identified as resilient. A mapping of three interactive components are identified to emphasise the relational and contextual characteristics for social work practitioners. These are core attributes, mediating factors such as coping behaviours, professional identity and the practice context itself including organisational culture. More recent evidence concurs with the impact of organisational and structural factors that serve to threaten resilience amongst practitioners to a greater extent than the emotional intensity of working with service users often in difficult circumstances (Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). These findings suggest that for the students in role-emerging placements , the setting dynamics and environment itself could affect resilience levels to a greater or lesser degree and account for barriers and expectations of the provider. Furthermore, the determinants of resilience are biological, social, psychological, economic and cultural factors which all determine how a person responds to stressful experiences. These determinants differ between contexts and individual circumstances (Southwick et al, 2014).

Much of the more recent research evidence on resilience can be conceptualised from both individual and organisational perspectives (CIPD, 2011; Beddoe et al, 2013; Brennan, 2016; Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). This allows for a breadth of application across clinical settings, and more generically, to life experiences and contexts within the wider population (Connor and Davidson, 2003; Windle et al, 2011). Evidence has also emerged from various sectors including occupational and business psychology, (CIPD, 2011, Horan et al, 2020), education (Wilks and Spivey, 2010; Beddoe et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Allan et al, 2014; Mansfield et al, 2016), the military (Angel, 2016) and sport performance (Fletcher and Sarkar, 2012; Gonzalez et al, 2016) in an attempt to generate understanding of resilience for personnel, teams, organisations and communities. Furthermore, Walsh-Dilley

and Wolford (2015) suggest contemporary resilience thinking positions itself within the disciplines of ecology, psychology and disaster studies informing international development and humanitarian strategy and practice in times of social and ecological volatility, as individuals and communities strive to overcome catastrophic disaster and adversity. The current COVID-19 pandemic will inevitably serve as a catalyst to shape future research informing greater understanding of resilience as a consequence of communities across the globe facing catastrophic societal and health adversity.

4.7 Resilience in the Context of Health

The health and social care sector in the United Kingdom and more globally, has not only generated a wealth of literature and research exploring resilience for those living with illness and disability (Seery, 2011; Black and Dorstyn, 2013) but also based upon the experiences of being a professional or student within health and social care contexts (Kinman and Grant, 2011; Pipe et al, 2012; Ashby et al, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2013; Clompus and Albarran, 2016; Matheson et al, 2016; McGowan and Murray, 2016; Robertson et al, 2016; Avrech Bar et al, 2018; Lopez et al, 2018; Mistretta et al, 2018; Brown et al, 2019; Cleveland et al, 2019; Kunzler et al, 2020a&b).

This growing body of evidence focuses on the resilience of those undertaking roles and responsibilities within health and social care services meeting the needs of individuals and communities. Such services fall within public sector organisations such as the National Health Service, Local Authorities and third sector organisations. As discussed in chapter one the need for prudent, sustainable healthcare requires a resilient workforce to deliver services with increasing pressure of budgetary cuts, decreasing staffing levels and the need for innovative practice. These emotional demands, stress and challenges placed upon practitioners such as occupational therapists as they strive to deliver prudent, timely services are well documented across the health professions (Grafton et al, 2010; Ashby et al, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2013a, 2013b; Brennan, 2016; Clompus and Albarran, 2016; Robertson et al, 2016; Cleveland et al, 2019; Kunzler et al, 2020b) bringing a realisation of the importance of robust workforces.

A substantial focus of this literature and research lies within the professions of nursing and social work (Jackson et al, 2007; Grafton et al, 2010; Wilks and Spivey, 2010; Pipe et al, 2012; Grant and Kinman, 2013a, 2013b; Beddoe et al, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2014; Jameson, 2014; Smith, 2014; Hegney et al, 2015; Williams and Keep, 2015; Holroyd, 2015; Reyes et al, 2015a&b; Brennan, 2016; Hemy et al, 2016; Matheson et al, 2016; Robertson et al, 2016; Avrech Bar et al, 2018; Froutan et al, 2018; Cleveland et al, 2019; Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). Within occupational therapy there is a more limited body of evidence to draw upon which specifically explores resilience (Roberts, 2001; Ashby et al, 2013; Brown et al, 2019). Roberts, (2001) refers to the need for professional resilience within the occupational therapy profession and Ashby et al, (2013) focuses on developing resilience within mental health practice. Of most relevance is the study by Brown et al, (2019) that identifies resilience factors that were predictive of occupational therapy students' practice performance, where final year students are more attuned to the coping strategies required to deal with workplace stress. In turn, findings concurred with the earlier study by Roberts et al, (2015) that found such factors encourage development of professional self-identity.

Kinman and Grant, (2011), Grant and Kinman, (2013b), Beddoe et al, (2013), Jameson, (2014), Rajan-Rankin, (2014), Williams and Keep, (2015), Brennan, (2016), Monteverde, (2016) and Kunzler et al, (2020) discuss the importance of not just focusing on the staff of healthcare professions but recognise the need to develop the resilience and emotional intelligence of students to prepare them for practice and becoming a professional. Bringing relevance to this study, this evidence focuses on the need to develop resilient practitioners from student perspectives (Tambag and Can, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020). To date, much of this research is drawn from professions such as nursing (Jameson, 2014; Reyes et al, 2015a&b; Boardman, 2016; Brennan, 2016; McGowan and Murray, 2016; Monteverde, 2016; Lopez et al, 2018), social work (Wilks and Spivey, 2010; Beddoe et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2011, 2013a; Rajan-Rankin, 2014; Smith, 2014; Hemy et al, 2016; Cleveland et al, 2019) and medicine (Souri and Hasanirad, 2011). Despite the paucity of evidence from within occupational therapy, the research founded upon role–emerging placements implicitly explores resilience and its importance for students undertaking these experiences.

Kinman and Grant (2011) suggest resilience is a protective factor enhancing an ability to manage work-based stress and challenging work environments. For some individuals, resilience may explain why negative outcomes such as 'burn out' in stressful circumstances are resisted but may also allow some people to not just cope but to thrive and flourish. Seery et al (2013), Flinchbaugh et al, (2015) and Crane and Searle (2016) concur with this in their studies that established exposure to differing stressors has the potential to build resilience. Based on earlier research that first introduced the Challenge-Hindrance Model (CHM) framework (Cavanaugh et al, 2000, the stressors were viewed as challenges or hindrances bringing about differing effects on resilience and well-being in individuals. The challenge stressors may result in strain but at the same time can energise, create feelings of accomplishment, growth and development to promote well-being whilst the hindrance stressors diminish well-being, impacting positively or negatively on life-satisfaction. In acknowledging that stressful situations cannot be fully avoided, Flinchbaugh et al, (2015) suggest resilient individuals can still thrive in stressful situations that promote personal challenge and achievement through challenge stressors that elicit learning, growth and accomplishment. The growing body of evidence continues to explore the 'thriving' not just 'surviving' notion within health and social care practitioners, as prudent measures and limited resources are faced in day to day practice (Jackson et al, 2007; Rose and Palattiyil, 2020).

As alluded to in the introduction, the construct of emotional intelligence will be discussed. Similarly to hardiness, this construct is inextricably linked to resilience and is particularly noted within healthcare research so cannot be dismissed. First coined as a term by Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s and Goleman (1996), emotional intelligence is recognised by health professions as a key requisite for those working in healthcare environments (Chaffey, et al, 2012; Andonian, 2013; McKenna and Mellson, 2013; Brennan, 2016; Brown et al, 2016; Perkins and Schmid, 2019). The need for staff and students to understand their own emotions and develop skills of emotional stability is essential to help develop competences and capabilities (Brennan, 2016; Brown et al, 2016; Perkins and Schmid, 2019). This not only informs professionalism but the capacity for handling stress, coping with being under pressure, building emotional resilience and self-protection (McKenna and Mellson, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Cleveland et al, 2019). Mayer et al, (2008) and Mayer et al (2016) underpin their thinking of emotional intelligence

using a four-branch model of emotional intelligence as being an ability to not just understand and manage emotions but to also facilitate cognition (thought processes) and action through problem solving and decision-making. Such skills are recognised to be key to role-emerging placements, where autonomy and self-direction are identified as core skills where the student is independently developing an occupational focused role through clinical reasoning (Knightbridge, 2014). Furthermore, perceiving emotion of self and others is also deemed necessary (Mayer et al, 2016) and meets with the need for occupational therapists and occupational therapy students to draw upon reflective practice and develop self-awareness skills (McKenna and Mellson, 2013; HCPC, 2016, 2017b; COT, 2015; RCOT, 2017). A pertinent quantitative study by Andonian (2013) explores emotional intelligence, perceived self-efficacy and occupational therapy student performance in fieldwork. The findings indicted a correlation between higher levels of emotional intelligence and its positive impact upon performance on placement, particularly related to communication skills and professional behaviour. Similarly, Grant and Kinman, (2013b) identify both emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as characteristics of a resilient person. Such skills and attributes are clearly evidenced as important for occupational therapy students undertaking placements and particularly so, in role-emerging experiences (HCPC, 2017b).

Resilience has also been drawn upon in the health sector to inform a paradigm shift away from a medical focus on illness and psychological deficits to one of positive psychology, emphasising personal strengths and adaptive behaviour facilitating well-being to empower individuals, promoting health and positive outcomes (Connor and Davidson, 2003; Schoon, 2006; Hutchinson et al, 2010; Seery, 2011; Windle et al, 2011; Wong, 2011; Robertson, 2012; Southwick et al, 2014). This shift fits with contemporary health agendas both in terms of generating a resilient workforce within the public sectors (Pipe et al, 2012; Glasper, 2016; Monteverde, 2016) and sustainable services. Through building resilience in individuals and communities promotes the positive health of the nation with the aim of alleviating and targeting the burden of healthcare (Medical Research Council, 2014; NHS England, 2014).

4.8 Resilience, Occupational Therapy and Role-emerging Placements

Through undertaking a literature search based on occupational therapy student placement experiences generated limited evidence with explicit reference to resilience. Timely research by Brown et al, (2019) using a quantitative, cross-sectional study explores the relationship between resilience and placement performance drawing on factors that predict success. The findings offer some parallels to this study linking resilience and personality trait. However, much of the research and literature clearly discusses the challenging nature of placements, explicitly being role –emerging in nature and is deemed to be pertinent to use as a construct to inform this study as much of the thinking on resilience mirrors that of the experiences students endured when allocated to this type of placement (Clarke, 2012). As identified by Grant and Kinman (2013a) the key aspects of the construct of resilience being identified as the personality and individual differences: those intrinsic individual characteristics of a person combined with the interaction they have with the environment resonated well when thinking through the research methodology. The deliberate selection of students as discussed in chapter one, with those who demonstrate these characteristics in their traits, strengths and attributes deemed to have the suitable aptitude to these challenging placement experiences fits with the constructs of resilience and hardiness. Furthermore, the notion that resilience as a developmental process is built through successful coping in previous adversity. Thereby suggesting that for occupational therapy students and measuring their resilience in role-emerging placements will be determined by not just the placement experience itself but also exposure to stressors throughout their life course and effective use of protective factors or personal enablers (Brown et al, 2017b). Students who have a realistic orientation and who are not overly optimistic, that recognise and anticipate adversity will cope and adapt by preparing thoroughly. This is achieved by gathering resources, seeking information and weighing up scenarios and risk of potential failure (Davis and Asliturk, 2011).

As this concept of role-emerging placements has gained momentum over the past decade, so too has the evidence that has emerged exploring the complexities of such placements. As a result the evidence has shifted from the purpose of role-emerging placements in addressing placement capacity shortages to that of being more commonly utilised by higher education institutions as bringing value to student

experiences, learning and developing professional identity (Jepson et al, 2006; Thew et al, 2008; Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Overton et al, 2009; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2014; Knightbridge, 2014; Clarke et al, 2015a&b; Roberts et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Brown et al, 2019; RCOT, 2019a). The literature also counter argues that traditional apprenticeship models of placement with close supervisory guidance from the educator can create a dependency and reliance that stifles creativity and independent thinking for students (Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Overton et al, 2009).

The construct of resilience and personality traits are therefore deemed of relevance to the study and are thought to be pivotal in gauging the student's aptitude for different placement settings.

4.9 Summary of Chapter

This chapter offers an in-depth exploration of resilience, aligned with the notion of thriving. The historical emergence of resilience as a construct is initially discussed to bring understanding of the current meaning of resilience. Through research and literature situated within the study of resilience, it is has become known to be a complex and dynamic construct of relevance to varying contexts. The interchangeable nature and fusion of terms including resilience, hardiness and thriving are explored and justify the use of resilience for this study. Specific note is made to the importance of resilience within the context of health and its relevance to this study Finally the measurement of resilience is appraised through exploration of pertinent research studies and their findings drawn upon to inform the reader of their relevance to this study and its methodological design.

Chapter 5 : Entrepreneurship and Innovative Practice

5.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter presents the concepts of entrepreneurship and innovation, which are defined initially to capture the essence of their meaning from a broad and generic perspective. These concepts will be explored through discussion of their development over time, briefly touching on early theoretical understanding and the customary application to business models, to a more contemporary understanding of entrepreneurship, social enterprise and their relevance to this study. Personality trait theory and the construct of resilience have been given in-depth consideration in chapter 3 and 4 respectively; whilst this chapter deliberates the nature of the entrepreneurial disposition, exploring characteristics attributable to being a successful entrepreneur. This draws on the body of research that explores entrepreneurial behaviour resulting from trait theory to a developmental or cognitive perspective. Resilience as a construct is synthesised with entrepreneurship in this chapter, as research suggests that an entrepreneurial individual has to face challenges and potential failure demonstrating perseverance and determination that reflects a resilient nature. The resilient entrepreneur performs effectively and has a higher propensity to act through self-efficacy, optimism and perseverance in striving to achieve goals or overcome difficulties.

The relevance of entrepreneurship and innovation to the occupational therapy profession and its importance in bringing creativity and diversity will be discussed. The chapter will draw on parallels from the literature and research to explain the pertinence to role-emerging experiences for occupational therapy students, given that entrepreneurial behaviour is a requisite for developing the profession. The nature of role-emerging placements, discussed in Chapter 2, will be expanded, to explain how these experiences demand greater creativity and innovation. This chapter will also present an overview of research that encapsulates the drive for generating innovative practitioners and nurturing entrepreneurial characteristics and behaviour in healthcare students.

Whilst acknowledging the vast body of research and literature exploring the burgeoning construct of entrepreneurship, it is also important to recognise that this

chapter can only offer a brief insight into entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial thinking to support the context of this study.

The key search terms employed were: entrepreneur, entrepreneurship, enterprise, social, innovation, diversity, creativity, passion, risk, occupational therapy, student, health, placement, resilience, personality, characteristics, trait, qualities, aptitude, attributes.

5.2 Defining Entrepreneurship, Innovation and Enterprise

Entrepreneurship is a complex phenomenon that can be defined and interpreted in multiple and diverse ways (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Welter et al, 2016; Zahra and Wright, 2016; Blundel et al, 2018; Santoro et al, 2018). Often portrayed at the forefront of commercial business models and theory, it suggests the importance of innovation, entrepreneurship and enterprise as a phenomenon driving economic success and growth globally (Koe et al, 2010; Bullough and Renko, 2013: Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Zahra and Wright, 2016; Dawson and Andriopoulos, 2017; Fisher et al, 2018). Whilst acknowledging entrepreneurship customarily sits within the realms of business venture, the fundamental premise on which it is founded can be applied to other contexts where change and diversity is a requisite. Healthcare, and the professions that drive its delivery, are pivotal in constantly changing environments, in order that contemporary agendas for health and well-being are met through new ways of working (Cooper and Raine, 2009; McClure, 2011, Windle et al, 2011; Clarke et al, 2015a; Wilson and Baldwin, 2015; Creek and Cook, 2017). The current covid-19 pandemic bears witness to this need for new ways of working in healthcare and has seen an acceleration of creativity and entrepreneurial action as a response. In developing understanding of the construct of entrepreneurship and exploring its place in occupational therapy as a healthcare profession, establishes its relevance to this study as role-emerging placements are at the forefront of evolving practice in diverse and non-traditional settings.

Innovation, defined by Hisrich and Kearney (2014) as the process of generating, developing or enhancing an idea, through to its creation is associated with entrepreneurship. However, Dino (2015) discusses innovation, creativity and entrepreneurship as distinct concepts that are inextricably linked suggesting

creativity is the generation of new ideas, whereas innovation is the implementation of these ideas within a specific context with an original outcome. Dino (2015) defines entrepreneurship as the identification and capturing of opportunities with a purpose, value and solution. Bröckling (2016) resonates this by concluding entrepreneurs only exist where there are markets and that entrepreneurial activity is aimed at market success. Bessant and Tidd (2015) suggest that entrepreneurship drives innovation within practice, either through individuals or an organisational culture where creativity is encouraged. This process of change through innovation can take different forms that Bessant and Tidd (2015) suggest creates new products and new processes. Furthermore, they suggest innovation can also be driven by new contexts and paradigms that facilitate a change of direction and values that underpin an organisation. Through passion and dedication, either acting alone or by individuals embedded within organisations, innovation is an active process of entrepreneurship facilitating change. The pull and push hypothesis (Schoedt and Shaver, 2007) suggests entrepreneurship is driven by a need to change and improve a situation (push) or that life circumstances can open up opportunity that can be seized upon (pull). For those students allocated to a role-emerging placement without a choice would ‘pull’ them into entrepreneurial action. For clinicians and for students who seek and can choose to embrace practice in new and diverse settings, developing services or a product, would be a ‘push’ driving entrepreneurship. Whilst occupational therapy students in role-emerging placements can experience challenges and resistance to innovate and change the practice of the setting where they are placed, they typically have to draw upon a vision to sculpt the scope of a new role, use their insight and judgement to pave the way through perseverance to make this happen. For the students placed in role-emerging placements their entrepreneurial drive was to facilitate change for the purposes of improving service delivery in a marginal setting so shaping their actions.

Entrepreneurship is often synonymous with the term ‘enterprise’; however, Bridge et al (2010) and Blundel et al (2018) suggest some blurring and ambiguity between the terms. The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) brings some clarity by defining entrepreneurship as the ‘application of enterprise skills specifically to creating and growing organisations in order to identify and build on opportunities’ (p7) (2012). Such enterprise skills are considered to include an innate use of initiative, problem solving and creativity, alongside an ability to think strategically. The association

between entrepreneurship and the notion of enterprise is similarly argued by Rae (2007), as being the skills, knowledge and personal attributes required to apply creativity and innovation to practical situations. Therefore, an entrepreneur is an individual who innovates and acts in an enterprising way to bring about change and improvement (Rae, 2007). Blundel et al (2018) refer to individuals as enterprising within the 'sense of being adventurous, dynamic and making a mark on the world' such as an explorer or campaigner for human rights (p4). However, enterprise can also be used to describe a venture often situated within a community or societal context that are described as 'social enterprises' and increasingly established within the third sector complimenting statutory healthcare services (Wilson and Baldwin, 2015; Thew et al, 2017). These organisations typify the type of setting where students undertake role-emerging placements, often with a remit to address social determinants of health and societal inequalities (Thew et al, 2017). Similarly, social innovation, defined by Bessant and Tidd (2015) has its traditions driven by social reformers, bringing their passion to meet social needs and create value for communities and society more broadly through a pro-social approach. Innovation and enterprise bring a fusion and interchangeable interpretation of terms. However, what remains clear is the existence of opportunities within healthcare sectors to deliver services more creatively and diversely, which compliments the occupational therapy profession and its desire to shift practice away from traditional service delivery models (Pattison, 2008, 2010; McClure, 2011; Molineux and Baptiste, 2011; Scaffa and Holmes, 2014; Van Bruggen, 2014; Creek, 2017; Creek and Cook, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Kantarzis, 2019).

Shane and Venkataraman (2000) and their seminal work, suggest the field of entrepreneurship studies the 'sources of opportunities, the processes of discovery, evaluation and exploitation of those opportunities and of those individuals who discover, evaluate and exploit them' (p218). Early theorist, Schumpeter (1934) is acknowledged to be a founder of entrepreneurship and innovation. An evolutionary economist of the twentieth century, Schumpeter's concepts focused on combinations of new products, new services, new markets, and new ways of creating and organising industries thus shaping the field of entrepreneurship (Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Blundel et al, 2018). Whilst driven by business economics, Schumpeter's theory of '*new combinations*' permits thinking to go beyond purely entrepreneurship driving economic growth but allowing diversity more broadly

where new approaches to service provision delivery and new roles are warranted and justified. Schumpeter describes the carrying out of these new combinations as '*enterprise*' and the individuals whose function is to carry these out are entrepreneurs (1934). Role-emerging placements, by their very nature facilitate new tools and in effect, methods of production and service delivery, not yet tested within the organisation, which are innovated and created by the student bringing a potential for development and change (Linnane and Warren, 2017). Schumpeterian theory draws on innovation as a key driver to development and growth with the notion of '*creative destruction'* where the process of generating the new, ultimately destroys what already exists (Sledzik, 2013; Dawson and Andriopoulos, 2017). Role-emerging placements are a conscious attempt to embed a new role, to bring a shift of thinking in the organisation and ultimately change practice, therefore improving outcomes for those who use the service. This new role compliments existing services by introducing new perspectives and ways of working that could fundamentally shape future service delivery. Bessant and Tidd (2015) and Dawson and Andiopoulos (2017) concur that entrepreneurship and innovation are inextricably linked with the identification of new markets and growth opportunities to drive this change process. This supports thinking from within the occupational therapy profession in the need to diversify and open up new areas of practice thus facilitating a shift in the use of occupation driving the contemporary paradigm in healthcare practice (Hocking, 2014, Van Bruggen, 2014; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Creek, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Kantarzis, 2019). Furthermore, Bullough and Renko (2013) indicate entrepreneurial activity is facilitating growth through the creation of goods, services and jobs that can bring development to existing organisations too. This positions the use of role-emerging placements in existing organisations as a means to innovate and empower change through student creativity on a practical level, as well as new direction for the profession more broadly (Treseder, 2012; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Thew et al, 2017). Entrepreneurship therefore has a pivotal role in the shaping of the profession previously alluded to in Chapter 2, and is explicitly identified as a requisite in pre-registration education (RCOT, 2019a).

Suddaby et al, (2015) articulate that the field of entrepreneurship has historically struggled to define its core phenomenon, raising increasing debate over its epistemological and ontological nature. Seminal work by Shane and Venkataraman

(2000) conceptualises entrepreneurship as dependent upon, not just the individual, who they are and what they do but also the presence and exploitation of lucrative opportunities. According to Suddaby et al (2015) an emergent consensus elucidates the nature of opportunity and two perspectives whether these opportunities exist as gaps in the real world waiting to be discovered or do entrepreneurs create them? The opportunity and entrepreneurial individual co-exist and are therefore mutually dependent to generate entrepreneurship. These 'entrepreneurial opportunities' are wide ranging and according to Dorado and Ventresca (2013) and Suddaby et al (2015) can be found in the broader, complex social and cultural contexts. The role-emerging placement allows opportunities to be created, opened up and exploited in the wider health and social care arenas bringing these together, with the student as the innovator using entrepreneurial behaviour to shape practice. The seeking out of role-emerging experiences and exploitation of opportunities could also be construed as entrepreneurial action undertaken by the placement tutor or team, as they push the boundaries of practice for the students and profession more broadly reflecting the Push Pull hypothesis of entrepreneurial intention (Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007). In supporting this, Creek and Cook, (2017), Creek (2017) and Kantartzis (2018) suggest occupational therapists can be agents of change through practising in marginal settings alongside mainstream healthcare.

5.3 The Diversity of Entrepreneurship

Welter et al, (2016) discuss the heterogeneity or diversity of entrepreneurship where there is no one form and express the need to move away from the customary, narrow focus on venture growth, global businesses that fuel entrepreneurial perception, which they perceive to have stunted the growth of this field. Welter et al (2016) suggests the research and evidence-base has wrongly focused on the elite, 'exceptional ventures' of the few rather than exploring the breadth and diversity of 'everyday' entrepreneurship (p313). Global household names such as Apple and Google, have according to Welter et al, (2016), dominated thinking in the field of entrepreneurship research to the detriment in determining the value of smaller ventures bringing a missed opportunity to explore the many social challenges and inequalities faced by communities and social groups. Welter et al (2016) also suggest that an imperative, economic focus and purpose, prevents us valuing the rich and diverse motivations that drive entrepreneurs to create new ventures.

Furthermore, Blundel et al (2018) advocate there is more than one way to act entrepreneurially and that as a consequence the 'world of entrepreneurship is not exclusive' (p5) concurring with Suddaby et al (2015) that entrepreneurial activity is open to a range of people to draw upon in a variety of contextual settings with varying goals. This notion is also pragmatically expressed by Welter et al (2016) who conclude there is no one type of entrepreneurship, no ideal context or type of entrepreneur. Hence, supporting McClure (2011) advocating the need for entrepreneurship within the occupational therapy profession, now explicitly embedded in curriculum delivery supporting learners to be entrepreneurial, innovative and enterprising (RCOT, 2019a). This reinforces the value of drawing on entrepreneurship, as a construct to deliver relevance to the context of this study, in that the occupational therapy students will be acting and behaving as entrepreneurs, using creativity whilst immersed in their placement experiences (Linnane and Warren, 2017).

Zahra and Wright (2016) discuss the challenges that these divergent views on entrepreneurship bring and the need for balance between its place in bringing economic and financial wealth and those of enhancing societal quality of life through 'social wealth' (p611). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2016) mirror the multi-faceted nature of entrepreneurship, suggesting it as a phenomenon that 'manifests itself throughout the economy and in many different forms with many different outcomes, not always related to the creation of financial wealth (p12-13). Instead entrepreneurship may be related to increasing employment, tackling inequalities, social injustice or environmental issues as reiterated by Welter et al, (2016). Gilmartin (2013) and Davey et al (2016) support the idea that entrepreneurship is linked to personal and social outcomes, unlocking societal interests and inequality; not just being recognised purely in its role of job creation and economic growth. The third sector is therefore well positioned to drive this shift and shape service delivery to meet the needs of communities and the occupational therapy profession can drive this change with students and future practitioners at its heart (Overton, et al, 2009; Edwards and Thew, 2011; McClure, 2011; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Creek, 2017; Creek and Cook, 2017; Thew et al, 2018; Kantarzis, 2019, RCOT, 2019a)

5.4 Driving Social Change Through Entrepreneurship

Traditionally situated in the corporate, private sector, entrepreneurship has more recently extended out to the public sector domain and increasingly into social entrepreneurship (Zahra et al, 2009; Dees, 2012; Dacin et al, 2010; Gilmartin, 2013; Hisrich and Kearney, 2014; Roy et al, 2014; Zahra and Wright, 2016; Beurgré, 2017; Saebi et al, 2019). Devereaux Jennings et al, (2013) highlight this emerging type of social entrepreneur as a visionary who aims to overcome social, economic and political conditions in communities by bridging 'social worlds' (p6). Both Hisrich and Kearney (2014), Zahra and Wright (2016) and Saebi et al, (2019) agree with the idea that entrepreneurship is more than just identified with business and commerce but can be deemed in terms of social entrepreneurship. This view suggests that entrepreneurship is an integral requisite for third sector organisations such as social enterprises and charities, explored by Roy et al (2014) with the notion that these providers can be more responsive and innovative compared to statutory health services. In this context, the core purpose is to create value for citizens, stakeholders and the wider community, where the adoption of business models and acumen through innovation and creativity can offer solution to complex social issues within communities (Hisrich and Kearney, 2014; Wilson and Baldwin, 2015; SCW and HEIW, 2020). Social enterprise and its capacity to respond to health and well-being through innovative interventions, is explored by Roy et al (2014) through a systematic review undertaken based on five empirical studies. This review aimed to identify and synthesise the impact of social enterprise activity on health outcomes and their social determinants. The review concludes that the notion of these organisations to be more innovative and responsive than their public sector counterparts within the health arena is based on assumption in the absence of robust evidence. Whilst it may be the case that social enterprise nurtures creativity to address social inequalities, this paper recommends the need for more substantial research to measure social enterprise activity.

According to Westhead and Wright (2013) entrepreneurs exist as entities within both independent ventures and corporate businesses. Zahra and Wright (2016) go on to suggest that the 'independent' entrepreneur has greater scope to meet social needs to improve social wealth compared to the 'corporate' entrepreneur. With typically less governance and stakeholder accountability, the independent entrepreneur can

address social needs and how to meet these by seizing upon opportunities, steering their ventures and creating value through developing communities. Whereas, the corporate entrepreneur may have their initiatives shaped by a company vision, policy and external agendas. This reflects the position in which occupational therapists and students could situate themselves, based in either statutory, 'corporate' healthcare services or the independent, third sector where role-emerging placements often take place. This analogy suggests greater scope for the occupational therapy profession (Pattison, 2008, 2010; Anderson and Nelson, 2011) and occupational therapy students in role-emerging experiences (McClure, 2011) to use their entrepreneurial skills through creativity and 'power to define the type of value they want to create and steer their ventures' (p611) (Zahra and Wright, 2016). Similarly expressed by Hocking (2014), Van Bruggen (2014); Hocking and Townsend, (2015); Creek and Cook (2017), Creek (2017), Van Rensburg (2018) and Kantarzis, (2019) as an opportunity for the occupational therapy profession to drive societal change.

Furthermore, Baker and Powell (2016) argue that contemporary entrepreneurship offers a tool and mechanism for overcoming 'constraints faced by disadvantaged circumstances' (p44). Opportunities are generated to facilitate resourcefulness and the use of 'bricolage' to create 'something from nothing' (p44) enabling these disadvantages to be overcome through accomplishment of goals. Creek and Cook (2017) identify resourcefulness as a characteristic and ability to use practical ingenuity for overcoming barriers for occupational therapists working in resource poor marginal settings. Conceptualised by Hayak in 1945 and yet still of relevance, is the notion that entrepreneurial opportunities can only be discovered and acted upon at a very local level through tacit knowledge of local environmental conditions and resources, that Zahra et al (2009) maintain is one of three typologies of social entrepreneurs. Termed as *social bricoleurs*, these entrepreneurs act to address small-scale, local social needs using internal resources (Zahra et al, 2009). Creek and Cook (2017) similarly suggest local knowledge facilitates responsiveness to anticipate needs and address them. This resonates with the circumstances that students find themselves in, in a role-emerging experience, as they endeavour to muster different and creative ways of meeting the needs of the client group of the setting in which they are placed. Frequently non-profit making by nature, the organisations have limited budgets to fund initiatives and few resources for service

delivery (Bessant and Tidd, 2015). Stenholm and Renko (2016) also support the notion of entrepreneurial bricolage, whereby manipulation of available or limited resources is used to create new solutions to problems. Baker and Welter (2016) argue that these constraints, adversity and inequality are dominating driving forces for entrepreneurial action terming this as *necessity entrepreneurship*, which together with *opportunity entrepreneurship,* alluded to earlier by Shane and Venkataraman (2000) makes up the majority of global entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship has been borne out of this thinking and drives a future direction for practical applications for communities and groups facing adversity and inequality with limited resources, underpinned by the health and well-being agendas discussed in chapter 2 (Dees, 2012; Dorado and Ventresca, 2013; Hocking, 2014; Roy et al, 2014; Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Beurgré, 2017; Van Rensburg, 2018; Lauckner et al, 2019; Saebi et al, 2019). Therefore, it can be reiterated that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activity is much broader given the diverse contexts within communities that allow them to thrive and develop in challenging social and financial climates (McClure, 2011, Gilmartin, 2013, Scaffa and Holmes, 2014, Van Bruggen, 2014; Dino, 2015; Zahra and Wright, 2016; Creek and Cook, 2017; Van Rensburg, 2018).

Saebi et al (2019) suggest a surge of research in social entrepreneurship bringing insight into its role in fostering inclusive growth and institutional change. The review draws on 395 peer-reviewed articles in an attempt to explore social enterprise and entrepreneurship as a multilevel and multistage phenomenon. Search terms were primarily restricted to 'social entrepreneurship' and employed two databases but still deemed of value and robust (Booth et al, 2016). The review concludes several gaps exist including a lack of clarity with regards to the construct of social enterprise and its social value with singular levels of analysis limiting depth of understanding of it as a phenomenon. Furthermore, the need for large-scale empirical research was recommended.

5.5 The Nature of Entrepreneurs

A plethora of research explores the characteristics or traits of the entrepreneur, how they think and behave (Hannu, 2000; Koe et al, 2010; Brandstätter, 2011; Leutner et al, 2014; Kolb and Wagner, 2015; Staniewski, et al, 2016; Karabulut, 2016;

Mueller et al, 2017; Corbett et al, 2018; Fisher et al, 2018; Fuller et al, 2018; Saebi et al, 2019). In discussing the nature of entrepreneurs, research evidence has historically searched for a link between personality theory and whether typical traits are identifiable within an entrepreneur (Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Mooradian et al, 2016). Blundel et al, (2018) discuss the notion of whether entrepreneurs are 'born or made' (p275), suggesting on-going debate over nature or nurture determining an entrepreneurial disposition. Shane and Nicolaou, (2015) argue that a genetic predisposition and creative personality have a decisive impact on recognising opportunity to create a business and to be entrepreneurial. This notion of a person with a stable personaility is explored through trait theory in chapter 3, where discussion details the traits such as openness that reflect entrepreneurial characteristics, such as being open to new experiences, a sense of optimism or hope and willingness to take risks. The wider perception held and customary thinking has shaped a traditional view of the entrepreneur, who is often labelled with a fixed identity and traits, as being someone who exploits opportunity, a risk taker, and creates business ventures. Rae, (2007) however, acknowledges the limitations of such 'economic' perspectives, recognising an emergent shift where wider perspectives and interpretations are evident.

Hisrich and Kearney (2014) suggest notable entrepreneurs such as Richard Branson, founder of Virgin or Mark Zuckerberg of Facebook; typify the widely held perception or identity of entrepreneurial traits and behaviour. Being renowned for their perseverance, ability to overcome obstacles through innovative ideas and in creating hugely successful, global businesses bringing employment, economic growth and prosperity as a consequence. In contrast, Rae (2007) advocates that instead of articulating the entrepreneur as having a 'fixed identity' or personality with implicit qualities and traits, that everyone has the potential to learn and act in an enterprising way, including occupational therapy students, postulated by McClure, (2011). Rae (2007) encapsulates this as being 'opportunity-centred entrepreneurship' involving an active learning process based on motivation, curiosity and desire through discovery and creativity driving achievement. This role of education providers and the higher education sector to nurture entrepreneurial individuals with skills and behaviours through learning is considered later in this chapter. Whilst evidence suggests that being an entrepreneur is achieved through an active learning process (Rae, 2007; McClure, 2011; Blundel et al, 2018; QAA,

2018) and an individuals cognitive behaviour in response to opportunities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000) much of the literature denotes characteristics or traits and behaviours that typify being entrepreneurial.

Entrepreneurial behaviour is recognised as the ability to identify and capitalise on opportunities, opening up potential for innovation and enterprise to provide new solutions to meet needs or filling a 'gap' in the market (Rae, 2007). Pre-dated by the seminal work of Shane and Venkataraman (2000), who suggest it improbable to affiliate entrepreneurship solely by referring to characteristics of individuals independent of situations in which they exist. They argue that entrepreneurial behaviour is a result of a tendency to respond to situational cues of opportunity. Within higher education, it is for the universities to design curricula that open up these opportunities for students that encourage positive risk taking, creativity in a supportive learning environment (QAA, 2018; RCOT, 2019a). Role-emerging placements are a vehicle to achieve this need. Expressing comparative views using an analytical review, Saebi et al (2019) suggest social entrepreneurship is defined according to behavioural characteristics of the entrepreneur, such as a propensity to take risks, alongside the visionary mission and entrepreneurial process to create social value. This ability to identify opportunity and to determine its value as to whether it is worth exploiting is discussed by Shane and Venkataraman, (2000) in terms of individual differences and cognitive properties, where individuals with greater self-efficacy and internal locus of control, being deemed as more likely to seize opportunity. Karabulut (2016) concur with this notion by exploring entrepreneurial intention and the dimensions of personality. Similarly, finding a need for achievement, risk tolerance, locus of control and alertness as being characteristic of entrepreneurial individuals. Creek and Cook (2017) suggest a willingness to be responsive and take action without any certainty of outcomes, demonstrating a tolerance to uncertainty. Optimism as a trait is also noted to serve as a motivating factor to drive individuals to act, which according to Adomako et al (2016) also allows individuals to rise to a challenge and to persist with tenacity, in pursuit of their goals believing in their ability to succeed. This notion of persistence is important and according to Adomako et al (2016) it can be explained through the relationship between cognition and behaviour and what drives a course of action in a given context. Being able to persist and deal with the challenge stressors faced by students on role-emerging placements allows individuals to thrive and develop

resilience that has been discussed fully in chapter 4 and supports the alignment across the constructs and trait theory underpinning this study.

Mooradian et al, (2016) present the notion of *grit* with their research, elucidating this as an enduring personality trait, constructed of two dimensions; one being perseverance of effort or *tenacity* and the other a consistency of interests or *passion*. This paper acknowledges the attempts to draw on trait theory to explain the entrepreneurial profile and that the five broad domains (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) comprise of multiple facets. Lucas et al (2015), Mooradian et al (2016) and Mueller et al (2017) build on this seminal work by Costa and McCrae (1995), with these studies suggesting grit is one facet of conscientiousness. Findings conclude that perseverance of effort is positively related to innovation success through long-term diligence. Defining grit as the 'perseverance and passion for long-term goals' (Duckworth et al, 2007), Mooradian et al (2016) suggest grit is working strenuously towards challenges requiring stamina to stay the course. Individual differences focus on motivational factors such as hope and positive emotions linked to self-regulatory facets to influence how goals are pursued. This aligns with the notion of resilience or *thriving* postulated by Brown et al (2017a) discussed in chapter 4, where perseverance is required to overcome the challenge stressors bringing about positive adaptation and growth (Flinchbaugh, et al, 2015). Whilst occupational therapy students do not get immersed into prolonged, open-ended experiences, the placements present a period of time to endure varying from two to three months in duration. The placements have specific goals and outcomes for the student to strive for and to achieve, with the purpose of the experience to establish the scope of an occupational therapy role in the setting (Linnane and Warren, 2017). Those undertaking role-emerging placements will require determination and perseverance to optimise the outcome to both the setting and achieving their own goals.

Early pioneer, Schumpeter postulated that motives driving entrepreneurial behaviour as being the need to conquer and succeed, not for the fruits of success but of success itself. Identifying with himself as an entrepreneur, Schumpeter (1934), understands and articulates the 'joy of creating, exercising energy and ingenuity' as a motive to achieve, alongside the desire to seek out challenges. This inferred *passion* continues to be understood as a motivating force driving

entrepreneurial behaviour and success and is pertained to be at the heart of entrepreneurship (Cardon, 2008; Cardon et al, 2009, 2013; Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Karabulut, 2016; Stenholm and Renko, 2016; Mueller et al, 2017; Fisher et al, 2018; Ranfagni and Runfola, 2018). With Dees (2012) likewise, suggesting social entrepreneurs are motivated by 'compassionate impulses' that drive the changes for the better (p323). Creek and Cook, (2017) discuss the personal qualities that 'make it possible for a person to work towards the achievement of her or his professional vision'.. describing these as 'enabling characteristics' (p5). The study determines key characteristics shared by participants including openness, commitment, responsiveness and resourcefulness reflecting much of the research from the field of entrepreneurial study.

Cardon et al, (2005; 2009) undertook extensive literature reviews that explore the notion of *passion* as an unwavering belief and emotion, suggesting that previously there had been a paucity of systematic research on this aspect of understanding in entrepreneurship research. The latter review suggests the nature of entrepreneurial passion being twofold: being a consciously accessible and intense positive feeling and secondly, resulting from engagement in activities with identity meaning and salience. For occupational therapy students undertaking role-emerging placements, it could be argued that this intense emotion, investment of time and energy through their passion for the setting and purpose of their placement is a powerful motivational force, driving successful outcomes for both the student and organisation (OT News, 2020). Furthermore, entrepreneurial role identity, its meaningfulness and saliency to their experiences also generate a passion, suggesting some element of choice for a placement and area of practice may influence a student's motivation to succeed (Clarke, 2012; OT News, 2020). Equally, experiences can drive career choices and where a practitioner choses to work, fuelled by a passion and identity gained from a role-emerging placement (Schmitz et al, 2018; Thew et al, 2018) This equally applies to qualified practitioners who may move away from traditional healthcare delivery, driven by an interest in marginal settings, opening up opportunity for societal change (Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Creek, 2017; Kantarzis, 2019). Cardon et al, (2005; 2009) informed later research conceptualising entrepreneurial passion through two dimensions: intense positive feelings and identity centrality. The quantitative study tested the internal consistency; reliability and validity of the measurement scale devised to the

determine the dimensions and their role in entrepreneurship (Cardon et al, 2013). Findings conclude that the dimensions are not only distinct from each other but also to other affective and cognitive variables known to play a role in entrepreneurship such as hopefulness and self-efficacy (Cardon et al, 2013). According to Bessant and Tidd (2015) the attributes and aptitude of a person are powerful enablers where vision, passion, energy, insight, judgement and determination allow ideas to become reality. Fisher et al (2018) support this notion of entrepreneurial success being driven by cognitive attributes characterised by passion and obsessive behaviour.

Mitchell et al (2002) discuss the historical attempt to identify unique entrepreneurial traits as key to new venture creation but note research has little to support this. However, the cognitive perspective offered by Shane and Venkataraman (2000) was deemed to bring a more rigorous, systematic approach to explain the role of the individual in the entrepreneurial process. This helped in generating understanding in how entrepreneurs 'think', construct their judgements and decision making through opportunity evaluation which Karabulut (2016) describes as *entrepreneurial alertness.* More recently, Corbett et al (2018) reviewing contemporary research on entrepreneurial cognition, acknowledge a well-documented body of knowledge exists that provides understanding on the ability of entrepreneurs to think and behave in unique, revolutionary ways bringing transformative action. Whilst Shane and Venkataraman (2000) suggested little evidence of identifiable entrepreneurial traits, there is in contrast, research that indicates personality traits of the entrepreneur impact on their behaviour (Hannu, 2000, Koe et al, 2010; Nga and Shamuganathan; 2010; Leutner et al, 2014; Karabulut, 2016), with Brandstätter (2011) concluding the five-factor model of personality has influenced this aspect generating robust findings over the last two decades. There is also a logic to consider here the more contemporary construct of emotional intelligence with the notion of alertness and this being a cognitive ability reflecting charactersitics such as self-actualisation, optimism and an ability or competence to problem solve with reactiveness, discussed to greater depth in chapter 3 and known to be a predictor in placement success for occupational therapy students (Brown et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018).

Furthermore, trait theory informs understanding of its influence on entrepreneurial behaviour through a body of research explicit to entrepreneurial intention, which is

defined as the deliberate decision to become an entrepreneur as a vocational path or to set out with a purpose to innovate (Koe et al, 2010; Karabulut, 2016; Shirokova et al, 2016; Wang et al, 2016; Fuller et al, 2018). Whilst this is not directly applicable to the occupational therapy student practitioners, as they have not set out intentionally to become entrepreneurs, drawing upon these findings is of value to explore the implicit nature of entrepreneurship and its place in role-emerging placements. Some students seek out placement opportunities within diverse settings, demonstrating self-efficacy and motivation, driving them through the experience and challenges they face (Clarke, 2012) with Linnane and Warren's (2017) study findings indicating over 50% of survey respondents (n=45) were interested in a role-emerging placement. Koe et al, (2010) support this notion of personality influencing entrepreneurship in general as well as for 'start up' intentions of social entrepreneurs to act.

In contrast to the argument that a person has an inherent disposition to being entrepreneurial and therefore challenging the trait or character-based beliefs, it is now recognised that the developmental and learning process presents an alternative perspective. A substantial body of evidence explores what and how entrepreneurs learn and the contexts in where this takes place (Wang and Chugh, 2014). Life circumstances, experiences and exposure to influencing factors such as entrepreneurial role models shape a person, their behaviour and intentions (Corbett et al, 2018). Jayawarna et al, (2014) similarly argue that entrepreneurial careers are shaped through lifelong learning starting from childhood. Furthermore, being a reflective practitioner and making sense of experiences is fundamental to experimentation and discovery, which according to Schön is 'learning by doing' (1983) supporting the notion of an individual's ability to learn to be entrepreneurial, advocated by McClure (2011).

Historically, entrepreneurs have been perceived as individuals who speculate and take calculated risks to turn their vision into a successful business and wealth creation (Mukherji and Mukherji, 2011; Hisrich and Kearney, 2014; Bröckling, 2016). A quantitative study by Staniewski et al (2016) explores this relationship between particular personality traits and business success. The findings pertain to the varying aspects of business functioning each with personality predispositions rather than a definitive single profile. Those traits found to be the most likely to contribute to

success include emotional stability (lack of neuroticism), need for achievement, innovativeness and self-efficacy, concurring with Karabulut (2016). Brandstätter (2011) also concludes self-determination, risk-taking and independence reflects emotional stability (or lack of neuroticism). Openness to new experiences links to seeking out opportunity and being innovative typically associated with entrepreneurs. Traits such as determination and persistence indicate motivation to achieve indicative of diligence or conscientiousness. Extraversion is more prominent in entrepreneurs as they strive to create a social network and facilitate change. Finally, according to Staniewski et al (2016) agreeableness, as an entrepreneurial trait, is less likely as an indicator to successful business, as individuals are more concerned and sensitive to the needs of others rather than being self-driven. Leutner et al (2014), however, suggest an impact of context-dependence for some traits as indicators of performance success suggesting the role of an individual and the organisation can impact on agreeableness, openness and extraversion. Kolb and Wagner (2015) similarly suggest the trait of agreeableness, not typically identifiable in business-focused entrepreneurs, can be high in students who have to cooperate in learning processes and also for those who have occupations with frequent interaction with others, as in the occupational therapy profession, where team working and client-centred practice is core to the role (HCPC, 2016; COT, 2017). Therefore, a student may be shaped by their circumstances of a role-emerging placement where social interaction and communication is essential and there is a need to exhibit traits to ensure a positive outcome for their placement, as it is a formal learning situation with assessed outcomes leading to success or failure. Linnane and Warren (2017) suggest communication difficulties between all parties in role-emerging placements have the potential to be of concern, along with misunderstanding of the role and purpose of these experiences. Furthermore, the trait of agreeableness is known to be higher in social entrepreneurs (Nga and Shamaganathan, 2010), where pro-sociality drives societal change (Caprara et al, 2012), suggesting occupational therapists, who are known to hold high levels of agreeableness are ideally placed to adopt the role of social entrepreneur (McCombie et al, 2015).

Bröckling (2016) reports several functions are attributable and characterise the entrepreneur. Being a speculator and seizing opportunities, elucidating the need to react quickly through *alertness* and spontaneity suggesting being at the forefront of

change. Karabulut (2016) concurs with alertness as a dimension of personality trait requisite for entrepreneurship. Bröckling suggests the entrepreneur is an innovator with 'powers to overcome the kinds of difficulties that inevitably confront pioneers' (p71), mirroring the link to creativity and resourcefulness outlined by Baker and Powell (2016) and earlier work exploring bricolage (Zahra et al, 2009) explored earlier in this chapter. The *social bricoleur* typically harness local resources, using creativity to improvise in an autonomous manner and are also able to respond quickly to changing circumstances through adaptability (Zahra et al, 2009). Jeopardy and bearing uncertainty, the entrepreneur also has the function of assuming responsibility for their actions, through a propensity for calculated risk (Staniewski et al, 2016), which Karabulut refers to as risk tolerance (2016). According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000) this uncertainty requires a tolerance for ambiguity, which is deemed to be a requisite for individuals to capture and exploit opportunities. Finally, Bröckling (2016) maintains the entrepreneur is an agent of change through a facilitator function ensuring effective use of resources and service delivery. Ayala and Manzano (2014) resonate with this, in that successful entrepreneurs take timely decisions regarding their business goals in increasingly unpredictable and competitive environments. Anderson and Nelson (2011) suggest the need for entrepreneurs to be aware of national and local trends or agendas to be able to identify potential scope for generating change, in accord with literature whereby social entrepreneurship has grown out of health and social care austerity measures and policy to reform health care provision through well-being and empowerment (Roy et al, 2014; Wilson and Baldwin, 2015).

5.6 Entrepreneurship and Resilience

The characteristics attributable to the entrepreneurial individual discussed earlier in this chapter equally reflect the nature of resilience and the ability to thrive discussed in chapter 4. Research evidence suggests a clear correlation between entrepreneurship and resilience with findings suggesting that being resilient is a requisite for an entrepreneurial person and their success (Bullough and Renko, 2013; Ayala and Manzano, 2014; Lee and Wang, 2016; Fisher et al, 2016; Blundel et al, 2018; Santoro et al, 2018). Further research uses *grit* and perseverance in an entrepreneurial context that is, at first glance, interchangeable in meaning to resilience as a characteristic of individuals who face uncertainty and adversity

through challenging experiences (Lucas et al, 2015; Adomako et al, 2016; Fisher et al, 2016; Mooradian et al, 2016). Mueller et al, 2017 clarify and delineate the difference between grit and comparable constructs such as tenacity, persistence and resilience. Research suggests the notion of grit focuses on persevering for long-term goal pursuit to attain success, allowing an individual to thrive (Brown et al, 2017a) whereas resilience is developed through facing adversity and continuation of effort to overcome the challenges (Connor and Davidson, 2003).

Equally, Santora et al (2018) explore the need for resilience as a capacity for survival in uncertain times facing organisations, where the need for adjusting to market forces relies upon entrepreneurial action. Reflecting how creative thinking strategies are known to be of value for healthcare professionals to survive change, Wood, (2018) suggests how this can nurture personal resilience. Fisher et al, (2018) report that entrepreneurs are characterised as being resilient and passionate, with Fisher et al (2016) suggesting resilience comprises of hardiness and perseverance that is deemed greater in entrepreneurs and a predictor of success. Staniewski et al (2016) identify fourteen psychological dispositions or characteristics influencing entrepreneurship as a predictor of successful company functioning including resistance to stress and propensity for risk-taking that could pertain to resilience.

In striving to achieve goals, entrepreneurs are typically immersed in competitive and uncertain environments (Ayala and Manzano, 2014) where risk-taking is deemed a requisite (Karabulut, 2016). This propensity for calculated risk and facing adversity through challenging experiences, even failure, is thought to be influential in shaping entrepreneurial behaviour through this exposure and the subsequent learning process (Rae, 2007; Cope, 2011; Dawson and Andriopoulos, 2017). Corbett et al, (2018) and Blundel et al, (2018) suggest this active learning process can lead an individual to thinking in a more entrepreneurial way and facilitates a desire to adjust their circumstances, allowing them to thrive (Brown et al, 2017a). Similarly, the entrepreneur will utilise their learning and experiences to deal with setbacks and challenges. Facing adversity can open up new and life-changing opportunities as a consequence. Blundel et al (2018) discuss the need for entrepreneurs to deal with the adversity they face through the courage to face up to the challenges and to learn from failure as a means of creating success. Bullough and Renko (2013) discuss the impact of ‘personal factors’ and their importance to an entrepreneurial individual,

particularly during periods of adversity (p344) by exploring self-efficacy, perceived ability to engage in entrepreneurial activity and an individual's sense of resilience. Combining these provides an individual with greater entrepreneurial power than the two factors alone. Affirming these are not fixed personality traits but are shaped and influenced by exogenous factors from environmental contexts supports Corbett et al (2018) who explore how entrepreneurs think and act. Bullough and Renko (2013) suggest that an entrepreneur's belief in their own ability to manage the effects of challenge and stress builds resilience and facilitates growth from adversity. Furthermore, they maintain that emotions such as a positive outlook, sense of purpose or optimism protect individuals from negative consequences allowing them to flourish also noted by Santoro et al (2018), that Brown et al (2017a) and Flinchbaugh et al (2015) suggest is the ability to thrive. For the occupational therapy students undertaking role-emerging placements there is clear evidence to indicate the challenging nature of these experiences, described by Clarke et al, (2015b) as 'facing unchartered waters'. Immersion in such placements necessitates the use of coping strategies and resilience, alongside a self-belief in terms of competence and identity, to empower the student to face adversity and nurture entrepreneurial success, through developing skills, which McClure (2011) advocates as being necessary for the profession. Similarly, Knightbridge (2014) identifies personal growth of students through innovative placements with findings suggesting perseverance and using failure as a means to grow that reflects qualities of being resilient and entrepreneurial. Furthermore, the students with a greater propensity for these placements may not perceive the difficulties as being negative but more as challenge stressors, allowing them to thrive, rather than just survive (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015).

Lee and Wang (2017) discuss leadership development within human resources through a literature review of empirical studies that explore entrepreneurial resilience and this ability of entrepreneurs to overcome challenges and adapt to uncertainties. Content analysis was used as a methodology to extract the variables to determine commonalities and differences. These were described as a set of enablers and inhibitors linked to factors and sub factors within an integrative model of entrepreneurial resilience. The model offers a clear synthesis of traits, attributes and strengths to underpin the development of entrepreneurial resilience within human resource interventions through building a strong theory base.

5.7 Entrepreneurship and Innovation in Occupational Therapy

The requisite to adapt, change and search for opportunities though innovation is not new to the occupational therapy profession (Stanton, 1994; Holmes and Scaffa, 2009; Pattison, 2010; Molineux and Baptiste, 2011; Windle et al, 2011; Kearsley, 2012; Gillen and Greber, 2014; Hocking, 2014; Scaffa and Holmes, 2014: Creek, 2017; Creek and Cook, 2017) and according to Foto (1998), an occupational therapy entrepreneur role can include not only those in private practice, but also those in community programmes providing unique services. This constantly evolving arena of practice across services generates unprecedented, diverse opportunities to meet health care agendas and emerging roles for the profession (Clewes, 2016; Creek 2017, Creek and Cook, 2017; Thew et al, 2017, 2018; Kantarzis, 2019; Lauckner et al, 2019; WFOT, 2019). However, Pattison (2006) reflected that reference to entrepreneurship in the context of occupational therapy has been limited and had previously focused on business planning and marketing. The literature search undertaken for this study concurs with this paucity of explicit research evidence to determine entrepreneurship within the profession. Instead the evidence manifests itself within the diversification agenda more broadly, where practitioners are creating innovative roles to meet the demands of changing health and social care arenas underpinned with the 'key tenets of occupational therapy' (Baptiste and Molineux, 2011; Kirkwood, 2016, p xxvii). Creek and Cook (2017) describe how learning from those working in marginal settings can inform the practice and theory of the profession. Furthermore the body of research from a role-emerging perspective supports the notion that education and the use of non-traditional placements can serve as a trigger for rethinking practice and service development discussed in-depth in chapter 2.

Occupational therapists are deemed to be ideally situated, where they can bring their skills and role to enhance peoples lives and well-being through addressing the complex needs of communities and those living within them (Scaffa, 2014; Thew et al, 2017; Kantartzis, 2019; Lauckner et al, 2019; WFOT, 2019). Furthermore, this need to drive innovative change is also echoed across other health professions, not just from within occupational therapy. Gilmartin, (2013) suggests the nursing profession is likewise, placed to promote social justice through developing social innovators and entrepreneurs. Pattison (2006) suggests that entrepreneurial

practice is about ‘inspired creative individuals pursuing opportunities and taking calculated risks’ and determines that it is an overall approach regardless of where we work. According to Foto (1998) entrepreneurial occupational therapy practitioners perceive themselves as allied health practitioners who have seized opportunity for shaping the profession and developing emergent services in new organisations.

There are internal and external driving forces, which have steered the need for innovative practice within the occupational therapy profession. Pattison (2008, 2010) suggests that the profession has to ‘construct its own destiny’ through empowerment and taking control in developing the future landscape. Scaffa and Holmes (2014) explicitly advocate the need for entrepreneurship and innovation in the profession acknowledging the need to move beyond the boundaries of traditional practice in order to not only survive as a profession but to shape and influence the future of healthcare delivery. This drive necessitates an entrepreneurial approach bringing creativity to ‘think outside of the box’ and find innovative ways of developing service provision. According to Anderson and Nelson (2011) occupational therapists are ideally positioned to capitalise on entrepreneurial opportunities due to the nature of their practice in dealing with complex individuals and contexts in which they are situated. However, Anderson and Nelson (2011) also identify that occupational therapists do not necessarily see themselves as entrepreneurs and underestimate their business acumen, knowledge and skills in driving change through innovation. Innate qualities including creativity and problem solving skills are core to practice but may not be exploited to promote entrepreneurship. Occupational therapists, including student practitioners, require a self-belief and professional identity that facilitates a shift in practice and diversification away from medical focused models historically embedded (Pattison, 2008, 2010). McClure (2011) maintains the profession needs to generate ‘agents of change’ through an entrepreneurial culture where practitioners can enhance lives of individuals and the communities they live in. Creek and Cook (2017) support this notion of developing new ways of thinking and working by learning from those who practice in marginal settings.

5.8 Generating Innovative Practitioners

Recognising the need for diversity within the occupational therapy profession and in healthcare more broadly, demands an alignment with the education sector to ensure innovative practitioners are being nurtured to drive this change (Kearsley, 2012; Smith et al, 2014; Knightbridge, 2014; Clarke et al 2014b). An ability to respond, take calculated risks, even face failure, by adapting to ever changing health environments through innovation and enterprise is essential, given economic restraints and increasing, complex care needs with demographic change and an increasing ageing population (Kalisch and Begeny, 2010; Boore and Porter, 2011; Melder et al, 2018). McClure (2011) maintains that students need to be equipped with skills and attributes to make innovative and creative contributions to practice. Entrepreneurial learning is pivotal for the sustainable futures of communities and wider society, with Lindner (2018) stating that 'all entrepreneurs of the future are in school today' (p115). Embedding a culture of entrepreneurship within education helps individuals to build competences at an earlier stage than at a time of commencing working life. The capacity to generate new and innovative ideas through an entrepreneurial mindset and effectiveness underpins this sustainability (QAA, 2012, 2018). Research exploring entrepreneurship within the higher education sector and how universities have a role to play in developing entrepreneurial individuals evidence how this can be achieved (Bridge et al, 2010; RBS, 2014; Davey et al, 2016). This can take the form of curricula and courses being based on the fundamental principles of entrepreneurship such as business and venture creation or be embedded within subject areas such as healthcare more broadly. Students should be encouraged to be open to new opportunities and supported to take positive risks, with role-emerging placements amongst other educational strategies, serving as a vehicle to achive this. Bridge et al, (2010) discuss this broad approach to entrepreneurship education of being important for employability, equipping students with skills to secure graduate jobs. This paper also suggests students can learn to develop capacity to respond positively to change and to adapt to capitalise on opportunities of all forms, broadening horizons, calling this 'enterprise for life' (p729).

Hocking and Townsend (2015) discuss the need to reform education and recommend the need for a new standard within educational programmes to deliver

a radical shift of practice to drive social change. The World Federation of Occupational Therapists (WFOT) has embedded this mantle within policy, setting out minimum standards for education providers to meet in shaping the profession with a fundamental focus on occupational justice and global, societal change. WFOT (2016) sets out their vision to shape entry-level practitioners to meet the challenges of the 21st century through contemporary and innovative practice. Role-emerging placements are a vehicle to drive this recognised need for change. Such experiences are known to nurture practitioners who are not only entrepreneurial and innovative but help to develop attributes and resilience that are requisite to working as an occupational therapist. Creek and Cook (2017) suggest students need to learn and develop the 'enabling characteristics' to allow them to be agents of change to meet complex health and social care needs in both developed and developing countries.

5.9 Summary of Chapter

Entrepreneurship, by its very complexity, can be viewed from different perspectives and its application interpreted across a spectrum of fields from economics to psychology and sociology. According to the psychological perspective, Hisrich and Kearney (2014) suggest entrepreneurs are motivated by factors such as the need to achieve, to experiment and to control destiny, suggesting an intrinsic nature of an individual. In comparison cultural and community factors influence the sociologist perspective, supporting the notion of the social visionary driving change (Dorado and Ventresca, 2013) and for the economic perspective, it is the use of assets to generate wealth and value that generates change. Devereaux Jennings et al (2013) present a framework to organise and make sense of 'current conversations' (p5) in response to Shepherd's (2010) earlier view, that entrepreneurship, despite being established, needed to enrich itself as a phenomena by embracing multiple perspectives and paradigms. The merging of these interpretations creates the entrepreneurial phenomena, its versatility and opportunity. Underpinning all these differing perspectives is the need for creativity and innovation together with determination, recognising opportunity and risk-taking activity that optimises entrepreneurship (Hisrich and Kearney, 2014, Karabulut, 2016). Bröckling (2016) succinctly articulates that 'whatever the problem is, creativity is the solution' (p101) and that creativity is an element of innovation. Bröckling suggests the ability to

recognise and grasp opportunities but also the need for ‘creative destruction that makes space for new things’ (pxvii) mirroring the early, seminal work of Schumpeter. Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) explore creativity suggesting it as a unique human quality that is intangible and historically linked to gifted individuals. Shane and Nicolaou (2015) equally argue that genetic predispositions have a decisive impact on entrepreneurial potential through exploring the creative personality. Deemed as an asset for individuals and organisations, Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) suggest a shift from that of creative personalities to the idea that creativity is a process where individuals can apply their thinking to searching out solutions also described as entrepreneurial alertness by Karabulut (2016). Furthermore, Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) consider ‘individual creativity’ (p427) and how this is affected by the complex interaction between the individual, the context, and social influences as well as the impact of personality. In questioning why some individuals are more likely to advance knowledge, generate change or have breakthrough ideas, Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) suggest four elements are requisite. Personality traits, including autonomy, self-confidence and risk-taking are typically indicative of creative people. Combined with the cognitive ability in being open to new ideas beyond the constraints of pre-existing knowledge and habits or having an inquisitive nature accepting that things are not necessarily as they appear to be. Making connections and combining ideas into new solutions or ‘thinking outside of the box’ is deemed important alongside tacit and explicit knowledge. Lastly, motivation and the reasons that drive a person are pivotal to creativity. According to Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) creative and entrepreneurial individuals relish sharing their successes and emotions felt, such as satisfaction driving them to achieve their goals. This desire for achievement through belief in one’s own ability to carry out actions or self-efficacy, clearly drives entrepreneurial intentions and action (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010; Karabulut, 2016; Wang et al, 2016; Bacq and Alt, 2018; Fuller et al, 2018).

This chapter has offered an overview of entrepreneurship exploring its diverse nature and goes onto consider the characteristics of an entrepreneurial individual through the theoretical perspectives of personality and resilience. The context of entrepreneurship, occupational therapy and role-emerging placements have been intertwined throughout to highlight and synthesise the pertinent aspects deemed to be of importance for this study.

Chapter 6 : Methodology / Method

6.1 Outline of Chapter

This study is underpinned by a mixed-methods research paradigm that is fundamental to the research design and process undertaken. This chapter discusses the epistemological stance adopted by the researcher and how this belief of how we come to know what exists influences the underpinning method and methodology. The chapter therefore combines both the method and the methodology into one dialogue. The ontological nature or the reality of what exists will be articulated from the context of professional doctorate study, that being situated in professional practice to bring explanation of the essence of the phenomena being studied.

The use of a mixed-method approach will be argued as a pragmatic and an appropriate way of answering the research question justified to the professional doctorate mode of study (Willig, 2013; Creswell, 2015; Costley and Fulton, 2019). Methodological considerations will be explored within the context of professional doctorate study where the requisite of this is to situate scholarly inquiry and its research outcomes within professional practice. To facilitate this, there will be consideration of the research paradigms; with the two distinct traditions of qualitative and quantitative methodologies at either end of the continuum, each with its own underpinning philosophy and assumptions about the nature of truth and reality. With an increasing acceptance that drawing upon and synthesising both approaches in mixed-methods allows the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods to be exploited to the benefit of the study and its findings (Gray, 2018). The increasing body of research legitimises the place for mixed-methods alongside the traditional paradigms as the third methodological movement (Johnson et al, 2007; Collins et al, 2012; Van Griensven et al, 2014; Gray, 2018).

The chapter presents the methodology and will discuss how this logically sits within the overarching mixed-methods approach to inform the study design. Each element is integral and deliberately selected to determine the process undertaken, with each justified in how these address the research question and study objectives. Furthermore, there is a need to discuss how the methodological design and process

brings robustness and can be judged as valid, reliable, trustworthy and credible. Research demands transparency and a systematic methodology if it is to be of worth, rigorous and fit for purpose. Methodological limitations will also be acknowledged to demonstrate reflexivity, biases and the challenges faced with undertaking a study of this nature.

The sampling and recruitment of participants is outlined and explored in the context of the occupational therapy students and the programme in which they are studying. This will focus on the placement element and the practicalities to determine the most appropriate selection of participants to address the research question and objectives. Data collection tools are an important aspect of any research and this chapter sets out and justifies the selected tools utilised in this study, which are situated within both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, each with their own purpose and rationale. The data analysis is also informed by the synthesis of the two methodologies as a mixed-method approach. The qualitative data being analysed through a thematic analysis and SPSS being employed to analyse the quantitative data using selected tests including scale reliability, correlations and t-tests.

The final part of this chapter presents the ethical considerations, which are the moral principles guiding the research process. To optimise rigour, validity and trustworthiness of this study, all ethical issues or those deemed potential issues need full consideration. Governance frameworks guide ethical considerations and these ensure good practice is implemented and adhered to throughout the research process. Finally, the importance of reflexivity will be acknowledged and explored with deliberation of the researchers values, beliefs and experiences brought to process with the influences they exert.

6.2 The Research Paradigms and Epistemological Stance

Research helps us to interpret and understand the world in which we are situated. Creswell (2009) suggests this generation of knowledge through research attempts to establish the truth about realities of the world. This generation of knowledge, based upon professional practice synthesises subjective experiences, expertise and

artistry with robust scientific approaches (Morley and Petty, 2010). According to Biddle and Schafft (2015) research and its methodology takes multitude forms, primarily being quantitative, qualitative or mixed-methods in nature. The researcher judges the most effective and appropriate method to address the research question in order that they can ascertain knowledge claims. Therefore the methods employed by the researcher are directed by the inquiry itself. However, this is driven by an epistemological ideology and worldview of how things come to be and the ontological assumptions of the nature of reality (Wiggins, 2011). According to Willig (2013) epistemology can be explained as the study of the nature, scope and justification of knowledge or simply 'How and what we can know' (p4) and that epistemology is foundational to empirical inquiry, determining methodology and methods (Bowleg, 2017). Bowleg (2017) furthermore suggests the importance of epistemological awareness as being an 'essential requisite' influencing all aspects of the research process.

Research has traditionally fallen into two distinct paradigms that have brought differing perspectives and worldviews, each with their own values, philosophical assumptions and methodologies (Allsop, 2013; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018; Gray, 2018). The qualitative and quantitative paradigms sit at either end of a continuum bringing a dichotomy whereby researchers can interpret and make sense of the nature of truth and reality dependent upon their epistemological stance (Creamer, 2018). Underlying this and guiding research in how we come to know about the world are two approaches: positivism and interpretivism (Flick, 2018b). Positivist methodologies typically link to quantitative research. The research aims to test a hypothesis or theory utilising a deductive basis of reasoning to establish or predict absolute truth through objective, scientific analysis of data. Quantitative research emanates from an objectivist stance, in that reality exists independently of the researcher (Gray, 2018). In contrast qualitative methods are associated with interpretivism and inductive reasoning or theory building. Constructivists believe this approach allows meaning to be established when dealing with social beings in socially constructed reality through interpreting the lived experience as a phenomenon (Allsop, 2013). Teddlie and Tashakkori, (2009) discuss the dichotomy that exists between the two traditional philosophical approaches to research creating a debate and incompatibility between the communities, with suggestion of 'paradigm wars' between two distinct camps. Teddlie and Tashkkori (2009) suggest

cultural differences exist between the paradigms, contributing to a distinct sense of community but discuss a need for co-existence despite the incompatibilities. As a consequence mixed-methods emerged as a third research paradigm, recognised as a distinct and self-conscious strategy (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Maxwell, 2016). However, Hesse-Biber (2010) and Biddle and Schafft (2015) articulate mixed-methods is not of a contemporary making but comes from a historic legacy of social-science research employing both quantitative and qualitative data, acknowledging that this has remained largely invisible as a methodology until recent years. Johnson et al (2007) had previously postulated the notion that mixed-methods research is not new but deemed it to be a 'new movement or research paradigm' (p113) growing in response to the limitations of the purist quantitative and qualitative paradigms. This, emergent mixed-methods research is acknowledged for its usefulness for addressing complex research needs by Poth and Onwuegbuzie (2015) who discuss the untapped potential for enhancing and informing qualitative methods, warranting further attention and acceptance bringing the best of both worlds (Van Griensven et al, 2014).

6.3 Mixed-Methods Approach – The Third Paradigm.

6.3.1 Rationale.

Biddle and Schafft (2015) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) acknowledge this notable shift within social science research with increasing acceptance, legitimisation and prominence of mixed-methods research. This upsurge and 'coming at things differently' (p103) is thought to have gathered momentum as researchers recognised traditional, purist forms of gathering data using one method may not be adequate for answering complex questions (Hesse-Biber and Johnson, 2013). In agreement, Molina-Azorin and Fetters (2019) suggest the role of mixed-methods researchers in promoting responsible, intricate and credible research will help solve challenges for forging a better world and society. Plowright (2019) similarly discusses incoherence, a lack of clarity and ambiguity of language within the traditional approaches, with the inadequacies of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms addressed by mixed-methods. By using both approaches in one study can equally reinforce, even exacerbate the incoherence causing some challenges when scrutinised and presented as a credible third research paradigm. However, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) maintain scholarly attention in the 1980s offered a

systematic and coherent argument in articulating mixed-methods, when researchers adopting this method, moved deliberately towards a synthesis of combining quantitative and qualitative methods rather than simply drawing on them as separate strands within single studies. Despite this, Plowright (2019) maintains the traditional approaches remain dominant in mixed-methods, with some way to go before coherent integration so these are no longer acknowledged as distinct entities previously postulated as a requisite by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005). Their paper suggests removing reference to 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' terminology (Q words) as the future direction for understanding research methodology (p276). Plowright (2019) develops this notion as a way of research moving forward, by presenting a Framework for an Integrated Methodology (FraIM) that explicitly rejects the 'Q' words. Hesse-Biber and Johnson reiterate this, describing the turbulence within the mixed-methods community but equally recognising opportunity, driving innovation across the methods and paradigmatic standpoints (2013). To achieve this, Hesse-Biber and Johnson (2013) call for reflexivity of researchers to consider their own standpoint and be 'open to dialogue across paradigmatic and methods comfort zones' (p104) so facilitating the answering of complex research questions.

6.3.2 Mixed-Methods as a Pragmatic Approach

Underpinning research, whether it is quantitative, qualitative or mixed-methods lie the philosophical assumptions or worldviews that are the guiding beliefs and values about knowledge operating at a broad, abstract level (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). Whilst scholarly inquiry may sit within positivism or interpretivism, mixed-method researchers commonly use pragmatism to define their assumptions (Biddle and Schafft, 2015, Flick, 2018b). Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) also suggest alternative worldviews to pragmatism exist to inform mixed-methods research that can be combined or used individually. These include postpositivism and constructivism, associated with quantitative and qualitative research respectively, plus the transformative worldview focuses on the need for social justice. However, it is the pragmatist worldview that typifies an overarching philosophy embraced by many mixed-methods scholars (Biddle and Schafft, 2015). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) identify that mixed methodologists work within the pragmatist paradigm, with an interest in both narrative and numerical data bringing breadth and depth to their analyses. Denscombe (2010) suggests pragmatism brings an emphasis on practical

approaches to research problems. The overriding concern is to use problem-solving decisions to find solutions to real world problems and ‘what works’ (p37) (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). The researcher can therefore employ methods to address the problem that research conventionality would suggest as being incompatible (Denscombe, 2010). Pragmatism places primacy on the ways that varying methods generate different understandings of the phenomena by positioning the researcher to transact with the world (Biddle and Schafft, 2015). If by adopting the pragmatic approach, that according to Biddle and Schafft ‘essentially asks not what is, but what difference it makes to assume one perspective versus another in action’ (p326) brings credence to the use of mixed-methods for this study. In attempting to ascertain if current practice in the selection of occupational therapy students to role-emerging placements is influenced by personality and resilience (deemed requisites for these challenging experiences), mixed-methods will generate knowledge to inform understanding from differing perspectives. Furthermore, mixed-methods is deemed particularly apropos with a particular strength lying in its stakeholder involvement, that being the use of occupational therapy students as participants, who have a vested interest in their profession and development of professional identity through role-emerging placement experiences. The co-creation of new knowledge through this study and thus the students’ contribution to the evolving diversification of the occupational therapy profession is recognised as valuable through insider research (Costley et al, 2010; Molina-Azorin and Fetters, 2019).

Thus being pluralistic, with the focus on the consequences of the research and therefore as an approach, logically linking with professional doctorate study whereby the research has to be situated in practice to address real issues found in professional and organisational contexts (Costley et al, 2010; Garner, 2015; Plowright, 2019). This reflects the earlier notion expressed by Yardley and Bishop (2008), that taking a pragmatic approach is not representative of the reality of knowledge produced by research but has valuable external consequences in the context of the researchers own time and place. Furthermore, Bishop (2015) maintains research should be evaluated according to the extent to which it achieves its own desired external consequences. This suggests pertinence to focused studies such as this, to justify the use of mixed-methods given the nature and motives of the researcher with a need to evidence a research outcome of value in practice.

6.4 Defining Mixed Methods Research

Gray (2018) suggests dialogue amongst scholars is beginning to create some concensus in defining mixed-methods. Johnson et al (2007) discuss the evolving nature of this third methodological movement from being named as blended research, integrative or mixed research and triangulated studies. However, the term of 'methods' is argued to encapsulate a broad interpretation for inclusion of strategies of data collection, methods of research and the adopted philosophical stance such as ontology, epistemology, and axiology (Johnson et al, 2007). Flick (2018b) maintains that qualitative research and quantitative research can mutually support each other to provide depth of understanding of the issue being studied. Tariq and Woodman (2010) equally suggest mixed-methods can address some research questions more comprehensively than by using qualitative or quantitative methods alone and that questions profit from this approach tend to be broad and complex with multi facets benefitting from combining both. According to Creswell (2015) mixed-methods research is articulated as

> '*an approach to research in the social, behavioural and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems' (p2).*

6.5 Triangulation

Mixed-methods research is not just the gathering of both qualitative and quantitative data but is a fundamental and deliberate combination of collection, analysis and integration of both types of data to answer a research question, with a rationale driven by the epistemological stance of the researcher. The use of two or more independent measurement processes is argued to reduce uncertainty in interpreting the data (Johnson et al, 2007) and strengthen the validity of research outcomes (Gray, 2018). Findings on a single construct from multiple sources enhances validity, that Creamer (2018) suggests is particularly evident with 'convergent validity' (p24) where robustness is enhanced when two or more methods generate cohesive and comparable data. This combination of methodologies in a study of the same phenomenon was termed triangulation by Webb et al in 1966 and is thought to be a pioneering concept for mixed-methods research that was later

operationalised by Denzin in 1978. Denzin argued that triangulation could take different forms, distinguishing between within-methods, being either multiple qualitative or quantitative methods or between-methods involving both (cited in Johnson et al, 2007). Denzin, arguing that between-methods is the most powerful because the biases of one paradigm could be counterbalanced by the methods of the other (Cited in Gray, 2018).

Flick (2018a) discusses the four different modes of triangulation postulated by Denzin but of relevance to this study is data triangulation and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation allows for studying the same phenomenon at different times and with different participants, which is achieved in this study by using two cohorts of students at different levels of study who were on different placements. Between-methods triangulation involves both qualitative and quantitative approaches that according to Denzin (1978) allows for inherent biases from just one paradigm and data source to be ‘cancelled out’ and ‘the result will be a convergence upon the truth about some social phenomenon’ (p14).

6.6 Study Design

6.6.1 Mixed-Methods Design

The methodological design of a research study using a mixed-methods approach can take different forms, with weighting to the qualitative and quantitative elements being parallel or more dominant depending on the nature of the subject being explored. Johnson et al (2007) argue a continuum exists within mixed-methods with the central point reflecting an equal status with similar prominence given to both quantitative and qualitative components and represents a ‘pure’ form of mixing. Each side of this sits research that is either qualitative dominant or quantitative dominant. Johnson et al (2007) furthermore analogise there is a sense for researchers to have a ‘primary home’ (being one of the three core paradigms) and to visit ‘other homes’ so the research can benefit (p123), suggesting that pragmatism, with mixed-methods, being based in the real world allows for innovative combinations of methods to address the research question (David and Sutton, 2011). If, a mixed-methods approach allows for pragmatism and legitimises the adoption of a primary stance to professional doctorate research, that being situated

in practice, Finlay (2011) argues that occupational therapists typically explore the meaning behind a phenomenon in a social world, making the ‘primary home’ for this study, qualitative in nature. A phenomenological or interpretive stance, using a hermeneutic approach allows for a reflective focus on the subjective accounts of individual experience and how these are made sense of. This study explores and develops understanding of the lived experience for occupational therapy students in role-emerging placements. Furthermore, the quantitative component of this mixed-methods research compliments the study by the gathering of statistical data using robust collection tools to measure the constructs of personality and resilience to help explain and support understanding of the phenomenon.

Plano Clark and Ivankova (2016) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) maintain there are three core designs that are recognised in mixed-methods research. Whilst others argue there are different numbers of designs emerging over time (Bishop, 2015) depending which mixed-methods research work is drawn on. Fundamentally, these designs are deemed *convergent* or *sequential* in nature. A sequential design would occur in two distinct phases led by either, the collection and analysis of quantitative or qualitative data being termed explanatory or exploratory dependent on which comes first. The results of the first phase or strand connect to and inform the next phase. The two sets of results are then connected to conclude the study and develop inferences that answer the research questions.

6.6.2 Convergent Design

This study utilises a convergent design (or known as concurrent or parallel) in which the researcher implements quantitative and qualitative strands concurrently (Plano Clark and Ivankova, 2016). The integration of each method occurs after the collection and analysis is complete. The data on the same subject is different yet complementary, that according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) is where the researcher intends to synthesise the quantitative and qualitative analysis and findings so they can be compared or combined. This validates one set of findings with the other to determine if participants respond in a similar way across the data collection tools. Plano Clark and Ivankova, (2016) suggest this corroboration of the evidence produces a more complete understanding of the research problem that supports utilising this mixed-methods design. Gray (2018) suggests the design does

not have to be interdependent or carried out in any particular order and data collection is typically separate. Convergence is achieved in this study through the use of measurement scales and interviews as data collection tools facilitating complimentary analysis.

6.6.3 Timing, Mixing and Weighting of data sets

Key decisions as a requisite by the researcher guide the design process and according to Plano Clark and Ivankova (2016) these include timing, mixing of data sets and findings and priority or weighting.

Timing – this study employed concurrent timing as the independent collection and analysis of data that was dictated by the occurrence of placements and level of study for the student. The quantitative data was collected pre and post placement and qualitative data collected post placement as separate entities.

Integration or mixing – Deemed as an essential aspect of mixed methods research, the researcher has to mix or combine the quantitative and qualitative data results and interpret them together facilitating a greater understanding of the phenomenon than that provided by the qualitative and quantitative results alone.

Priority or weighting – refers to the relative weighting or importance placed on the quantitative and qualitative methods selected to address the research question (Curry and Nunez-Smith, 2015). Creamer (2015) discusses the need to place priority at the centre of mixed-method study design and legitimises unequal priority with one strand being deliberately subordinate to the other. A supplemental component can bring a narrow focus to support the primary component or serve as a pragmatic purpose in the context of a larger study according to Curry and Nunez-Smith (2015). For this study, the qualitative method carried greater dominance, generating rich data in exploring student perspectives of role-emerging placements as a lived experience. The quantitative data, whilst of value, was secondary to the qualitative data, as the participant numbers were small, limiting the generalisability. However, the next section discusses strategies in the design process to promote validity and robustness whilst using an unequal priority.

6.6.4 Challenges in using the convergent design

Whilst mixed-methods designs allow for a pragmatic approach to research with proponents of the third paradigm advocating the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods enhance the outcome of what is in question (Plowright, 2019), it is important to acknowledge the challenges faced by researchers (Taiq and Woodman, 2010). Such challenges can be pre-empted through creating an overall data collection strategy with a deliberate decision making process in how the qualitative and quantitative methods (instruments and procedures) will fit together (Curry and Nunez- Smith, 2015) i.e. are they measuring the same construct but through different ways and are they interrelated? The convergent design ensures data elicited is focusing on the same topic to allow for facilitating integration, as is the case in this study.

Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest differences in sample sizes and merging of two data sets can have consequential difficulties when the results are integrated and inferences drawn. Such challenges can affect the quality and robustness of a mixed-methods study (Creswell, 2015). By using the same participants or a subset of the individuals who participate in the quantitative sample as a strategy, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) maintain minimises extraneous information that may influence convergence and corroboration within the two data sets. This study recruited the participants for the qualitative data collection from the student cohorts who were also participants of the quantitative data collection. Collins et al (2007) defines this as a *nested design* that draw a smaller sample for one form of data collection, usually qualitative, from a larger sample from which different data is collected. Furthermore, using a small qualitative sample, combined with a larger quantitative sample is deemed to be a good option within the design process by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018). The in-depth qualitative findings compliment the statistical data to explain the phenomenon and therefore the size differential is not detrimental ensuring robustness.

In designing a mixed-methods study, the researcher must decide whether to use different forms of data collection tools, as independent sources, that Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest is necessary if the researchers intent is to triangulate and generate robust, corroborated findings. For the researcher they must have the

ability to understand and administer different data collection tools sitting within the two paradigms or use a research team so strengths and knowledge can be drawn on from each side of the continuum (Tariq and Woodman, 2010). This study employed a semi-structured interview to collect qualitative data and measurement scales to gather the quantitative data. Convergent designs allow for the collection of one form of data before the other form and for this study, the measurement scales were administered prior to the interviews. The merging of data sets, i.e. the dialogue within the thematic analysis with statistical data in a meaningful way, is also perceived as a challenge, which Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest can be overcome by a study design that explores the same concepts. In this case, both data collection tools of the study addressed the constructs of resilience and personality with overlapping data on entrepreneurship.

Finally, the use of convergent design with the merging of the data sets brings a risk of divergence or a discrepancy in merging the results. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) discuss the possibility of facing this question if the qualitative and quantitative results are at odds with each other. Where this inconsistency occurs opens up opportunities to confront multiple meanings that mixed-method studies provide (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Bazeley (2018) indicate an inevitability of conflict and dissonance, with the need for the researcher to find resolution through further exploration and interpretation, not necessarily achieving 'tidy congruence' (p265).

6.6.5 Quality

The need for rigour is a requisite in research, which according to Curry and Nunez-Smith (2015) is referred to as *quality* in a mixed-method approach or *legimation* (Onwuegbuzie and Johnson, 2006). The standards promoting rigour and trustworthiness in qualitative and quantitative research draw on different terms depending on which epistemological stance is adopted. However, mixed methodologists suggest combining these and adopt quality standards through terms explicit to mixed-methods design (Curry and Nunez-Smith, 2015).

Veracity – Where qualitative research uses *credibility* to explain the degree to which findings plausibly explain the phenomenon and establish confidence in the accuracy of interpretation (Gray, 2018), is deemed as *internal validity* in quantitative research. This is the degree to which findings reflect accurately a causal relationship between

the variables. This study and its veracity can be supported through the conscious use of robust measurement scales for data collection and systematic analysis of the qualitative data with the use of member checking and intercoder agreement.

Consistency – In quantitative research *reliability* allows for replication of the study findings and in qualitative research this is termed *dependability*. Transparency throughout allows for the research and its findings to be judged and replicated.

Applicability – Where findings can be applied to different settings, contexts or populations with *transferability* or *generalisability* (*external validity*) in qualitative and quantitative approaches respectively.

Neutrality – *Confirmability* in qualitative research is the degree to which study findings are shaped by the participants rather than researcher bias and motivation. In quantitative research *objectivity* indicates the researcher is impartial and remains distanced from the study to eliminate bias. By being transparent, ethical and demonstrating integrity helps the researcher to remain neutral. Reflexivity is also a requisite with Mason-Bish (2018) suggesting is situated alongside identity and positionality of the researcher, which is explored later in this chapter.

In contrast, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) conclude that quality in mixed-methods has historically been a cause for concern and that by using *validity* as an all-encompassing term brings clarity. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) furthermore, suggest validity, as employing strategies to address potential issues in data collection and analysis to drawing accurate inferences from integrated data. These strategies must be carefully considered and applied in a transparent manner.

As discussed earlier in section 6.5, triangulation, using more than one method and different data collection tools aims to demonstrate quality, promote rigour and trustworthiness in this research.

6.7 Sampling and Recruitment

6.7.1 Inclusion Criteria

Participants for the study were recruited from the BSc Occupational Therapy student cohorts studying at Glyndŵr University. The inclusion criterion for the selection of participants for the study is that students were:-

a) enrolled on the BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy degree
b) either in their second or third year of study
c) had undertaken placements in traditional and role-emerging settings.

The students were recruited prior to the commencement of their third or final placement. They had been allocated to a range of placement settings across both traditional and non-traditional experiences using the normal process of selection by the placement tutor. This process typically considers the placement profile of the student and the need for facilitating a range of placement experiences across settings as a requisite for meeting professional body standards (COT, 2014a).

6.7.2 Sampling

Sampling in a mixed-methods study of a convergent design draws on participants who are from the same underlying population (Creswell, 2015) and that those who are recruited for gathering qualitative data are the same or a subset of the sample recruited for the quantitative sample (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2018). Therefore, supporting the design of this study, where the small qualitative sample was recruited from the cohorts of students who were also the quantitative sample. This reflects the nested design discussed earlier in this chapter, with Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) supporting strength of combining a smaller qualitative sample with a larger quantitative sample. The sample was determined by cohort size and negated the need for a power analysis calculation to predict sample size from a population to measure the effect (Scott and Mazhindu, 2014). The quantitative data was collected from a sample size of two cohorts of students combined, with a total of 38 participants. From this sample population, 13 students had been allocated to a role-emerging placement presenting this as a potential sample size for gathering the qualitative data. All 13 students were invited to participate in the qualitative data

collection that involved a one to one interview. Of the 13, 10 students volunteered to be interviewed and 6 were selected to participate in this process. Where 2 students who had volunteered to participate, had undertaken a shared placement experience, only one was chosen for interview, so the sample was representative across a range of settings. This narrowed down the sample size to 8 participants out of the 10 who volunteered as duplicated experiences were removed. Random selection was then used to chose who was interviewed for the qualitative data collection reducing bias.

Sample size is not clearly defined or with consensus for qualitative data collection but typically is small in comparison to quantitative samples and is argued as being appropriate for the phenomenon being studied (Constantinou et al, 2017). Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest the final sample size is often not defined until the study is conducted to ensure sufficient data is gathered to provide a 'rich, thick' data set offering in-depth understanding of the lived experience. Final sample sizes for both quantitative and qualitative data collection were determined once placement allocation had taken place when student cohort numbers and placement settings were confirmed prior to commencement of placements. By taking a pragmatic approach to the data collection, there was a consensus of agreement between the researcher and supervisor that 6 semi-structured interviews would generate sufficient depth of data to address the research aim. The overall sample size was dictated by the two combined cohort sizes, the nature of the placements and where they fall within the timescale for data collection. The qualitative sample size and data saturation, discussed by Constantinou et al (2017) highlight the markers described by Guba in 1981 to ensure robust research. For researchers to explain a phenomenon in detail so to reflect the reality and make findings *transferable* to other situations or individuals requires an appropriate sample size to generate sufficient data.

A non-probability sampling process was utilised to select participants, which according to Denscombe involves an element of choice or discretion on the part of the researcher (2010). Whilst the aim is to generate a representative sample without the risk of selection bias, non-probability sampling does not operate on the principle of random selection and is dependent upon good practice to achieve this. This type of sampling technique lends itself to focused studies such as this. Creswell and

Plano-Clark (2018) suggest the sample size for gathering quantitative data must be sufficient to meet the requirements of the planned statistical tests being employed. Furthermore, suggesting at least 30 participants are required for correlational analysis. The combined cohort numbers allowed this to be achieved with a total of 38 participants in the final sample for the quantitative data collection. The sampling technique was both purposive and convenience in nature. Purposive sampling allows deliberate selection of participants on the basis of their existing and known characteristics. This encompasses their relevance to the study, which falls clearly under the remit of being an occupational therapy student who undertakes placement experiences. The sample group also have knowledge, insight and expertise from their experiences of placement, which they draw on during the data collection. Purposive sampling, through deliberate selection, therefore brings the most valuable data to address the research question and explain the phenomenon being explored (Denscombe, 2010). Convenience sampling is equally relevant, as the participant sample were students studying in the higher education institution where the researcher was employed at the time of undertaking the research. The participants were accessible, therefore making the recruitment process both logical and practical. Furthermore, given the nature of the placements and where they fell within the timescale for data collection added justification to this type of sampling. Denscombe (2010) does however, suggest caution and the need to ensure the participants are not selected on the basis of convenience but on the subject matter of the research and who is best placed to provide data bringing rigor to the process. A further criticism of non-probability sampling is that the researcher, in knowing the participants brings a risk of bias. However, use of a selection criteria and use of a transparent process aims to eliminate this to a large extent.

All participants for the quantitative data collection were invited to take part in the study by use of an invitation letter (Appendix 8 and 9) and participant information sheet outlining the purpose of the study and what it would involve to participate (Appendix 4). All participants signed a consent form (Appendix 5) that applied to both elements of the data collection dependent on whether participants completed self-rating measurement scales, semi-structured interviews or both. One cohort of students in their third and final year of study was recruited (n=20) and of those, 7 participants had undergone role-emerging or non-traditional placements. Thirteen students had traditional placements in health and social care experiences. The other

participant group were second year students on their third placement (n=18), of which 6 had role-emerging placements and 12 had traditional placements. All participants across both cohorts completed the self-rating measurement scales prior to commencing placement and on completion of placement. Of those who had completed role-emerging placements a further invitation letter was distributed inviting them to participate in a semi-structured interview post placement.

6.8 Data Collection Tools

6.8.1 Qualitative Method

6.8.1.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The use of interviews as a data collection instrument is commonly used by social scientists to expand their understanding of how humans perceive their social worlds and act within them (Philipps and Mrowczynski, 2019). Silverman, (2017) discusses this assumption that interviews allow us to enter the participant's world to understand their experiences and perspectives and argues the need for improved quality of interview research. However, questions the type of data being gathered, discussing the reliability of the interview transcription through to the data analysis and the need to ensure this is robust. Mason-Bish (2018) suggests the importance of taking a critically reflexive approach to interviewing and to consciously scrutinise the power and positionality taken by the researcher in the relationship with participants.

Students who were selected to undertake role-emerging experiences were interviewed on completion of their placement to elucidate the meaning of the 'lived experience' from their perspective (King and Horrocks, 2010; Silverman, 2017). These interviews were conducted on a one to one basis, each being digitally recorded and were approximately an hour in duration. The interviews were carried out on the University campus, at a mutually agreed date and time. The facilitation of the interview extends beyond just the questions being posed, with King and Horrocks (2010) discussing the need for comfort, privacy and quiet so both interviewee and interviewer are able to capture the data effectively and ethically. Rutakumwa et al (2019) discuss the use of voice recorders and the general

acceptance that audio-recorded data offers the facts of the interview account adding validity and trustworthiness but argue that the very use of a recorder can influence the interaction bringing a need to be skilful in facilitation of the interview and reflexive about the research relationship.

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) suggest the purpose of interviews is to 'obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena' (p3). Through a careful questioning and listening approach allows knowledge to be gained through the data gathered going beyond the exchange of views in everyday conversation (Kvale and Brinkman, 2009). Furthermore, they suggest the interpersonal nature of interviewing through a dialogue between two people with a theme of mutual interest offers an enriching and dynamic experience. This transformative process validates the participant experience and gives a voice, opening up possibilities for both the researcher and participant to make sense of the experience being studied (Finlay, 2011). Philipps and Mrowczynski (2019) discuss how interviewees create meanings in the interactions with interviewers, who as a consequence can be seen to be co-constructors of these meanings. These meanings are shaped through a narrative and subjective account constructed from the interviewee's own expressive selectivity. However, to enhance rigor to the research process the interviews must be conducted skilfully with well-constructed questioning based on the type and scope of the questions to elucidate the meaning (King and Horrocks, 2010). The use of prepared open-ended questions allows consistency across a number of interviews therefore promoting trustworthiness in the data collected but being semi-structured allows some flexibility and fluidity bringing a rich 'thick' data. Semi-structured interviews bring opportunity for in-depth questioning to explore the meaning of the lived experience of the participant (Braun and Clarke, 2013). All participants were provided with an interview schedule of questions that would be typically asked but that additional questions could be asked to explore responses or to clarify their perspectives.

Costley et al (2010) discuss qualitative interviews bring a sensitive and powerful method of capturing subjects' public and private lives often being an emancipatory experience. However, insider research and the interdependency of engagement between interviewer and interviewee is not without power issues. The researcher

has a pivotal role in placement allocation; there was a risk of this impacting on the interview process, skewing responses and creating bias within the data (Costley et al, 2010; Fulton and Costley, 2019). Kvale and Brinkman (2009), discuss the interview is not a conversation between equal partners with the researcher facilitating and controlling the situation, cast in a position of power also discussed by Mason-Bish (2018). This raises some issues in need of consideration: firstly, participants may feel unable to answer honestly for fear of being judged or treated differently given the tutor- student dynamic. However, according to Wolgemuth et al, (2015) constructionist interviews involve interviewer and interviewee in a collaborative, empowering experience where the hierarchy is minimalised as it centres on the interviewee. The interviewee tells their story to an empathetic listener, with a desire for their experience to benefit others (students on future role-emerging placements and the profession more broadly). Wolgemuth et al (2015) discuss this cathartic value of being interviewed, whereby the students could share their experiences in a safe, open environment creating rich, in-depth qualitative data.

Ethically, it was important to make participants aware of the voluntary nature of answering the questions and that anonymity would be assured. Furthermore, to address the imbalance between the researcher and participant it was important to recognise the purposive nature of the sample group and place a value on the expertise the participants hold regarding their experiences on a role-emerging placement. Ethical approval and transparency throughout the process aims to address this issue and this was fully adhered to. Furthermore, objectivity is a requisite to add trustworthiness and credibility to the qualitative element of the study with Braun and Clarke (2013) suggesting the interviewer should reflect on their practices and values that may have shaped the data produced. Whilst they acknowledge the interviewer has an active part co-constructing meaning with the participant, this has to be balanced with avoidance of presupposition and the use of non-leading questions (King and Horrocks, 2010).

On completion of each interview, each participant was asked if they would be willing to check the written transcript to ensure it was an accurate account of the dialogue of the interview that had taken place. Member checking or participant validation serves to add transparency and promote credibility to the research process

(Roulston, 2010; Willig, 2013). Of the 6 participants who were interviewed, 2 volunteered to read their interview transcript and comment on whether it had been accurately represented in the written transcription before data analysis commenced. Field notes were recorded throughout the data collection process. These noted any occurrences or pertinent dialogue outside of the recorded interviews and act as an audit trail, again with the aim of bringing transparency to the qualitative element of the research. King and Horrocks (2010), Willig (2013) and Fook (2019) suggest the importance of such practices in optimising validity and recognise its value in being reflexive throughout the research process. Reflexivity will be discussed in more depth later in this chapter, as it is widely acknowledged as an essential requisite to a study such as this (Finlay, 2011).

6.8.2 Quantitative Method

6.8.2.1 Measurement scales

The selection of the quantitative data collection tools for use in this mixed-methods study was guided by the evidence and theory to support this decision-making process. Chapter 3 offers an explanation of the trait approach to personality and how the Five Factor model is recognised as a robust way of measuring the traits of individuals based on the work of Costa and McCrae (1995). The Five Factor model, deemed as pivotal, has been operationalised into alternate scales with the Big Five Inventory (BFI) justified as an appropriate measurement scale (John, Donaghue and Kentle, 1991). Version 2 of the BFI has been developed since the time of data collection for this study, which took place in 2016 and 2017 (Soto and John, 2017). The original Big Five Inventory was accessible without restrictions, so was practically reasoned and selected on this basis (Appendix 12). The inventory establishes 5 personality factors along a continuum:- Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism (John et al, 2010). Within each of the five factors are specific personality attributes or facets that cluster together and contribute to a category score. Factor analysis establishes the facets within each of the five factors to determine an individual's personality traits (Maltby et al, 2017).

Chapter 4 explores the construct of resilience and draws on the evidence base in how this can be measured and this is taken forward into this chapter as an operationalised tool that is utilised in practice. The Connor-Davidson Scale (CD-RISC-25) (Appendix 10) was developed through the work with individuals with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) measuring resilience when facing adversity (Connor and Davidson, 2003). The scale has since been used for measuring resilience with the general population including young adults and students (Allen et al, 2014). The scale consists of 25 questions rated from 0-4. The higher the total score suggests greater resilience. The scale has been reviewed for its psychometric properties and is rated as one of the most robust scales to measure the construct of resilience (Windle et al, 2011). After establishing which measurement scale would be sufficiently robust to measure resilience, the authors of the CR-RISC-25 scale were contacted to seek permission to use this tool (Appendix 11). The scale was provided without a charge in exchange for a Welsh version, which had to be translated into Welsh and then translated back into English as a check for language anomalies.

Both self-rating measurement scales are ordinal instruments where individual responses are categorised into sub-scales on the basis of a common characteristic and ranks the values being measured (Kumar, 2014; Flick, 2018b). Both psychometric scales have demonstrated internal consistency reliability so the individual items of the scale measure the same construct through its robust design to measure consistently (Gray, 2018, Scott and Mazhindu, 2014). As the measurement scales were administered before and after placement the test retest of the scales is of use to judge their reliability (Denscombe, 2010). Equally concurrent criterion validity is evident, allowing comparison and correlational analysis between the two scales and reliability amongst different population samples (Scott and Mazhindu, 2014).

6.9 Data Analysis

With mixed-methods research the qualitative and quantitative data are kept analytically distinct and are analysed using techniques associated with that type of data (Tariq and Woodman, 2010). The integrity of each data set is preserved and then capitalised on by combining or integrating the two. Creswell and Plano-Clark

(2018) suggest adopting stages for the analysis of data, which includes the preparing of data, examining and analysing the data that is represented in Chapters 7 and 8.

6.9.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

6.9.1.1 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is widely used and deemed as a foundational approach to qualitative data analysis being interpretive and inductive in nature (Braun and Clark, 2006, 2013; Flick, 2018b). Willeg (2013) suggests thematic analysis is a method of recognising and organising patterns in content and meaning of qualitative data and is conducted systematically to bring trustworthiness and credibility to the research (Nowell et al, 2017). Nowell et al (2017) and Willeg (2013) maintain that thematic analysis can be used across a range of epistemologies and research questions, with Boyatzis (1998) arguing it 'can assist with communication between positivistic and interpretive science' (p6) being deemed as a bridge between methods. Therefore, it clearly lends itself to the data analysis in a mixed-methods study. Braun and Clark (2006) articulate that thematic analysis is a highly flexible approach that can be modified for studies, providing a rich and detailed account of the data. This provides a basis for a more sophisticated analysis to answer more complex questions by the interconnection of themes (Creswell, 2009). The use of thematic analysis allows for highlighting similarities and differences of participant perspectives and has the potential to generate unanticipated insights.

Whilst acknowledging the flexibility of thematic analysis, Nowell et al (2017) suggest this can lead to incoherence and inconsistency in the development of the themes, resulting in a lack of credibility and trustworthiness. Furthermore, novice researchers may find difficulty in establishing and undertaking a methodical analysis, anticipating themes rather than allowing these to emerge as a systematic process. Immersion in the data by repeated reading of the transcripts and field notes is argued as an important stage to gain broad trends and understandings (Braun and Clark, 2013; Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2018). Rudestam and Newton (2007) discuss the overwhelming nature of data in terms of scope and quantity with the need to reduce this into manageable elements that are constantly refined throughout the iterative

process. Furthermore, Braun and Clark (2006) argue that coding and the analysis to generate data findings can go on infinitum with a need to constantly move back and forth between the emergent data. According to Bazeley (2013) the researcher aims to reach a stage of data saturation where no new codes and subsequent sub-themes and themes emerge that Harding (2013) suggests is restricted by the practicalities of a project such as time and the need to stop collecting data at a finite point. However, Richards (2015) suggests saturation indicates the breadth of data has been covered with a further need to judge the adequacy of depth of data achieved through focus and sufficiency. Furthermore, suggesting an account of the data can be 'simple,elegant, complete, robust and make sense of the whole project' (p156). An immersive and iterative analysis of the qualitative data was undertaken over a 6 week period using a systematic approach outlined below.

The transcribed data were initially coded as a process to identifying aspects of pertinence to the research question (Appendix 13) (Bazeley, 2013; Harding 2013; Richards, 2015; Flick, 2018b). Braun and Clark (2013) define two forms of coding. *Complete coding* was utilised for this study, opposed to *selective coding*. Complete coding involves identifying anything and everything of relevance within the entire dataset drawing out a 'corpus of instances' of the phenomenon (p206). A code can be a word or brief phrase within the transcript and these generate the basis of the analysis that are then refined into sub-themes and ultimately themes. Once the initial coding of the data had been completed, cross checking or intercoder agreement was used as a means to adding to the credibility of the findings (Miles et al, 2014). Two placement tutors from different universities were invited to cross check the coding of two transcripts, with agreement that this had been done consistently. The codes were indicative of a comparable analytical process that would have been undertaken if the tutors had been the primary researcher. Braun and Clark (2013) and Flick (2018b) indicate that the coded data is worked with to establish or elucidate emergent patterns or meanings as the analysis becomes more in-depth. The emergent themes from the participant stories are pieced together to form a comprehensive picture of their collective experience. Appendix 14 presents an extract from the analysis process with each participant's narrative colour coded. The themes are distinctive and make sense on their own but equally need to have relationship with each other to inform the overall analysis. The emergent themes and sub-themes are set out in Chapter 7 (see Table 7.3). The themes are interwoven

to enable construction of the story and it is for the researcher to interpret and make sense of this in a meaningful, yet rigorous and transparent manner. Chapter 7 presents the findings of the qualitative data and includes the details of the sub themes, of which there were 24 that were combined to create 7 key themes. Within Chapter 7 extracts and quotes from the transcripts serve as vivid examples to capture the essence of the lived experience for the students and their perspective of role-emerging placements.

6.9.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

6.9.2.1 Statistical Analysis and Tests

SPSS was employed to analyse the quantitative data computing the measurement scales using relevant statistical testing including scale reliability and correlations (Knapp, 2014). The raw data was inputted in to SPSS mirroring the measurement scale questions against the participant numbers and within two timelines (pre and post placement) as variables. The analysis compares the data measured at time 1 (pre placement) and time 2 (post placement) for both traditional and role-emerging placements. The analysis also measures correlations between resilience and personality. The final analysis compares resilience of this partipant sample against other sample groups in previous studies using the CD-RISC 25. Chapter 8 presents the analysis and results of the quantitative data.

6.9.3 Integration and Interpretation of the Data Analyses.

Once qualitative and quantitative data analyses are complete mixed-method studies require integration and interpretation that Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) term as *inferences*. These are deemed to be the integrated study conclusions that Plano Clark and Ivankova (2016) suggest is the critical review of quantitative and qualitative data analyses that jointly provide answers to the research question and fuller understanding of the phenomenon. The inferences in mixed-methods research are conclusions or interpretations drawn from the separate qualitative and quantitative strands as well as across these strands, known as meta-inferences. Tariq and Woodman (2010) suggest the integration of data is the most important and difficult aspect of the mixed-methods research, with Teddlie and Tashakkori

(2009) equally indicating this crucial stage allows the data findings to be compared and contrasted. A convergent design uses simultaneous integration or merging, to develop integrated results and interpretations that expand understanding (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2018). Creamer (2018) infers that this act of interpretation demands an ability to step beyond description of results to constructing and conceptualising conclusions at a more abstract level. Side by side comparisons of qualitative and quantitative results can be presented through a narrative or comparative tables that Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest is a more common approach to that of data transformation, where one form of data is transformed into the other and then combined. This narrative discussion and merging of integrated results is legitimised by Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018), who suggest the researcher organises and presents qualitative and quantitative following each other within a section of text and then discusses them in terms of how the results compare and corroborate. This allows for a direct comparison as to whether results are in agreement or disagreement.

6.10 Ethical Considerations

Research must be conducted in a responsible and morally defensible way guided by a set of underpinning core principles (ESRC, 2015; UKRIO, 2009). These principles shape research from its inception to completion, the dissemination of findings and archiving, future use, sharing and linking of data (ESRC, 2015). A researcher must act with integrity, honesty and be accountable for their study and the safety of participants ensured. This must account for maintaining the dignity, rights and well-being of any individuals involved in research without risk of harm (Universities UK, 2012). Undertaking this research with the remit of professional doctoral study not only brings a requisite to meet the University's ethical expectations but also that of professional bodies where accountability lies for the researcher (King and Horrocks, 2010; RCOT, 2019b).

To optimise rigour and trustworthiness in the study the researcher had to ensure objectivity and transparency throughout the process. This was particularly important in the recruitment and data collection phase, as the researchers role as placement tutor, could influence and impact the study and its findings. It was important to take a reflexive stance and consider bias, possible coercion and influences (either

positive or negative) in the engagement with the participants. Professional behaviour, integrity and best practice must be evident to optimise validity and credibility of the study and its outcome that according to Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC, 2019) term as 'virtue ethics'.

6.10.1 Process of Approval

This study underwent a full ethical application scrutinised by the Research Ethics Sub Committee (GRESC) of the University and received written approval in July 2016 (Appendix 3). The research proposal had also been presented as evidence for module learning of professional doctorate study and prerequisite for this final thesis module. Permission to access the students for the purposes of this study was also granted through the professional lead of the programme who served as a gatekeeper and legitimised their involvement as participants (ESRC, 2015).

6.10.2 Informed Consent

All participants were invited to participate and informed in writing of the study through the gatekeeper who had the professional lead role in the BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy degree programme (Appendix 7, 8 and 9) (ESRC, 2015). The purpose of the study, its design and implications were outlined in the information sheet (Appendix 4). Written consent was obtained with all participants signing a Consent form (Appendix 5) prior to commencement of data collection. Participation was voluntary and each participant had the right to withdraw from the student at any time.

6.10.3 Confidentiality

All gathered data and participant information was collated and stored in line with the Data Protection Act (1998) and General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). Written and electronic data has been stored securely throughout the study and has only been accessible to the researcher and supervisor. All data has been stored in a locked cabinet or password secured computer. Anonymity in all collected data, analysis and writing up of the study is adhered to. Participants cannot be identified.

Each participant who was interviewed is referred to as a number in the order they were carried out. The quantitative data collection used correlating numbers assigned to each participant for the administration of both measurement scales pre and post placement. This ensured accuracy in the uploading of the data into SPSS software and assured anonymity.

6.10.4 Beneficence and Non-maleficence (Benefit and Risk of Harm)

This study did not offer a direct benefit to the participants and they were not incentivised in the recruitment process. However, the participation by students in the interviews could be deemed to bring a value for them by being given a platform to vocalise their experiences and the opportunity to tell their story. The purpose of the study is clearly set out in the Participation Information Sheet (Appendix 4) so each participant knew of the value in the data collected to inform the occupational therapy profession and higher education sector in terms of role-emerging experiences and the challenges they bring.

Throughout the data collection process, the risk of potential harm was accounted for as it had potential for students to revisit challenging placement experiences, which could be difficult for some students, particularly for those who were interviewed. Also, in determining the constructs of personality and resilience some students could find this intrusive on a personal level, as they were asked to respond to questions and reflect on their own perceptions and behaviours that shaped the placement experiences. A duty of care exists for the researcher to act on any discomfort displayed by the participants throughout the data collection. Whilst placing students in this situation was deemed to bring minimal risk of harm to them as individuals, strategies were in place if required. The right to withdraw at any stage and the nature of the participant-researcher engagement offers a support mechanism when vulnerabilities are exposed.

6.11 Insider Research

Practice-based research brings a requisite for the researcher to be aware of their positional stance within the research process and the nuances or ethical issues that occur due to the relationship of the research with participants (Fulton and Costley, 2019). Fulton and Costley (2019) discuss the balance between subjectivity and

objectivity, recognisng the difficulty in remaining entirely objective. In acknowledging the dynamic between the student participants and the researcher primary role as placement tutor allowed for ethical safeguards to be put in place. According to Costley (2010) insider research carries some criticism concerning questions over bias and validity. The study design embedded the use of a gatekeeper in the recruitment and data collection process to minimise the risk of coercion. Although purposive and convenience sampling was used to recruit participants, of those who volunteered to be interviewed random selection was used to chose the final 6 participants reducing bias. Section 6.8.1.1 discusses the dynamic between student and placement tutor in the interview process and addresses the potential power imbalance. Member and peer checking took place to bring transparency and trustworthiness to the qualitative data collection and analysis process. Triangulation is discussed in 6.5 that accounts for the use of mixed-methods approaches allowing for a counterbalance of potential inherent biases from just one paradigm.

6.12 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presents the methodological considerations necessary to inform the research approach and design. The use of a mixed-methods approach is explored and justified as appropriate for the study. The elements of the study design including the recruitment and sampling of participants, selection of data collection tools administered and analysis of qualitative and quantitative results are detailed. The role of reflexivity and its importance in research is discussed as the values, beliefs and experiences brought by the researcher impact on the research process and dynamics with the participants. Lastly, the importance of the ethics guiding and underpinning the study are presented to demonstrate rigour and credibility have been accounted

Chapter 7 : Qualitative Data Results

7.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter presents the findings of the qualitative data, which has been generated through six interviews with occupational therapy undergraduate students. All six participants had undertaken role-emerging placements as either their third or final placement. The third placement takes place at the mid point of the second year of the degree programme and the final placement takes place in the first trimester of the third year.

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the narrative constructs or 'story' of the data in an explicit way that is meaningful, rigorous and transparent (Braun and Clarke, 2013; Miller and Glassner, 2016). It is for the researcher to find coherence drawing upon a reflexive and systematic analytical approach (Bazeley, 2013) involving immersion in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Through this process trustworthiness and credibility are established which are deemed a requisite within qualitative research (Green and Thorogood, 2009; Silverman, 2014). The findings are the outcome of a process of analysis using an inductive approach, enabling systematic interpretation of raw primary data to establish emergent patterns or themes (Creswell, 2009; Russell Bernard and Ryan, 2010; Braun and Clarke, 2013; Harding, 2013). The use of thematic analysis facilitates an in-depth understanding of the participants lived experience and establishing the essence of the phenomenon (Ross, 2012). The emergent themes from the participant narratives or stories are pieced together to form a comprehensive picture of their collective experience (Creswell, 2009). Chapter 9 will bring together the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative findings to discuss their relevance to the study, which aims to explore the constructs of resilience and characteristics or attributes of students and how these determine aptitude for undertaking role-emerging placements. The discussion will be interwoven with the literature and driving healthcare agendas explored in earlier chapters.

7.2 Demographic Data

Initially descriptive codes were extracted from the data that, according to Richards (2015) allows factual information regarding the participants to be collated. Data including the gender, age, stage of training and placement setting were collected as these variables shape the placement experience for each individual participant. These factors may also have an influence on participants inherent characteristics and resilience.

All six participants were undergraduate occupational therapy students enrolled on the programme in 2017 at various stages of their training. Each participant has undertaken a role-emerging placement and was interviewed post placement. Each participant is referred to according to the order of his or her interview. The cohort size for participants 1,2 and 3 was 18 and for participants 4, 5 and 6 was 20. Of the six participants five had shared their placement experience with another student and one participant had been on their own throughout.

The age range for students in the traditional placements was 20 to 51 and in the role-emerging placement students was 23 to 48 years old. The mean age for each cohort, differentiating between those students in role-emerging and traditional placements and combined mean age across both cohorts and placement type is detailed in table 7.1 and table 7.2.

The table below outlines the key demographic data for the sample group.

Table 7-1 - Participant Data - qualitative sample

Participant	Age	Gender	Stage of Placement	Setting
Interview 1	43	Female	4th / final yr placement	Veterans Unit
Interview 2	28	Male	4th / final yr placement	Mainstream Primary School
Interview 3	40	Female	4th / final yr placement	Mental Health Drop-in Centre
Interview 4	28	Female	3rd / second yr placement	Detox Unit
Interview 5	38	Female	3rd / second yr placement	Fire and Rescue Service
Interview 6	40	Female	3rd / second yr placement	Mental Health Residential Home

Table 7-2 - Student Ages for role-emerging and traditional placements

Cohort	Placement type	No of students	Mean age	Median
Final year cohort	Role-emerging	6	33.3	
	Traditional	12	33.4	
2nd year cohort	Role-emerging	7	37.8	
	Traditional	13	33.0	
Combined cohorts	Role-emerging	13	35.7	38
	Traditional	25	34.2	33

Adopting a recursive approach allows the interview transcripts to be repeatedly analysed facilitating immersion in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest the analysis should not be a linear process moving across the stages in sequence but can be more fluid and flexible moving between the data set, the coded data and the analysis being produced. Initial coding are words or phrases taken directly from the transcripts to highlight the pertinent responses to questions. The codes were then extracted and pooled. Each transcript was then re-analysed and the line references noted against the codes to link together the data across all six interviews. The codes were then collated into sub-themes and seven key themes. A comprehensive tabulated document has gathered together the analysis, structured using the sub-themes, line references and verbatim quotations. Extracts and verbatim quotations from the written transcripts will serve as vivid examples that capture the essence of the findings within each of the themes and bring connection between the reader and the participant voices (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The verbatim quotations will be directly drawn from participant transcripts and cross-referenced to their participant number. The key themes emerging from the data were:

Theme 1: Multi-faceted Nature of Allocation
Theme 2: Expectations
Theme 3: Determining Traits and Aptitude
Theme 4: Highs and Lows – Impact of role emerging placements on students
Theme 5: Creating Legacy
Theme 6: Occupation and Practice
Theme 7: Resources and Support mechanisms

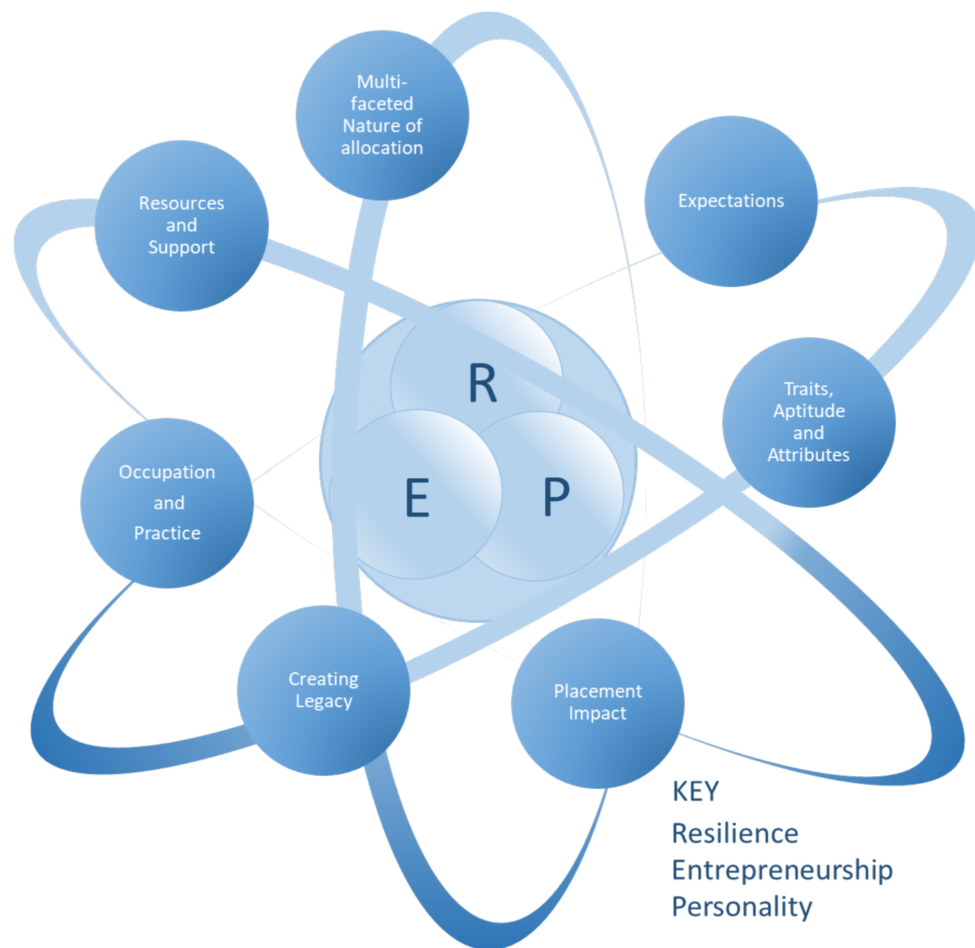

Figure 7-1 - Thematic Model: The Dynamics of Role-Emerging Placements with core constructs of Resilience, Entrepreneurship and Personality

The thematic model (Figure 7.1) presents the key themes that emerged from the qualitative data. At the core of the model are the constructs of Resilience, Entrepreneurship and Personality. These represent the student on a role-emerging placement. Surrounding these are the dynamic elements that impact, are the outcome or consequence, each interacting uniquely but offer an explanation of the phenomena experienced as a entirety. The themes and subthemes are presented in the following table (Table 7.3) and are then individually posed, being represented in turn throughout the chapter.

7.3 Thematic Analysis

Table 7-3 - Emergent Themes and Sub-Themes

	Emergent Themes	Sub-Themes	
1	Multi-faceted Nature of Allocation	Selection Process	1:1
		Compulsory Allocation v Choice	1:2
		Stage of Training	1:3
2	Expectations	Anticipation of Placement Experience (student)	2:1
		Impact of the Setting	2:2
		Influencing Change	2:3
3	Determining Traits, Aptitude and Attributes	Identified Traits / Attributes	3:1
		Building Resilience	3:2
4	The Highs and Lows - Impact of the Placement (on the student)	Autonomy 'Freedom in Practice'	4:1
		Facing Adversity: Roller Coaster	4:2
		Positive Impact: Personal Growth	4:3
5	Creating Legacy	Negative Legacy	5:1
		Positive Legacy	5:2
		Preparing You for Practice	5:3
		Shaping Career Paths	5:4
		Shaping the Profession / Diversity	5:5
6	Occupation and Practice	Developing identity	6:1
		Professionalism	6:2
		Scope of Practice	6:3
		Valuing Occupation	6:4
7	Resources / Support mechanisms	Coping strategies	7:1
		Peer support	7:2
		Supervision	7:3

7.3.1 Theme 1: Multi-Faceted Nature of Allocation

This theme explores placement allocation and the multi-faceted nature of the selection process. These facets of assigning students to placement opportunities given the challenging nature of role-emerging placements explored in Chapter 2 are presented within the emergent sub-themes. Current practice is that the placement tutor selects the placement setting for every student matching the student, their strengths and aptitude to where they are deemed to be most suited. This brings a personal approach to placement allocation, which is afforded, by a specific placement tutor role rather than 'auto-allocation' and use of a generic placement team. In comparison, other Universities offer students a choice of role-emerging

placements and where these experiences are compulsory, usually having variable levels of diverse settings to meet different needs of students.

7.3.1.1 Sub-Theme 1: 1 Selection Process

The current allocation process of assigning students to placement reflects a process undertaken using a highly selective and deliberate approach. This allows the tutor undertaking this role to select or 'cherry pick' those students deemed most suited in aptitude and attributes to specific placement experiences. The placement tutor of the programme has historically used this personal approach to allocation. The data resonates with this approach as all six participants concur with the importance of selection. Participant 1 stated 'I guess you just need to pick carefully.... spend time considering who is getting one or matching people'.

Participant 4 reiterates this:-

> *'when you're arranging placement I think people's personality and skills should be taken into consideration.. I think some people even in third year would really struggle.. the skills it would take… can't be completely taught to somebody... their personality's not really that resilient'*

Participant 5 states 'you need to pick someone who would embrace it.. I suppose you need to decide who would stick it out and do it properly' and P6 by stating 'I think some students would find it more difficult to cope and might not have the determination'. Concurring with this was the perception that a less personal approach would mean 'individual needs aren't gunna be taken into account and work in areas where they need extra input.. you're gunna end up with people.. in inappropriate placements.. I do think its done quite well here' (P4).

Participants identified key attributes perceived to be a requisite for students undertaking role-emerging placements including the need for assertiveness, confidence, and resilience. Professional identity and professionalism in placement allocation also strongly emerged from the data. Findings suggest that the selection process should take these into account when matching students to placements.

P4: 'somebody needs to be quite open minded.. have that independence and be quite assertive.. picturing our cohort I could pick out people and what it is that makes them.. confidence is a big part of this'

P6: 'we are gonna have to be pretty resilient, pretty assertive, pretty confident of our professional identity so that's where your judgement comes in.. you do need underpinning knowledge and theory so some students could struggle if they don't have that or be able to apply it to their practice'

In contrast there was reference to attributes and aptitude that may be detrimental and equally require consideration in the selection process for allocating to role-emerging placements. Over confidence and lack of self-awareness in a student can result in a negative impact discussed further in Theme 5.

P4: 'You want somebody who is gonna be professional….there is the danger as well that you get those people who think they are confident but might not always be professional'

P6: 'not as mature, insightful or with the right attitude.. some students could be too scared and feel too anxious for it to impact on them and the setting.. so no I wouldn't say it was for everyone'

The notion of deliberate selection requires an understanding by the tutor of the students and in knowing individual needs to facilitate the careful selection of students to placements. All participants acknowledged this aspect as an important facet of allocation. Participants were able to recognise their own personality traits, aptitude and resilience as a possible reason for the selection to role-emerging placement reflecting on the approach to allocation.

P1: 'personality wise you've seen me struggle and seen me come through.. praps you knew I would pull it out the bag'

P2: 'you obviously saw something in me that allowed me to do that…you could see I'm pretty adept.. I could be autonomous.. work on my own with minimal supervision.. you had the confidence that I had the knowledge in OT to know what I needed to do and how to implement it..you knew I would be able to cope with the pressure of it'

Understanding the aptitude, strengths and needs of individual students was perceived by participants as pivotal to successfully assigning students to appropriate placements. This deliberate, *cherry picking* approach is deemed

possible as a consequence of the cohort sizes that are relatively small in comparison to that of other similar programmes across the UK. Participants reported the size of cohort is beneficial in knowing the students and understanding their needs to optimise placement experiences and outcomes.

> *P1: 'I think you have a good opportunity here as you get to know your students quite well.. if the course got much bigger I don't know how well you would know us'*
>
> *P2: I think that's the beauty of having a smaller cohort cos you get to know the students.. you know who's going to manage'*
>
> *P4: When I was in XXXX (other University) you were more like a number whereas here you actually know people.. you may pick up on little things.. take into account when thinkin about where to put people'*

Participants also acknowledged the importance of using deliberate selection in the pairing of students, both allocated into one placement setting. Of those who shared a placement with another student they valued working together for practice, development and support. Participant 1 'was excited to be working with someone.. we worked really well together' and P6 '.. getting the pairing right.. that's a bit of responsibility for you.. to get that right'. Pairing students with complimentary styles and traits was voiced by participant 3 'putting two students together, not that you'd want one to take over' reiterating the need for careful selection to benefit both the students and the setting. Concurring with this was participant 6 and her desire to be at the same level as her peer but deemed this as not being in competition rather not wishing to 'be left behind'. A sense of compromise, negotiation and differing approaches was highlighted too where one student reflected on being more diplomatic than her peer, preferring not to push things and a slower pace. She referred to her peer 'being a little more volatile'(P5).

Participants indicated that through the use of selective allocation there is also a danger that assumptions are made by the tutor over who would have the aptitude to succeed or not in role-emerging placements. As a consequence the potential for some students to benefit from these experiences could be overlooked to the detriment of their development. Participant 2 voiced this in saying 'you could miss someone's potential'. However, participants, in acknowledging the rationale for placing a student or not in a role-emerging placement, recognised the challenges

and risks in placing a student who lacks the aptitude and resilience for such an experience … 'people could miss out but then… bit of a balance' (P4).

7.3.1.2 Sub-Theme 1: 2 Compulsory Allocation v Choice

Participants varied in their responses to the questions posed on compulsory allocation shifting between the benefit to being given choice or not, in where they are placed. The opinions of the participants own perspective of being assigned to a role-emerging placement and that of whether every student should be given this opportunity are explored.

Of the six participants, four indicated that if they had been given a choice they would have not opted for a role-emerging placement preferring a traditional healthcare setting instead. A lack of self-belief and reticence was evident in the responses by these participants in considering how they felt retrospectively prior to the placement.

> *P3: 'I probably would've had said no to a role emerging if I'd of had a choice.. half of me was like yeh.. so I would of missed out'*
>
> *P6: 'Don't give me a role-emerging placement.. at the time when you were giving them out.. I'd of said no thanks… I knew there were some role emerging placements coming up and I thought oh gosh it's gonna be me.. could of really panicked.. I thought am I up to this'*

Similarly participants perceived that other students would also lack the confidence to opt for a role-emerging placement preferring the comfort zone of safer, less daunting placement experiences.

> *P1: 'if you offered it up like a list on the wall and said these are coming up who wants to go for it .. you might have some people thinking they can't do it'*
>
> *P4: 'may be some people would qualify and not ever feel comfortable doin a role-emerging role… I guess people choose what they're comfortable with.. not throwing themselves into a completely different environment'*
>
> *P5: 'Don't think any of us fancied it.. really would be rather in a more traditional one'*
>
> *P6: 'if its taken out of our hands.. its probably a good thing.. I could think of a whole load of students that would say no..*

because you're not always the best judge of yourself.. a lot of us are gunna sit in a more comfortable position'

Participants on hearing where they were placed through compulsory allocation had a sense of *fait accompli* and were resigned to the experience they faced no matter how daunted they felt. They used this initial negative and were able to turn it into a positive as a rationalisation to come to terms with the inevitable situation they found themselves in.

P1: 'the fact you gave me.. as a sort of fait accompli.. I can't really argue.. may be you need that push sometime'

P3: 'I never thought I'd go on a role emerging.. I don't want to be doin but I didn't have a choice but looking back'

P5: 'I suppose you picked me because I wouldn't complain about it.. just go off and do it.. I've always completed whatever the task is.. gain something confidence wise'

P6: '… I don't think I would have been the best person to make that decision for myself.. so I was glad that decision was made for me… it was most flatterin and a confidence boost thinkin you saw something in me'

The data indicates the allocated setting and area of practice was influential in how the students dealt with the compulsory allocation into a role-emerging placement, again drawing upon this as a positive and rationale to help in coming to terms with their allocation.

Students are asked to express any areas of practice, which are of interest on commencement of the programme. If opportunities arise to match a student to a desired setting the allocation process accommodates this where appropriate. Although the allocation is compulsory this offers an element of choice underpinning the selection and promotes positive perceptions for the student.

P1: 'Very interested in the sector that it was in.. so I was really excited.. such a tempting area of work so I thought I'd give it a go.. it it had been a role-emerging in an area I'm not interested in I would have been terrified.. it was like it almost balanced it out and I thought I might be able to pull this off'

P4: 'it was balanced up.. positive thoughts becos the .. unit was somewhere I did actually want as a a placement after we had a guest speaker last year'

P5: 'When I heard it was XXXX I was quite excited.. its an interesting place'

In terms of choice of placement one participant believed that the opportunity to choose a role-emerging placement would be good for all students believing that this allows for developing confidence and personal growth. The chance to choose a placement can make or break it according to participant 2 and this response may reflect that the student had expressed an interest in the area of practice beforehand, as had participant 1. P6 reiterates there is 'a balance in making that student go into that placement versus giving them a choice and them saying its not for me'. However, for the student who says no to a placement 'may actually be the best thing that's happened to them' (P6). In contrast the element of choice was deemed by participants to result in a potential negative experience and outcome for some students and would be setting students up to fail.

P1: 'I think some of them.. they might either fail whereas in a structured environment they can.. they can cope because they watch others, they learn and they copy'

P3: 'No I don't think they should.. I think it would be detrimental to some to be on that particular placement'

P6: 'I think some students would find it more difficult to cope and might not have the determination or may have a negative experience and lose confidence.. so could be very destructive without resilience.. personalities could crumble a little.. rather than having that hands on educator.. I don't think it would be for everybody'

In contrast, several participants expressed a view that regardless of the type of placement, practitioners are expected to deal with the challenges of work in healthcare so why should they not be exposed to this during their training

P2: 'At the end of the day when you qualify you're an independent practitioner and for me a role-emerging placement gave me the confidence to be an independent practitioner whilst I still had my hand held a little bit'

P3: 'I can see havin difficulty with it but then at the same time if we're all gonna qualify and become therapists you would like to hope people would have developed those skills because people are gonna have to go out in the field themselves and do similar things so do think its beneficial to everybody'

> *P6: 'Those are all things that any OT is gonna have to do in practice anyway.. lot of us are gonna sit in a more comfortable position but that isn't the reality of the working lives we're gonna into is it?..we're gonna have to be resilient, pretty assertive and pretty confident of our professional identity'*

Participants also view all placements, regardless of whether traditional or role-emerging, as stressful and necessary to get through to achieve the outcome for academic progress. Students also envisage placement as merely a stepping stone to qualification and a means to an end; striving to just achieve a pass and not being particularly concerned about where they are placed.

> *P2: 'we just see it as a placement… people are stressed in a placement and just want to get it done and don't care what it is.. just want to pass it.. not bothered about what that opportunity is'*

Being resigned and stoic indicates a determination and resilience as a requisite for all students not just those on role-emerging placements. Participant 3 expressed that all placements are 'of value' and that her approach to previous placements was similar drawing upon her work ethic and strengths in much the same way suggesting lack of differentiation between types of experiences.

Furthermore, according to the findings, students who were selected to role-emerging placements were not viewed as being favoured by their peers resulting in inequity amongst a cohort. Participant 1 stated 'I have never heard anyone complain about not having a role-emerging placement.. nobodys ever said why do you get that and I didn't'.

7.3.1.3 Sub-Theme 1: 3 Stage of Training

Participants were asked if the timing of role-emerging placements within the programme of study was deemed appropriate given the challenging nature of this type of experience. Those students who undertook their placement in the final year (P1, P2, P3) were all of the opinion that this was the optimum time for their stage of training and had some doubt over completing such a placement earlier. All 3 participants were of the opinion that in second year greater support would be required and that confidence to work, as an autonomous practitioner would be more firmly embedded in the final placement.

P1: 'I'm strongly in favour of it being the last placement.. because of the freedom..this one is like your first job and you're running with it in your own way'

P2: 'I think as a final placement it's a good one to do'

P3: 'I'm not sure about doin it in the second year.. I don't think I'd have been confident in my second year.. explaining to other people what the role was I still wouldn't feel I could clearly articulate it'

In contrast, participants 4, 5 and 6 stated that they valued their placement in second year as it provided a mode to accelerate development and to prepare them for final year, their final placement and becoming a graduate practitioner.

P4: 'it was good for me where it was.. its helped me develop a lot as a whole and its definitely prepared me more for my last placement'

P6: 'I think it was absolutely perfect because you've had two placements.. got experience under your belt.. make my final placement even better because I've got additional skills and resilience.. I've had that taste of autonomy and standin a bit taller in terms of my professional identity.. so its perfect'

All participants indicated that role-emerging placements would not be appropriate for first year students as a greater need for support and guidance is required. These earlier placements are where students begin to develop professionalism and understanding of occupational therapy essential for development into an autonomous practitioner.

7.3.2 Theme 2: Expectations

7.3.2.1 Sub-Theme 2: 1 Anticipation of Placement Experience

Participants sought opinions of students who had previously had a role-emerging placement on being informed of their allocation. This influenced their perception of the forthcoming placement in both positive and negative ways.

P1 'I was quite nervous of it because of things other students had said about their role-emerging and once people started coming

back from role emerging it almost made it worse to hear of the difficulties they had'

P3: 'I started to speak to someone who'd been there.. and that didn't reassure me much'

P5: 'Of the third years I spoke to about role-emerging and he said it was great'

Participants had formed preconceptions of the anticipated placement that helped them to prepare themselves, embed realistic expectations and rationalise their pending experience. This preparing for the worst was evident with a lowering of expectation; P1 stating 'I was maybe prepared for things just not working out as well.. it wasn't going to be miracles.. it was just that, not to expect miracles' and P3 'this is gonna be my final placement.. how could an OT possibly work here.. I won't be able to do it.. a waste of time but then I learnt loads'. Students anticipated other facets of their placement that they would not ordinarily expect in a traditional setting. These include the expectation of negativity and unwelcoming staff in the setting. There was also the anticipated need to repeatedly articulate the role of occupational therapy and justification of the value of occupation. Participants were apprehensive of the unknown as it could be the first time a student has been placed into the setting.

P2: 'it was the first school one.. so no one really knew.. didn't know what to expect.. just wondering what was gonna be expected of me'

P3: 'the unknown I think.. I just thought who's gonna be my supervisor?.. how's it gonna work? How am I gonna show what I'm doing? I hadn't heard of that particular setting'

Students felt more daunted by the prospect of a role-emerging placement and experienced a sense of forging the way with the need to deal with greater challenges that they would not usually expect to face in a traditional placement.

7.3.2.2 Sub-Theme 2: 2 Impact of the Setting

All participants reported experiencing a resistance to change within their placement setting bringing a sense of frustration and powerlessness for the students.

P3: 'I felt quite frustrated quite a lot of the time.. what I was saying.. quite easy things that you could change.. they weren't big things but I was constantly'

P4: 'there was a lot of barriers in that environment.. I was constantly goin up against it all.. they are quite happy to carry on doin what they've always done in that way.. I think people can be quite reluctant and change is scary for a lot of people.. there was definitely a barrier there'

P5: 'because of the hierarchy there I think its quite a slow pace to change.. its not goin to change overnight.. there was a resistance to change there.. weren't necessarily that acceptin of change'

Findings indicate the staff in the placement setting generated negativity and were perceived to be threatened by the presence of the student, culminating in defensiveness and protection of the services they provided.

P1: 'people can become a bit defensive and then not share the knowledge or not facilitate you meeting the service users.. it's quite a delicate balance'

P3: 'I think some of the staff there were quite negative about me being there to begin with.. you know.. who do you think you are'

P5: 'When we first started there were a few comments.. you're just checkin we're doin our jobs properly.. they were very proud of what they did there so they were quite defensive of what they did and didn't like to be told they were'

As a consequence the students felt an overwhelming sense of the 'huge challenge in winning staff over ' (P2) if they were to make a success of the placement and achieve the required outcomes. Participants were mindful of the impact of being in their environment and the dynamics of fitting in with the team by not 'treading on toes' (P2). Findings indicate the need for the students to 'gain trust' (P1) and 'build relationships before you can change ways of working' (P5). This helped relinquish the 'feeling of being a burden' (P2) and being uncomfortable which participants reported they experienced.

P2: 'Checking everything was ok.. double checking with the whole staff it was.. towards the end we felt part of the team but again didn't want to upset that balance'

P4: "A big challenge was getting people to understand what it was we were there to do…there was a lot of different dynamics already goin on within the team.. so havin to fit within that'

P5: ‘You don’t want to come across as critical.. it’s more how we can compliment and work together.. little changes.. they’d warmed to us by the end and accepted havin us there’

In being placed in a role-emerging setting the participants conveyed the impact of cultural differences of the staff and services to that of other environments where occupational therapy is an established role. This cultural difference seemingly contributed to the barriers the students experienced including the reluctance for change and the need to win staff over.

P3: ‘The culture was quite sort of helpin and doin to and whatever I suggested.. we haven’t got time for that but they clearly did.. think I should have challenged it more but obviously that was the culture’

P6: ‘to become part of the culture you needed those skills.. sharing to a point the banter.. the culture of the service itself but knowing where your professional boundaries were’

Furthermore, the participants reported that differences in accountability and governance as a facet to the culture of the setting added to the challenges students faced in practice and in embedding the occupational therapy role. Student practitioners are used to adherence to stringent policies and procedures alongside professional standards and ethical conduct within healthcare organisations. Participants had to adjust to differences in how services were administered and governed: ‘there was no admin, no paperwork, not too much risk assessment.. things that I’m used to … I found that quite different havin worked in professional settings (P3). This student was unable to work with service users by themselves so as a consequence limited the scope of practice. In contrast P6 stated:

‘Student nurses.. weren’t actually able to do much.. not able to leave the premises with clients.. whereas we did have that freedom.. that made a difference to what we could do.. so they saw a value of us bein hands on’

Limited resources and environmental barriers within the placement settings impacted upon the experience creating further challenges for the students both in terms of embedding the occupational therapy role and support mechanisms.
Profession-specific resource folders, typically available for students in traditional placement settings provide core information. A lack of such a resource was reported

in the role-emerging setting and all participants adjusted their practice to overcome environmental limitations. P4 and P6 reported:-

> *P4: 'tryin to facilitate groups was quite restricting.. barriers for disabilities within the unit.. there wasn't any access for people in wheelchairs and I didn't wanna exclude people'*
>
> *P6: 'there was just one office.. where everything happened.. so if we did need to do some report writing.. it wasn't the place.. we never made a fuss we just knew we'd go and find a quiet place .. so that was a bit of a challenge'*

In the quest to succeed in the placement students found the need for creativity and resourcefulness in their practice to overcome limitations. Participant 6 states 'we didn't wanna take advantage so we did quite a lot at home.. beg, borrow and steal for the groups that we did.. it wasn't particularly costly but there was no way there so you did have to'.

Finally, the setting itself and the client group it supported brought further challenges particularly evident for the students and their endeavours to embed a new role. Unfamiliarity of occupational therapy, by not only the staff but also the service users, created challenges for the students to facilitate engagement at all levels.

> *P1: 'we'd had a lot of warnings that the XXXX were difficult to reach.. to take things slowly.. we took that advice and it worked out ok.. a lot better than I expected'*
>
> *P4: 'the environment itself is quite challenging for anyone working there.. the client mix .. it could be a barrier itself just tryin to get that interaction with the service users'*

This sub-theme has explored the impact of the barriers and challenges imposed on the student experience by the setting itself including the resistance to change and cultural differences.

7.3.2.3 Sub-Theme 2: 3 Influencing Change

Role-emerging placements offer students opportunities to embed a new service and alternative approach to interventions with the service users. As discussed in the sub-theme 2:2 all participants experienced resistance and challenges to facilitate this. Prior to placement students are prepared to be realistic in their expectations of

what can be achieved in the time available. The participants were able to reflect on the placement outcome and their ability to influence change in their setting:-

> *P4: 'you have to take the really small things that really seem like a small achievement as quite a big thing..I had to keep looking back when we first started and no one had an idea of what we did.. as the placement had gone on members of staff slowly getting involved.. the little achievements had to start seeing actually as quite big.. it was crying out for occupational therapy.. just to have little impacts on the service users.. one of the key aspects'*

> *P5: 'we didn't change the service massively but we changed little bits in the way they..what they were lookin for when they went out on visits and what they would refer…. That you are able to identify areas that perhaps do need to be changed and go about it in a non critical manner'*

> *P6: 'there's no real limit on how far you can go with this… you could try and sometimes… I think we felt we were trying to prove too much.. we wanted to have tangible success with everyone we worked with … and at some levels we did'*

To influence change within the setting the participants set out their ambitions and goals of the placement stating the need to 'take it seriously and wanting to make an impact' (P1). The desire to embed occupation was the main goal for P3 acknowledging 'it will be hard.. I'm just gonna be excited', also reflected by P5 reporting 'keepin the focus there and not forgettin that.. toughin it out with a goal in mind'. Participant 6 very explicitly wanted 'to prove that there's a role for ot'. Whilst setting out ambitions the participants equally acknowledged that realism meant adapting these at times to lower expectations alleviating the potential for disappointment.

All participants were restricted to a set number of weeks on placement, either 8 or 12, as a block of time, so understood the need to be realistic with their achievements in the timescales. Participant 1 recognised that 3 months is a short period of time and that it was not 'going to be miracles', as also reflected by participant 6 that 'expectations were higher than realistic .. given it was only 8 weeks with a lot less likely to possibly benefit from OT in a short space of time'. Effective use of time and the importance of pace was reported as students felt under pressure to perform and achieve. Participant 3 consciously

'had to chill out.. I think I need to be busy all the time.. then I thought I just had to let it go.. just sit and spend time talking to people and getting to know them.. I was thinkin this is a waste of time but then I learnt loads'

This theme explores the expectations and challenges placed upon students and their impact in undertaking role-emerging placements. The student narratives indicate how they dealt with these challenges through the use of strategies and adapting their approach.

7.3.3 Theme 3: Determining Traits, Aptitude and Attributes

This dominant theme explores the characteristics, aptitude and attributes that have emerged from the data alongside the determinants of resilience and hardiness and how these reflect in or are perceived by the students in role-emerging placements.

All participants identified a range of traits and attributes that they perceived to be a requisite for any student undertaking a role-emerging placement. The intuitive nature of individuals and difficulty in teaching skills (P4) suggests inherent characteristics and personality traits being key to the allocation process (P2, P4) and 'depends on personal qualities' (P3).

7.3.3.1 Sub-Theme 3: 1 Identified Traits and Attributes

Adaptability is an ability to be flexible and amend behaviour and approaches to practice to bring about a positive change and outcome. All participants demonstrated this characteristic and attribute as a means of overcoming the challenges and demands placed upon them in a role-emerging setting.

P4: 'I guess presenting yourself differently to different individuals as well or the same but just havin different approaches I guess with people and bein adaptable.. the skills to actually work within the service work with other professionals, be adaptive to it'

P5: 'there's always ways that you can fix things so it was just trying different ways of approaching it and different ways of doin things'

Participants described the need to be 'flexible, willing to change and fit in with the team' (P5) given the expectations of the service and what they wanted from having an occupational therapy student. There was an element of just 'getting on with it and making a situation work' (P6).

The findings indicate all 6 students perceive themselves as assertive and how this trait was important in role-emerging placements to get their point across. The skill of articulating ideas to others throughout the experience was reported by participant 1. Participant 4 suggested that without assertiveness the consequence could be getting 'lost', being pulled into the general routine and 'care' role rather than developing an occupational therapy role. Participant 5 reflected on 'not being the loudest of people but able to get the point across and direct a situation'.

> *P3: 'role emerging could go either way.. its difficult.. it could develop your assertive skills or it could be quite traumatic.. I think going there I was quite confident.. quite resilient.. quite assertive'*
>
> *P4: 'think somebody needs to be quite open minded.. have that independence.. and be quite assertive.. you needed to be quite assertive and sure of yourself'*

In selecting students to role-emerging placements participant 6 concurs with the other students stating 'I think they need a level of assertiveness.. you do need to be able to hold your own' and acknowledges these skills are a requisite for the reality of practice.

Being autonomous and the ability to be independent was deemed an essential attribute necessary for a role-emerging placement. Where typically an on-site educator supervises a student, in role-emerging placements this is not the case so students have to take responsibility for their own practice. Participants were of the opinion that not all students would have the ability to work autonomously requiring greater levels of supervision or are in contrast sufficiently confident to be able to cope with this requirement. Support mechanisms are explored further in Theme 7.

> *P2: 'if there's some one who's feeling independent and happy to work autonomously then I'm all for it but if someone likes to be a bit more supervised I'd be a bit wary'*
>
> *P3: 'I was definitely my own boss.. you can't expect anyone else to tell you right this is what your gonna be doing today.. you have*

to create your own learning opportunities and you have no one to model'

P4: 'you had to kind of.. take on that role yourself a bit more.. rather than just sit back and watch somebody'

Role-emerging placements are typically in diverse settings that require a greater degree of creativity and innovative practice. Students recognised the need to bring entrepreneurship to their placement some achieving this more naturally than others. Participant 3 did not consider themselves innovative and was less comfortable with this pressure being placed upon them 'I'm not particularly good at developing new things' or 'got the head space to be entrepreneurial'. However, participant 4 stated 'it does help to be a bit more of a creative thinker' indicating a benefit to having this. Problem solving skills go hand in hand with creativity which participant 5 highlighted are necessary with the need to 'find your own ways.. good problem solving.. you have to find your own way of doin things'.

Determination, self-efficacy and self-belief emerged strongly from the data with all participants denoting these were essential strengths or attributes to draw on. Self-efficacy is the belief system held by the student regarding their ability to influence situations, choices made and the power held to face challenges leading to successful outcomes. Phrases including 'being able to pull it off and just get on with it' (P1) and "I had to act, had to make decisions and make it happen' (P4).

P1: 'In role-emerging because there's no one watching you.. you get to try again and it might work.. you keep practising til you get it right'

P3: 'I know I work hard so I knew I'd be committed to whatever placement it was.. I've got a real work ethic that placement's an opportunity not to be wasted'

P4: 'I can be quite.. quite determined when I've got something to achieve.. I can be quite motivated and keep myself going'

Self-belief suggests a level of self-confidence as a positive attribute for role-emerging placements deemed by participants as fundamental. However, students swung between self-doubt and self-belief suggesting confidence levels fluctuated throughout the placement.

P2: 'I tell myself I'm rubbish at everything.. like what are you doing.. I don't think I ever felt overly confident.. confidence grew as the placement went'

P3: 'I think my confidence went all the way down sometimes and then all the way up.. I put myself down quite a lot.. I think I'm not very creative'

P6: 'Because of self-doubt of my abilities. ..didn't think I was equipped with enough experience.. I was always worried I was gonna say the wrong thing.. do the wrong thing'

Several students were also doubtful to have been selected for a role-emerging placement and vocalised surprise at being deemed capable or worthy of such an experience.

P1: 'I'm a little astonished that you thought I could do this'

P6: 'I could've really panicked because I thought.. am I up to this?'

This mirrors the responses by the same students preferring to not opt for a role-emerging placement given a choice in Theme 1.

P1: 'It doesn't come naturally.. why d'you not have more confidence you've done really well.. I just have to keep being that voice to myself'

P3: 'sometimes I thought what am I doing here.. I won't be able to do it… the more I read the more I thought well I'm quite confident really about my role is here so its quite easy to articulate'

The placement experience itself reinforced self-belief as participants were able to reflect back on their success with increased confidence. Participant 1 saw this as evidence to draw on that 'even when you can't do something you probably can' and 'something I can shout about because I did it myself'. Participant 2 and 6 viewed this as 'blowin your own trumpet' and a feeling of being 'proud of what was achieved' (P6).

Demonstrating aptitude through diligence and conscientiousness suggests commitment to the placement with participants reporting 'taking it seriously' and 'knowing in your gut you've done the best job' (P1). Participant 2 talked of being trusted to manage time, not needing constant supervision and checking out the

setting were happy with what they were doing whilst on placement. This was reflected as ‘an awareness of what you’re doing, what other people are doing and what you’re thinking’. This was reiterated by participant 5 that in the absence of an educator on site to monitor performance there was a need to get on with work and behave in a professional way.. I am that type of person.. I would do that’.

> *P3: ‘I have to do well.. I have to be viewed positively by other people.. view placement as an opportunity not to be wasted’*
>
> *P5: ‘Wouldn’t like to do half a job and then leave… I’ve always completed whatever task it is’*
>
> *P6: ‘we worked our socks off and they could see that.. so our work ethic was definitely appreciated… you trusted my ability to get on with the job.. very very focused.. keepin very very busy and doin an awful lot.. we wanted to have tangible success with everyone we worked with’*

An individual being dependable and reliable underpins the trait of conscientiousness and being entrusted to optimise the placement experience. Participants recognised those traits, which afforded to being of the most suitable aptitude for being placed in a role-emerging placement.

> *P4: ‘I might come across as actually being able to be left in the situation.. to kind’ve just get on with something and not need that.. too much guidance’*
>
> *P5: ‘Its quite a lot of responsibility.. you need to decide who would stick it out.. do it properly’*
>
> *P6: ‘to prove that there was a need for OT there.. and I felt this weight of responsibility.. maybe you trusted my ability to get on with the job.. I know I didn’t need my hand holdin and could all that we’ve learnt to show how OT can help .. so that’s important to leave a good impression about the profession and what we do’*

Diplomacy is a skill for handling difficult situations and findings reflect that all participants drew on this to deal with the challenging situations they faced on placement. Being tactful and insightful is expected of student practitioners as they develop professionalism. Participants describe ‘a delicate balance’ (P1) and the need for ‘winning staff over’ (P2) and ‘we never made a fuss, we just knew’ (P6) to optimise the placement purpose and outcome. Being diplomatic demands intuitive sensitivity and self-awareness.

P2: a big balance of traits in your personality.. if you're gonna go in there all guns blazin.. then its not going to be successful.. I had to be wary of that.. we were in their environment.. we were treading on their toes.. we were disturbing their day.. so we had to make sure we were respectful.. that they were happy for us to do it' … 'it didn't tip over confident approach arrogant stance of we're the OT's.. we know what we're doing.. it always worked in cooperation'

> *P4: 'you're not gonna.. straight away get peoples backs up I guess.. and that'd be quite easy to do.. its havin that balance isn't it.. knowing people.. it could be quite dangerous to put some people'*
>
> *P5: 'you don't want to come across as critical.. we can do it better.. its more how we can compliment and work together… I'm certainly not you know an all guns blazin type of person.. .. being diplomatic.. working in a team.. it wouldn't suit every type of person'*
>
> *P6: 'We had to gently work around that.. Being quite diplomatic, insightful, thoughtful.. knowin where your place was.. we didn't want to go in with too many big ideas too soon'*

Being insightful not only links to the ability to read a situation and react accordingly but is a reflective skill where students can judge their own performance, strengths and weaknesses. One student stated 'a lot of it is held in your head about your own expectations of your performance (P1). Participants highlighted their own personal attributes and characteristics that impacted on the placement experience.

> *P2: 'I would have really struggled without the other student with me'*
>
> *P3: 'I did ok in the role-emerging but it didn't sit easy'*
>
> *P5: 'I think I am reflective.. I like to see what's gone well and what hasn't.. I think I'm quite diplomatic'*
>
> *P6: 'I felt I needed more rigid support but I was wrong'*

In theme 1 the element of choice in selecting a role-emerging placement was explored. This links explicitly to intrinsic motivation and what are the internal rewards that result in satisfaction and enjoyment and how a student approached or perceived their placement. Participants described the desire they felt generating positive feelings to motivate them.

P1: 'the tempter of it being in the sector that I was interested in.. Those were the areas I'm passionate about, interested in so the reading up of that was interesting and a pleasure and curiosity.. it wasn't a chore you know'

P2: 'It was something I really wanted to do.. get my teeth into.. it really gave me a big buzz.. its definitely given me that that's what I want to do.. its given me motivation'

P3: 'I think you need to be self motivated.. really focused.. I love researching things so that was a good quality to have on role-emerging'

Role-emerging placements are often unique experiences and fundamentally different to traditional placements in healthcare settings. Regardless of having a degree of choice or compulsory allocation, several participants disclosed findings that indicate openness to the experience. Students talked of ' grabbing the opportunity.. to develop skills, be on my own.. prove to myself that I can be a practitioner (P2).

P2: 'if you're confident.. if you're independent and got the skills then why not?..... if someone gets that opportunity and don't give it a second thought'

P4: 'Knowing I can do this.. rather than being completely daunted by it.. being quite open minded.. it would be challenging but I think you get a lot out'

In contrast several participants were lacking openness to this type of experience and expressed 'don't give me a role-emerging placement' (P6) or that 'I don't think any of us fancied it really.. would rather be in a traditional setting' (P5).

The placement itself was also a vehicle for opening up a student's perspective on future practice or cemented their view on a preference for practice in conventional healthcare settings.

P1: 'there's a bit inside of me that's been woken up by the role-emerging to think there's a lot more scope'

P3: 'I prefer traditional settings.. I really wouldn't want like that sort of setting .. not now.. maybe when I know what I'm doin'

Findings indicated students revealed the trait of optimism or hope and the ability to turn a negative into a positive. Those expressing interest in the area of practice allowed the participants to turn initial concern and anxiety into a positive which also reflects a form of coping strategy also discussed in sub-theme 1:2. Participant 1 reported the daunting nature of the placement but rationalised this because it was a tempting area of work. Participant 2 concurs by describing the challenges 'but to be honest every time I think of placement I can't really think of any negatives'.

> *P3: 'initial gut reaction.. but then I got excited about the sort of place it was.. speaking to someone who'd been there.. didn't reassure me much.. but then on the other hand I was quite excited about not havin the constraints of a normal placement'*

> *P3: 'Even if there's negative things that have happened they've all been a learning experience really'*

> *P4: 'it was balanced up.. positive thoughts.. the unit was somewhere I did actually want as a placement'*

7.3.3.2 Sub-Theme 3: 2 Resilience

All participants viewed themselves as resilient and deemed this as a vital attribute to cope with the challenges of a role-emerging placement.

Participant 1 held the opinion that all students are inherently resilient by the very process of applying and studying on the programme talking of these as 'hurdles that test you'. Participant 2 reported developing resilience through the course and placement believing it has 'given me something.. bit of an edge'. Participant 6 reports that 'we embraced it and lived it.. survived the challenges and have grown so much because of it'.

> *P1: 'There is still a part of me that likes a challenge and see what I can achieve even if it terrorises me… I carried on the course after those troubles.. that you thought she picks herself up and carries on'*

> *P3: 'I definitely went through a journey.. I was thinking what am I doing here.. this is awful.. quite tearful some days but got through it.. it was difficult.. some of the staff were quite negative about me bein there.. who do you think you are.. you had to have quite thick skin and quite resilient to carry on'*

> *P4: 'I do think it would be quite a difficult placement for someone who wasn't (resilient).. I might come across of being able to be left in that situation.. I guess that's resilience.. kind of just get on'*

Participants reflected on how previous experiences and challenges where they have faced adversity help to shape and determine their resilience allowing them to cope with their placement.

> *P2: 'I've learnt the hard way.. even in adversity.. when you've got pressures.. you've just got to keep plugging away and keep going.. you saw something in me.. resilience…. Life experience gives you the confidence.. gives you that bit of grit.. bit of resilience for new experiences'*

> *P6: 'You've got to find that resilience to cope.. I've dealt with challenges .. had quite a few failures in my life and come out the other side as a stronger person.. they shape you.. its about being able to endure something for the time you are immersed in it no matter how difficult or challengin'*

Participants held the opinion that not all peer students demonstrate resilience and would struggle in a challenging placement environment.

> *P4: 'the set of skills it would take.. can't be completely taught to somebody so even in third year.. this would be them.. their personality's not really that resilient'*

> *P6: 'I think some students would find it more difficult to cope and might not have the determination or may have a negative experience and lose confidence.. so could be very destructive without resilience'*

Age, maturity and life experience were deemed by participants to be factors that help to build resilience and helping them to deal with the challenges they faced on placement. There were beliefs expressed that 'maturity' was a reason for being selected to a role-emerging experience (P1) and that 'some students may struggle if not as mature' (P6). Equally life experience and 'the stuff that goes on forces you to cope.. a resource and its instinctively me.. the things life experiences has given me' (P6) suggests facing adversity builds resilience recognised as being pivotal to coping in stressful circumstances.

7.3.4 Theme 4: Highs and Lows: Impact of the placement on the student

7.3.4.1 Sub-Theme 4: 1 Autonomy and Freedom in Practice

All participants reflected on the level of autonomy they experienced on placement with this being far greater in comparison to a traditional placement. The freedom to explore the scope of practice and ability to make decisions independently was deemed to be of value but also could be quite overwhelming in how to contain ideas given the reality faced with limited time and resources.

> *P1: 'there doesn't seem to be much leeway on a standard placement whereas everything we suggested was ok in this one .. a lot of freedom.. its like where do you begin with this .. its massive and can go whichever way you want'*
>
> *P3: 'I was quite excited about not havin the constraints of a normal placement'*
>
> *P4: 'it might not have been as easy as just asking an educator but it definitely makes you more autonomous'*

Participant 6 reported the placement to be 'the ultimate autonomous experience' and had the confidence to 'know I didn't need my hand holding and could use all that we've learnt' perceiving this to be a 'selling point' and benefit for becoming a graduate practitioner.

In contrast to valuing autonomy, participants recognised that a structured environment brought reassurance and would therefore suit some students to be in a traditional placement opposed to a role –emerging setting. Participant 3 reports to be 'quite apprehensive.. I quite like structure and something to follow' and participant 6 feeling the 'need for boundaries and more rigid support'.

> *P1: 'they might either fail whereas in a more structured environment they can cope because they watch others and they learn and copy'*
>
> *P6: 'people benefit more from that direct guidance of those structured placements ..it could knock their confidence rather than havin that.. more supportive hands on educator they might get a lot more.. don't think it would be for everybody'*

Findings suggest this need for a role model through an on-site educator to guide students and for the participants, without this was quite challenging and pushed them out of their 'comfort zone' (P3). There was an anxiety in not having a clinician for reassurance or to learn from and having to take on the role with autonomy. Equally the students were apprehensive over a lack of specialist knowledge and skills being placed in new environments where they were expected to be autonomous in their practice adding to the challenges they faced.

> *P2: 'I think knowledge was low at the beginning.. new area.. thinking what d'you do with children'*
>
> *P6: 'I didn't have mental health experience.. but of trepidation around that'*

For those with previous experience in working in similar services such as mental health found this to be advantageous and facilitated a greater degree of comfort with the client group.

7.4.3.2 Sub-Theme 4: 2 Impact of Facing Adversity: Roller Coaster

This sub-theme explores the specific challenges the students faced in their role-emerging placement and the impact these had on their emotions. Findings indicate the nature of a role-emerging placement as being that of a roller coaster supporting the notion that students face many challenges in these experiences. Participant 1 reflects on the placement having 'ups and downs' and how on some days feelings of being 'on a high' (P2).

> *P4: 'there were some days even though overall I had done well and felt it was beneficial.. there were some days I really (emphasis) struggled'*
>
> *P6: 'on some days I was havin a good day.. and XXXX (student) was able to share in that or it had a ripple effect.. on my own would've been more dips'*

Immersion in the unknown and a sense of being 'in at the deep end' was evident by participants feeling out of their comfort zone both in terms of anticipation of the experience and dealing with the challenges as they emerged in the placement. Participant 4 reports feeling a 'bit daunted cos you're not sure what to expect' and

being ‘unsure how it will pan out in keepin it occupational’ and participant 6 of being ‘out of control with an unknown journey’.

> *P2: ‘wondering what was gonna be expected of me.. that was a big part but yeh.. the excitement of it.. really exciting to be part of it’*
>
> *P3: ‘I felt out of my comfort zone thinking there’s no there’*
>
> *P5: ‘bein’ out of my comfort zone I think.. which isn’t nice..I didn’t like it.. it felt a bit uncomfortable’*

Participants conveyed the mixed emotions experienced as a consequence of their placement.. these ranged from a sense of enjoyment (P1) and to that of being excited often mixed with feelings of apprehension, nervousness and being daunted (P1, P3, P5). Participant 1 reported to ‘feel the fear, like a challenge even if it terrorises me’. Role-emerging placements created feelings of being under greater stress particularly at a time when peers are busy with their own placements so the support mechanisms were not readily there to draw upon. Participant 3 found the experience to be exhausting and at times frustrating given the demands placed on her. This was also reiterated by participant 6:-

> *‘we achieved a lot but we were pretty exhausted by the end... absolutely frazzled.. it was exhaustin because of the nature of it’*

The expectation placed on the students by both the setting and themselves was felt as ‘100% pressure’ (P4) throughout the placement as a ‘weight of responsibility and a need to prove a successful outcome’ (P6).

7.4.3.3 Sub-Theme 4: 3 Positive Impact: Personal Growth

Findings suggest that the role-emerging placements facilitated personal growth for the participants. The positive impact experienced was evident for all six students. The sense of having been through a ‘journey’ was clear within the data.

> *P2: ‘developed who I was as a person… both personally and professionally’*

P6: 'It was lovely at the end of the journey to look back and realise that you'd created.. started to see the therapist that you.. are basing yourself on'

All participants articulated viewing the placement as a positive experience. Participant 6 was appreciative stating:-

'It can only be a positive experience.. it went well.. it's something now we're very very proud of and grateful for.. thank you.. it was really really positive'

For others it was a vehicle for confirming career choice giving them 'a path for the future' (P2) and it 'gives you reassurance that you are doin the right course' (P4). All six students recounted the value of their placement in developing confidence and preparing them for becoming a graduate practitioner.

P2: 'it gave me a big buzz.. a confidence boost..I felt like an OT at the end.. it gave me the confidence for finding a job'

P4: 'I think it had an impact on me personally as well as in terms of confidence.. without the placement I might not of felt the same without bein given this opportunity'

P5: 'it did me wonders to be honest.. for confidence being put out of your comfort zone.. has been the best thing for me'

The role–emerging experience was reflected as being a 'transformative' in nature and pivotal in changing perceptions of students with participant 3 stating 'it finally clicked' and that 'this placement has really helped me understand the use of occupation like never before and absolutely 100% its transformed me' (P6).

P4: 'it's a completely different experience.. I got a lot more out of this placement than I have any others'

P5: 'I think that's probably one of the biggest things I learnt from placement.. yeh.. occupation'

The participant's valued positive feedback they received in terms of their own performance and the placement outcome and articulated a sense of pride in their achievements.

P2: ‘we got told on the placement that we had the right personalities to fit in.. that was really nice to hear’

P2: ‘the difference we made.. the feedback we got.. hearing after the placement what a difference its done’

P6: ‘we’re still talking and digesting what we did achieve .. It doesn’t seem real.. gosh yeh we did that.. we’re quite proud of that’

7.3.5 Theme 5: Creating Legacy

Theme 5 presents the qualitative data that emerged from the analysis exploring the legacy that is left as both a negative and positive impact on all partners involved in placement provision.

7.3.5.1 Sub-Theme 5: 1 Negative legacy

There is a danger that a student may be unintentionally destructive within a role-emerging placement when the organisation perceives them negatively. Students with a ‘gung ho’ approach who lack the attributes such as diplomacy, diligence and reliability can be detrimental to the placement experience and outcome. A lack of professionalism and competence, not only has the potential to reflect poorly on the student but also damage the profession more broadly. In turn this can act as a barrier to further placements, as the setting may be reluctant to embrace students again. Participant 5 talked of not ‘burning bridges with partners’. All participants recognised the risk of this if the student lacks appropriate attributes, aptitude and professionalism or fails to articulate the value of occupational therapy. The importance of ‘not going in all guns blazing’ (P2), ‘getting peoples backs up’ (P4) or ‘causing friction’ (P5) was recognised.

P1: ‘if its not based on any foundation it could actually give a poor reputation to the profession because you have people gung-ho practicing something and they can’t actually justify why they are doing it’

P4: ‘if it’s the first time people are gonna have that interaction with OT as a discipline you want somebody who is gonna be professional’

P5: ‘you need to be professional in any setting.. praps more apparent in a role-emerging when they don’t know exactly what it is you do.. and you’re representing the profession’

P6: ‘professionalism.. getting that balance right.. I don’t think it goes down too well to go in and act like you know better’

Placing a student who fails to create the ‘right impression’ (P4) also brings a risk of it reflecting negatively on the University. Participants indicated that as a student on placement you ‘are representing the profession and the University (P3, P5) so in sending ‘the wrong type of person could have a negative impact’ (P5) even to the extent of being ‘quite dangerous to put some people in’ (P4). Participant 5 suggests this negative impact could result in the organisation not taking any more students and losing a placement opportunity but for her ‘managers said that.. yeh.. open to other students coming in’.

7.3.5.2 Sub-Theme 5: 2 Positive Legacy

In theme 4 the positive impact of role-emerging experiences on the student was determined. In this sub-theme the positive legacy on the organisation is explored from the students’ perspective.

P4: ‘after those students have gone away you want them to be left of like a positive.. actual.. true representation of what the service was’

Participant 2 reported on the difference that was made to the confidence of the children they worked with as a ‘legacy that was left’ and that the interventions were still being implemented. Here the participants realised the value of their placement when they presented at a head teachers conference to inform other schools of what was achieved through occupational therapy. Participant 3 had the ‘opportunity to present to the board in recommending in how the centre could change’. These serve as tangible evidence of the positive impact and legacy.

The positive legacy on the staff was witnessed as students saw this through their involvement in the service delivery. Participant 4 talked of the impact being at ‘ground level with the health care staff’ but not having this recognised at managerial level so was uncertain of the long-term impact and sustainable changes.

P6: ‘we did have a positive impact on the clients.. we did make lots of attempts to make sure that could carry on after we went..

the service.. pretty sure it was genuine.. the company did talk about potentially seein the need for an OT'

The students are utilising these placements to embed an occupational therapy role so a measure of their success was recognised when the staff 'definitely had a greater understanding and they were referring things to us that they thought would be able to help that they wouldn't of considered before' (P5).

7.3.5.3 Sub-Theme 5: 3 Preparing For Practice

All participants were of the opinion that a role-emerging placement allows the student to embrace a role that is perceived as being comparable to that of a qualified practitioner. They expressed that 'it felt like a real role.. like a real life job situation' (P1) and 'I felt like an ot at the end of it' (P2). The experience developed a student's confidence to become 'an independent practitioner' (P2) and 'seeing the practitioner that hopefully will be coming' (P6).

P4: 'I've actually done more of.. the role I'm gonna be doing when I qualify'

The 'platform' of a role-emerging placement was perceived favourably for employability in terms of boosting confidence and 'singing my own praises' (P1) in interviews. Participant 6 believed the placement and being able to work autonomously was a 'selling point'. Participant 5 saw the immersion into a role-emerging setting and 'steep learning curve' as a valuable experience, which could be faced in future employment when job choice may expose you to a new area of practice. Participant 3 vocalised concern that a role-emerging experience as a final experience would 'disadvantage me by not bein out there when I'm lookin for jobs'. In reality it was deemed to be an advantage in securing a job as the student stated:-

'we prefer people who've been in diverse roles and have got that maturity..its what you brought from your role-emerging placement that's what we're interested in as an employer' (P3)

7.3.5.4 Sub-Theme 5: 4 Shaping Career Paths

Placements are often used as an excellent mode for networking and securing posts on qualification and these would typically be within healthcare settings in the NHS or social care where the majority of occupational therapists are employed. With diversity of health care services and delivery being met increasingly by the third sector as discussed in Chapter 2, opportunities are opening up for occupational therapists in charitable and independent organisations. However, in reality these may not be as desirable for a graduate practitioner perceived as having less structure, governance and pay comparable to traditional posts. Participants report their experience has 'inspired me to do something like third sector in.. maybe five or ten years' and being 'woken up and a lot more exciting.. after a few years in hospital I might want that freedom' (P1). For others the experience confirmed their preference for a traditional setting knowing that practice in the third sector wasn't 'personally for me' and preferring to work within a team of OT's rather than being a sole practitioner (P3).

> *P3: 'I really wouldn't want that sort of setting.. not now anyway.. maybe in ten years when I know what I'm doin'*
>
> *P4: 'I guess not everybody's goin into a career where they're gonna have to be so independent.. goin into an already established team and to be an ot working in those services'*
>
> *P6: 'hopefully this will have brought me a much broader vision… the third sector certainly wouldn't scare me and if an opportunity came up'*

Where the aim of a role-emerging placement is to establish an occupational therapy focus to compliment existing services, it can open up employment opportunities if the organisation sees the value it brings. One student reported this as a potential development that was being considered. However, this may not reflect the norm and participants realistically know the unlikelihood of an occupational therapy post being created despite them liking the area of practice.

> *P1: 'it would have been lovely to have a job and lots of these charities could benefit from that.. but whether they're willing to invest in that'*
>
> *P2: 'You might get a fantastic placement experience that you love but the actual opportunity to work in that area is never gonna happen… at the end of it the jobs not gonna be there'*

Whilst the participants did not envisage that the role-emerging placement would lead to a post they were of the opinion that these experiences broadened their thinking on potential employment.

> *P2: 'I've been quite lucky because I've had this experience which has shaped what I want to do.. scope for the future.. a sense of that's the path I wanna take'*
>
> *'I did learn stuff that I will take with me for future roles and I might not be so daunted now by applying for a job where I'm the only ot' (P5)*

7.3.5.5 Sub-Theme 5: 5 Shaping The Profession

As well as shaping the student as a practitioner, participants recognised that they have the power to shape the future of the occupational therapy profession more broadly. The paradigms that shift and change over time are moulded by the clinicians it serves and was seen as 'the natural process in any profession where you want change.. it does start with the students who are gonna be out there .. fresh blood' and 'being the next generation bringing in our experiences' (P6).

Role-emerging placements go hand in hand with the diversification agenda as the profession explores new areas of practice. However, findings indicate there is still a need for 'bread and butter' therapists (P2) and non-ground breaking OT's or non-entrepreneurial OT's.. the ones who churn out people through hospital like discharge planning and stuff' (P1)

> *P5: 'there's gonna be the roles opening up for OT's.. with the new act that's gonna increase the number of social enterprises and charities and lots of them are relevant'*

Entrepreneurship is deemed to be a requisite for the future of the profession and diversification into new areas of practice. The data findings indicate that students enjoyed the ability to be creative on role-emerging placements, this coming more naturally to some than others stating 'not being good at developing new things and being innovative' (P3) and it being helpful to be a 'creative thinker' (P4).

> *P2: 'to shape services you do need like an ot with that.. with that head on especially to develop those new services'*

P3: 'know about what going on out there so people have the confidence to be more entrepreneurial'

P6: 'A lot of scope to be creative and that was quite nice'.

Knowing who has entrepreneurial skills was highlighted as beneficial in the selection process for a role-emerging placement as participant 4 perceived that it would be quite difficult to carry out therapeutic interventions without a creative side. The value of establishing which first year students have greater entrepreneurial skills would serve as 'a signal that people are suited to working in role emerging' assisting the allocation process.

7.3.6 Theme 6: Occupation and Practice

7.3.6.1 Sub-Theme 6: 1 Developing Identity

Students develop and consolidate their professional identity through placements. As they work alongside qualified practitioners they observe practice and behaviour that instils the underpinning philosophy of the profession.

P6: 'adopt other peoples styles I'm around.. on previous placements I've tried to model the attributes of my educator'

Over time you learn what it is to be an occupational therapist. In role-emerging placements where there is no on-site educator the student loses the security of a role model. The setting may have limited knowledge of occupational therapy so the student has to be able to articulate what the role and profession can offer from the offset. As a consequence they develop a greater depth of sense of who they are as practitioners informing their professional identity. All participants had a sense of this being pivotal in their role-emerging placements.

P3: 'I think this is the one that made me think.. right this is how you can use occupation to treat people.. a professional identity kind of clicked into place'

P3: 'I think my placement.. what we're there for.. what are role is… I'm not sure if I'd got that if I'd been in a traditional placement'

P5: 'you had to try and keep that professional identity.. Keep bringin it back to occupation all the time… that's one of the biggest things I learnt from the placement'

P6: 'this placement has really helped me understand the use of occupation like never before and will help underpin what I do'

Role identity was strengthened through the role-emerging experience, as the participants perceived that the placements offered greater opportunity to apply their knowledge and skills in practice. Being able to articulate the role allowed the students to 'justify what they were doing and why' (P3), which in turn brought depth of understanding for the student themselves.

P1: 'you learn about planning, practical interventions.. you're running with it in your own way… if you couldn't justify it to them maybe you shouldn't be doin it'

P6: 'you do need the underpinning knowledge and theory so some students could struggle if they don't have that.. be able to apply it to their practice.. we found it really important that you explain so the setting and staff learn about ot and its purpose to develop the role'

P6: 'it was very occupationally focused.. the role we created.. by the end we were able to talk pretty confidently about occupational therapy'

Whilst recognising the value of accelerating the development of professional identity there was however, a consequence to being the sole practitioner. Students felt a sense of professional isolation and missed the camaraderie of being in a team with other occupational therapists.

P1: 'you wouldn't get that daily reinforcement that you would in a hospital environment and in a team'

P3: 'I do quite like workin in a team with other ot's.. I felt a bit alone…I really missed bouncing my ideas off people and thinkin am I doing it right.. what about this?'

7.3.6.2 Sub-Theme 6: 2 Understanding Professionalism

The participants acknowledged the importance of being professional and behaving in a professional manner perceived as being 'more apparent' in a role-emerging setting (P5). Being of the opinion that this attribute is 'something which can't be taught' and 'intuitive' (P4) the students understood what constitutes professionalism and need for 'professional boundaries' (P6).

P2: 'with placements we need a certain air of professionalism about you'

P2: 'you understand the working world, the professional world.. if you've not had a professional job it can be hard to get your head around that.. so chucked into something like that would be a steep learning curve'

Participants expressed opinions that this need for professionalism may not always be embedded in students and that a lack of an on-site educator could limit development of professionalism normally acheived through role-modelling.

P3: 'You haven't got someone to lead you to be professional. You're expected to be professional on a role-emerging.. you haven't got any of that.. that's gonna be more difficult for some people'

P6: 'professionalism.. you've got to have it.. pretty good understanding of it and your professional skills have got to be intact.. probably one of the reasons why you wouldn't do one first or second placement'

Participant 3 struggled with a lack of professionalism of the staff in the setting reporting phrases, language, inappropriate discussions, confidentiality and things like that' and recognised that she drew upon her own skills to deal with this in practice.

7.3.6.3 Sub-Theme 6: 3 Scope of Practice

Findings indicate that participants welcomed the scope of practice and not having the 'constraints of a normal placement' (P3) with the need to be autonomous and creative as discussed in Theme 3. The purpose of the placement was clear to the students with participant 4 stating 'it was crying out for occupational therapy' and the ability to 'articulate my ideas and see what the potential could be' (P3). However, it is apparent from the data that the staff in the settings had varying levels of understanding of occupational therapy, how this could be embedded as a service and potential role for the student.

P2: 'their knowledge of OT was good.. they'd seen it for themselves'

P3: 'I think I was the second or third to be there on placement and I still don't think they really knew what we did.. quite confusing for staff because not really sure what we were doing'

P4: 'A big challenge was getting people to understand what it was we were there for.. in terms of what OT was.. what we could do in that service'

P5: 'managers seem to know what ot was but the team didn't .. they thought we were occupational health.. they didn't really know what we did'

These perceptions brought challenges and barriers for the participants as well as opportunities limiting the scope of practice.

P3: 'the biggest challenge now is to begin with.. actually flying the flag for what we do'

P5: 'it's a shame that XXXX (on-site supervisor) didn't understand it from the word go.. he didn't fully understand we were allowed to do these things on our own.. once it was made clear .. the opportunities were there for everyone to understand what was going on .. it just took a little time'

Findings suggest that placement settings may opt to accommodate a student on a role-emerging placement 'without necessarily knowing what it will entail' (P5). Furthermore, the need for 'tangible' evidence of service changes and the benefits as a means of convincing staff of the purpose and value of the placement (P5, P6) rather than 'just goin in and talking about it' (P4). Where there is a lack of clarity in the purpose of the placement has the potential to 'exploit' the student and an expectation that they slot into a support worker role rather than explore the scope of practice and develop a role (P6). Participants relied upon their assertion and diplomacy skills previously reported in Theme 3.

P4: 'tryin not to get pulled into just how the service run'

P5: 'to not end up sort of dragged into their way of workin'

In striving to embed occupational therapy participants drew upon a raft of traits and attributes as well as experiencing a range of emotions discussed earlier in this chapter. This culminated in real change and service development with a broad scope of practice and positive legacy discussed in Theme 5.

P3: 'I wrote evidenced based recommendations of what each activity… they were doin things but they didn't know why they were doin them.. so a little blurb about why gardening is important, why walking is important and how the centre could use residents to be more involved, more empowered'

P4: 'working with the service came from the bottom up.. the full time staff who were actually spendin time with service users to start thinkin in that way.. the healthcare assistants startin to ask questions we'd ask.. getting service users involved after we'd done initial groups'

P5: 'we did get things up and running…a positive impact upon the clients….actually saw it happen'

7.3.6.4 Sub-Theme 6: 4 The Value of Occupation

The data emitted a strong essence of 'occupation' and how the participants gained from their experience in valuing the use of occupation in their role within practice. Findings indicate that role-emerging placements facilitate this to a far greater extent than traditional placements. Participant 3 insightfully recognised that the setting itself was 'advocating occupational deprivation cos people were coming and sitting there all day.. just drinking tea every day'

P3: 'it was the best placement bringin in…what OT is really.. it kind of changed my view I just thought you can use occupation as an intervention.. how people with mental health issues have got occupational deprivation and injustice'

P6: 'the value of occupational therapy.. I've really learnt about the power of occupation.. how it can help engage people..in a meaningful way.. I've not really seen that in previous placements here the occupational focus is really diluted and you can't always draw upon it in practice..this placement has really helped me understand the use of occupation like never before'

As a consequence of this fundamental outcome the students were able to articulate that this will benefit by 'always have an occupation focus because of that placement' (P1). They utilised placement as a vehicle to embed an occupational focus to bring a value to the setting and their own development as a practitioner reflected in 'what can my role be here.. actually lets use some occupation' (P6).

7.3.7 Theme 7: Resources and Support Mechanisms

7.3.7.1 Sub-Theme 7: 1 Coping Strategies

Findings have determined that the participants viewed themselves as resilient as discussed in Theme 3. To build resilience coping strategies are a vital resource to draw on. These ranged from practical strategies to consciously changing thought processes to deal with situations and 'being that inner voice to yourself daring to do things' (P1). Using a methodical, structured 'step by step approach' (P3) and being organised and planning by writing lists (P4) allowed them to feel in control. Letting things go and a 'need to chill out' (P3) was a strategy to deal with the stress felt, induced by a role-emerging experience.

> *P1: 'whether you have that supportive network around you..think that's quite important.. I think that was a big deal clincher for me in succeeding in this placement'*

Personal circumstances and whether a student has significant others in their life are of importance. Having 'a supportive network around you' or 'a network that's draining with a lot of responsibility' (P1) will impact on the student either positively or negatively. Being able to finish work each day and not 'ruminating' on the placement helped to achieve a work life balance (P1). In contrast, participant 6 talked of being ' absolutely frazzled by the end of it and tipping it a bit far by burning the candle at both ends' in their endeavour to optimise the placement and its outcome. These two students found the placement experience to be 'emotional cos we had stuff goin on.. both got.. single parents so'.

Participant 6 referred to 'having extra layers.. like an onion.. of coping skills around you as a person' and would rationalise her anxieties by 'just say to yourself actually what's the worst that can happen.. I'm not completely on my own'. 'Sharing concerns and similar worries' and not taking the 'full burden of it' were vocalised by participant 3 and 6.

All participants perceived preparation as being key to coping on placement both in terms of the students taking ownership themselves and for the University to take an active role in preparing students over expectations of role-emerging placements. Participant 3 identified the need for classroom 'sessions to explore role-emerging

experiences, the positives and the challenges'. Participant 4 felt more prepared as she had previous experience working in the area of mental health so she didn't feel 'too daunted'.

> *P1: 'its good to be prepared because I knew what the obstacles were going to be'*
>
> *P3: 'I don't think I was prepared but then that's the nature of this course.. its up to you isn't it.. I wouldn't have expected anyone to prepare it for me.. it's my own responsibility to do that'*

Preparation took the form of researching the area of practice and occupational therapy role so students could embed an evidence base to their practice and be reassured that their clinical reasoning behind actions was clear and justifiable.

> *P3: 'the more I read the more I thought well I'm quite confident about what my role is…. I got that from reading other peoples perspectives and I thought yes.. that makes sense now'*
>
> *P3: 'that was a good quality to have on role-emerging you're not only researching literature but you could research what else is out there.. arrange a visit.. to see how you develop your service'*
>
> *P5: 'I had to research everything rather than ask someone.. gonna come across situations which we don't know.. to find out and research it ourselves'*

The need to research and gather the evidence helped to prepare the students but also served as a coping strategy by knowing that if you are 'armed with this is what would work' (p3) and to 'know how to use the theory .. could use all that we've learnt to show how ot can help' (P6)

> *P1: 'a real foundation.. knowing that deep down that what I'm doing should be right.. actually gave me the strength to know I've got the theory to apply'*

This strong knowledge and theory base held by students served to bring confidence and reassurance. All participants articulated a belief in their ability to underpin their practice with sound reasoning throughout the placement bringing credibility to how they approached the placement.

Following on in someone's footsteps also served to reassure participants and where this was not feasible, if allocated to a new placement, students lost this as they were paving the way rather than 'copying what the previous person had done and reinforcing it' (P1).

7.3.7.2 Sub-Theme 7: 2 Peer Support

Peer support came in a variety of modes with participants valuing this as a support mechanism to reassure and motivate through sharing of experiences. Participant 3 was allocated to a placement as a solitary student whilst the others were in a shared experience. This student drew on other forms of peer support by talking to others who had a different role-emerging placement finding this to be a positive way of dealing with the isolation and lack of role model. Participants on shared placements welcomed discussions with each other throughout the working day and were 'a massive support to each other' and 'reassurance when things aren't quite goin to' (P1).

> *P2: 'I would have really struggled if I hadn't had the other student with me.. all we did after every intervention session was constant reflection.. we spoke to each other all the time of what we did or what we were going to do'*
>
> *P4: 'to run ideas by and have that feedback.. a lot of it for us was that support .. especially in the more stressful time.. keep checkin with each other'*

Where one of a paired student had little knowledge or experience in the area of practice participants viewed this as a good way of alleviating lack of confidence or feelings of 'trepidation' they may otherwise of had. Equally, where dips in motivation and self-belief occurred students boosted each other to keep going.

> *P4: 'if one of you's finding it difficult.. to be motivated or really positive.. the other one would be like.. no no no lets.. come on'*

A shared experience provided credence within the setting as students gained confidence in approaching staff by both 'saying the same thing' and sending the same message (P3). Participant 4 indicates that 'it would take a strong individual to go in and do it by themselves'.

> *P1: 'sometimes one of us had an idea and the other one added to it and then you could run with it'*

The 'journey' explored in theme 4 allowing for personal growth alongside a sense of a shared experience with a peer created a bond cementing friendship and camaraderie.

> *P6: 'XXXX and I are good friends,, we had a healthy, not competitiveness'*

Participant 6 reflects that ' a few months later when you're talkin about it..it doesn't seem real.. yeh we did do that.. we're quite proud of that and try not to show off in class'.

7.3.7.3 Sub-Theme 7: 3 Supervision

All participants valued supervision as a mechanism for support and guidance to the placement experience. The role of the long-arm supervisor was pivotal in reassuring the students in terms of the use of underpinning theory and clinical reasoning to guide practice. Sharing the responsibility and not carrying the placement alone was vocalised and participants reflected on the reassurance that they gained in knowing the long-arm supervisor was 'available' and 'approachable' when they needed guidance or to 'check out something' (P1). The ability to 'articulate and discuss ideas' (P3) in face-to-face meetings, through e-mail or telephone contact was important as a support mechanism.

> *P4: 'I was having my supervisions to get that.. reassurance that everything you were doing was going well.. that helped with the pressure of it all.. take on that responsibility.. keep the focus.. a big key element to it'*

They also recognised the expertise that the supervisors have, often with clinical experience from working in the same area of practice and welcomed the 'sharing' of knowledge, skills and resources.. 'practical things.. she'd say why use this when I'm dealing with that' and had 'time to care whether I did well or not' (P1). Participant 6 stated the long -arm supervisor was 'extremely protective of us.. in a professional way and didn't want us to be exploited' equally having 'high expectations' of the students. Also concurring with participant 1 that generosity of time, accessibility and

giving so much to the placement, P6 was of the opinion that the long arm supervisor was 'absolutely brilliant and inspirational'… a 'huge part of the positive experience'.

As the long-arm supervisor is not based on site allows a student to develop autonomy reflected by participant 2

> *"I don't think we'd of had that amount of freedom had the educator been there constantly.. the support was fantastic.. never lacking'*

with participant 6 developing professional identity where previously she would 'model the attributes of my educator and this time they were my own' and the way we were dealt with as being 'exceptional .. she didn't give us all the answers .. she made us think.. gave us the confidence to deal with situations ourselves'.
Equally when 'things were difficult.. there was an avenue where I would go.. I'd go to my long-arm supervisor' (P3).

Although supervisory mechanisms were essential to the placement experience and outcome there were also challenges imposed on the students. One student had a period of time when their long-arm supervisor was absent so a University tutor stepped in and whilst the support continued it impacted on the continuity adding pressure. This student also reflected on the on-site supervision being provided by the head teacher who had in reality little time to give so 'we were left on our own.. added challenge to it' (P2). The lack of on-site profession-specific supervision left students feeling isolated and vulnerable

> *P4: 'the fact of not having that person there to constantly check things over with or ask questions.. think it's a completely different experience'*
>
> *P5: 'not havin an educator on site I think was the thing that threw me.. that security of being able to ask someone if you're not sure'*

The on-site supervisor, typically a manager or team lead, provides day-to-day guidance and is able to assess non-profession specific competency outcomes of the student's performance. These include time management, communication skills and organisation skills. They therefore have an important role to play in the placement experience. However, their input is not always explicit and expectations can lack clarity despite these being set out in the placement agreement. Participants

faced lack of designated management or lack of availability (P2, P3) whilst others had on-site supervisors who had limited understanding of occupational therapy or were reluctant to allow the students to work autonomously that impacted on the experience (P4, P5). Students had to draw on their attributes and aptitude to overcome these challenges as discussed earlier in this chapter.

7.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented the findings of the qualitative data collected through six participant interviews. Seven themes and correlating sub-themes that emerged from the data have all been explored in depth. Pertinent verbatim quotations taken directly from the transcripts serve to capture the essence of the participants' voices and the meaning behind the experiences they reflected on. Through systematic thematic analysis the data has been transformed from the narrative of each participant. Patterns and recurring themes are constructed methodically to establish the lived experience and its meaning to the participants heard through their own voices. The data has facilitated exploration of the constructs of resilience and characteristics or attributes of students and how these determine aptitude for undertaking role-emerging placements. The qualitative findings will be evaluated and discussed alongside the quantitative findings in Chapter 9 to establish the outcome of the study aim and objectives.

Chapter 8 : Quantitative Results

8.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative data, which has been generated through the use of two self-rating scales with two undergraduate cohorts of occupational therapy students. The data sets have been collated from students undertaking traditional placements and role-emerging placements pre and post placement. The data analysis carried out through the utilisation of SPSS (Knapp, 2014) explores the impact of resilience and personality before and after the placement experience. The analysis compares the data between pre and post placement by measuring the data at time 1 (pre-placement) and time 2 (post placement) for both traditional and role-emerging placements. A t-test has been employed to compare the mean scale scores of resilience and personality at time 1 (pre-placement) and time 2 (post placement). The total number of student participants in both cohorts undertaking placements is 38. The datasets divide the students into either traditional (N=25) or role-emerging placements (N=13).

8.2 Application of Measurement Scales and Scale Properties

The self-rating scales used were administered to the students pre and post placement to those undertaking both traditional and role-emerging placements. The Connor-Davidson Scale 25 (CD-RISC 25) consists of 25 questions scoring each from 0-4. The higher the scale score indicates greater resilience (Connor and Davidson, 2003). The second scale employed is the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (v1) scale of 44 items measuring personality traits: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism using a Likert scale scoring from 1 to 5. Within each of the five factors are specific personality attributes that cluster together and contribute to a category score (John et al, 2010)

Both psychometric scales have demonstrated internal consistency reliability in previous studies (Gray, 2018, Scott and Mazhindu, 2014). The results of this study indicate a strong internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha), which according to Scott and Mazhindu (2014) if the score is over 0.8 brings a high level of reliability for coherence and ratifies the use of the CD-RISC 25 and BFI for data collection. Tables

8.1 and 8.3 present the scale properties for both types of placement experience. Equally, concurrent criterion validity is evident allowing comparison and correlational analysis between the two measurement scales (Scott and Mazhindu, 2014).

Whilst the quantitative data did not derive statistical significance from the tests that were employed, there was sufficient difference to draw findings suggesting a trend, therefore being of value to the study. Given the focused sample size (N=38) this is deemed satisfactory for the purposes of correlational analysis that Creswell and Plano-Clark (2018) suggest should exceed 30 participants.

8.3 Presentation of Results

Table 8-1 - Scale Properties of Traditional Placements - Time 1 & Time 2

	N	Items	Alpha Time 1	Alpha Time 2
Resilience	25	25	.86	.88
Openness	25	10	.63	.69
Conscientiousness	25	9	.79	.80
Extraversion	25	8	.81	.81
Agreeableness	25	9	.80	.87
Neuroticism	25	8	.68	.81

Table 8-2 - Traditional Placements t-test

Scale	Time 1		Time 2		t	P<
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Resilience	72.84	9.0	72.72	10.64	+.04	NS
Openness	3.51	.50	3.57	.52	-.42	NS
Conscientiousness	3.75	.57	3.88	.52	-.86	NS
Extraversion	3.18	.66	3.24	.64	-.33	NS
Agreeableness	4.08	.58	4.15	.62	-.39	NS
Neuroticism	3.01	.50	2.90	.64	+.42	NS

Table 8.2 presents data that measures the changes over time (pre and post placement) for the constructs of resilience and the five personality traits in the

student sample that had traditional placements. There is no significant difference between time 1 and time 2 indicating that placement makes no impact on resilience for this student group. There is no difference in the five traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism indicating the students were static in their personality traits.

Table 8-3 - Scale Properties of Role-Emerging Placements - Time 1 & Time 2

Scale	N	Items	Alpha Time 1	Alpha Time 2
Resilience	13	25	.87	.84
Openness	13	10	.79	.80
Conscientiousness	13	9	.88	.79
Extraversion	13	8	.91	.83
Agreeableness	13	9	.75	.85
Neuroticism	13	8	.56	.56

Table 8-4 - Role-Emerging Placements t-test

Scale	Time 1		Time 2		t	P<
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Resilience	74.31	9.35	76.85	8.90	-.71	NS
Openness	3.71	.52	3.79	.51	-.42	NS
Conscientiousness	3.99	.63	3.97	.57	+.07	NS
Extraversion	3.44	.74	3.61	.58	-.63	NS
Agreeableness	4.28	.47	4.24	.58	+.21	NS
Neuroticism	2.66	.48	2.69	.42	-.16	NS

Table 8.4 presents data that measures the changes over time (pre and post placement) in the constructs of resilience and the five personality traits in the student sample that had role-emerging placements. Although results indicate there is no significant difference between time 1 and time 2 for the student sample that had role-emerging placements, students are developing resilience as a result of their placement. This small increase in mean scale scores of resilience suggests a trend and this could be reasoned as being accountable due to a small sample size. There is no significant difference in the five traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism indicating the students were static in their personality traits. Extraversion was measured as being slightly higher post

placement, which could be attributed to an increase in confidence as a consequence of placement.

Table 8-5 - Traditional Placement - Time 2 (post-placement)

	Openness	**Conscientiousness**	**Extraversion**	**Agreeableness**	**Neuroticism**
Resilience CD-RISC 25	+.43*	+.48*	+.52**	+.02	-.48*

Note: * p< .05 ** p< .01

Table 8.5 presents the correlations between resilience and the five personality traits for students who have completed a traditional placement. Higher levels of resilience are positively correlated with openness, conscientiousness and extraversion. Resilience is negatively correlated with neuroticism. There is no relationship between resilience and agreeableness. Those students scoring higher in openness, conscientiousness and extraversion are likely to have higher resilience. Extraversion scores demonstrate the strongest positive relationship with resilience. The students scoring higher in neuroticism will result in a significantly negative impact on resilience.

Table 8-6 - Role-Emerging Placement - Time 2 (post-placement)

	Openness	**Conscientiousness**	**Extraversion**	**Agreeableness**	**Neuroticism**
Resilience CD-RISC 25	+.20	+.16	+.11	+.58*	-.40

Note: * p< .05

Table 8.6 presents the correlations between resilience and the five personality traits for students who have completed a role-emerging placement. Higher levels of resilience are positively correlated with agreeableness to a value of .05. The other personality traits are not significantly correlated to resilience.

Table 8-7 - Role-Emerging and Traditional Placements t-test – Time 1

	Role Emerging Placement			Traditional Placement				
Scale	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**P<**
Resilience	13	74.31	9.35	25	72.84	8.98	0.47	NS
Openness	13	3.71	0.52	25	3.51	0.5	1.16	NS
Conscientiousness	13	3.99	0.63	25	3.75	0.57	1.19	NS
Extraversion	13	3.44	0.74	25	3.18	0.66	1.12	NS
Agreeableness	13	4.28	0.47	25	4.08	0.58	1.06	NS
Neuroticism	13	2.66	0.48	25	3.01	0.5	-2.05	NS

Table 8.7 presents data that measures the constructs of resilience and personality allowing for comparison between the two sample groups of students pre-placement in traditional and role-emerging placements. The students demonstrate a higher level of resilience prior to commencing a role-emerging placement compared to the students in traditional placements. Students in role-emerging placements scored slightly higher on openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness and lower in neuroticism compared to students in traditional placements. Although each scale score is not of a significant difference the data suggests a trend that may be statistically stronger with a larger sample size.

Table 8-8 - Role Emerging and Traditional Placements t-test – Time 2

	Role Emerging Placement			Traditional Placement				
Scale	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**P<**
Resilience	13	76.85	8.90	25	72.72	10.64	1.20	NS
Openness	13	3.79	0.51	25	3.57	0.52	1.27	NS
Conscientiousness	13	3.97	0.57	25	3.88	0.52	0.49	NS
Extraversion	13	3.61	0.58	25	3.24	0.64	1.72	NS
Agreeableness	13	4.24	0.58	25	4.15	0.62	0.42	NS
Neuroticism	13	2.69	0.42	25	2.90	0.64	-1.03	NS

Table 8.8 presents data that measures the constructs of resilience and personality allowing for comparison between the two sample groups of students post placement in traditional and role-emerging placements. The students demonstrate a higher level of resilience prior to commencing role-emerging placement compared to the students in traditional placements and developed greater resilience as a

consequence of placement. Students in role-emerging placements scored slightly higher in openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness and lower in neuroticism compared to students in traditional placements. There was no significant difference for each scale measured.

Table 8-9 - Mean Scores of Traditional Placement Students Across 6 Studies

	Resilience				
	N	**Mean**	**SD**	***t***	***P<***
Present sample of Traditional Placement Students Time 1	25	72.84	8.98		
Australian University students [1]	141	90.70	12.60	-8.6	0.001
Australian Adult Undergraduates [2]	240	64.30	12.30	+4.4	0.001
American Undergraduate students [3]	605	75.70	11.90	-1.5	NS
Australian Chiropractic students [4]	194	65.0	12.90	+3.9	0.001
Dutch Undergraduate students [5]	79	66.4	10.8	+3.0	0.01

Notes: [1] From Pidgeon and Keye (2014); [2] From Benetti and Kambourpoulos (2006); [3] From Hartley (2011); [4] From Innes (2016); [5] From Giesbrecht et al (2009)

Table 8.9 demonstrates the mean scale scores across 5 studies employing the CD-RISC 25 scale (Connor and Davidson, 2003) to measure resilience in participant sample groups of undergraduate students in comparison to the participant sample in traditional placements in this study. Comparing the students in the present sample with the Australian University students (Pidgeon and Keye, 2014), the present sample demonstrates lower levels of resilience (t= -8.6, p< .001). In contrast, a comparison between Australian undergraduates (Benetti and Kambourpoulos, 2006) indicates higher levels of resilience in the present sample (t= +4.4, p<.001). Similarly, with Australian chiropractic students (t=+3.9, p<.001) (Innes, 2016) and Dutch undergraduate students (t=+3.0, p<.01) (Giesbrecht et al, 2009) with the present sample demonstrating greater resilience. There was no significant difference between the American undergraduate students (Hartley, 2011) and the present sample.

8.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented the results of the quantitative data analysis that yields findings of value to inform this study that will be integrated into the following discussion chapter. The nature of the small sample size in this study is noted and justified within the context of a mixed-methods methodology in chapter 6 and that the greater body of data has been drawn from the qualitative findings. The quantitative data collated from the employment of measurement scales in resilience and personality support the qualitative findings through robust and systematic processes within the study design.

Chapter 9 : Discussion

9.1 Outline of Chapter

The aim of this study is to develop an understanding of how personality traits and the constructs of resilience or thriving, and entrepreneurship impact on occupational therapy students and their aptitude to undertake role-emerging placements. These placement experiences are known to be more challenging for those undertaking them. Selection of students is currently based on professional judgement and aligning a placement with the individual student's strengths, qualities, behaviours, and needs. The personal approach to placement allocation is thought to optimise the use of placements, of which role-emerging experiences are few in number, in addition to the experience gained and outcome for the student. With Mikels et al (2011) supporting the notion that individuals with expertise within a given domain can rely on intuitive judgement as an important role in decision-making. The process accounts for a number of facets that combine to determine what makes a 'capable student' with a natural propensity and aptitude to succeed in these placements. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the study exploring these within the constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality trait theory and the profession-specific evidence presented in Chapter 2.

The discussion is guided by the research question and structured using the objectives of the study with the qualitative themes and statistical results synthesised together throughout the chapter. Primarily focusing on the thematic analysis of the qualitative data in chapter 7 to inform this understanding, with the statistical data in chapter 8 quantifying the impact of these constructs, allowing for measurable comparison between the allocations of students to both traditional and non-traditional or role-emerging placements. Where previous research evidences the challenging nature of role-emerging placements (Clarke, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2015b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Kyte et al, 2018; Schmitz et al, 2018) and how these experiences influence ontological development and professional identity (Thew et al, 2008; Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a; Knightbridge, 2014; Clarke et al, 2015a; Kyte et al, 2018), this study explores aptitude (or propensity), attributes, and appropriateness within the decision-making process aligning students to specific

placement settings. The constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality are at the core of the study and form the research objectives. The purpose of the study sets out to explain and understand the current practice within one university of the selection of occupational therapy students, across two cohorts into the more challenging role-emerging placement experiences. The study design draws on student perspectives to establish the impact of this process on the student, the placement provider, the University and the occupational therapy profession more broadly. The findings from the study have been ascertained through both qualitative and quantitative data collection tools, selected as being robust in nature, to inform this discussion and subsequent recommendations for practice.

Whilst a number of the findings from this research resonate and concur with earlier studies on practice education and role-emerging placements conducted from an occupational therapy perspective (Bossers et al, 1997; Wood, 2005; Fortune et al, 2006; Rodger et al, 2007; Thew et al, 2008; Cooper and Raine, 2009; Fieldhouse and Fedden, 2009; Overton et al, 2009; Rodger et al, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Hall et al, 2012; Kearsley, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2014a; Knightbridge, 2014; Smith et al, 2014; Clarke et al, 2015a&b; Mason et al, 2015; Hamilton et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Drynan et al, 2018, Schmitz et al, 2018; Brown et al, 2019; Clarke et al, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2019, 2020) this study, in using personality traits and combining the constructs of resilience, and entrepreneurship offers new evidence not previously available to the profession and educators within the higher education sector. Furthermore, the employment of a mixed-methods approach and design to capture both qualitative and quantitative data builds on pre-existing evidence informed by qualitative methods in earlier relevant research. The study, therefore, offers an original contribution to knowledge and builds on the existing body of evidence to inform understanding and in developing current practice.

Each of the three study objectives will be addressed in turn.

9.2 The Construct of Resilience in Role-Emerging Placements.

9.2.1 Building Resilience as a Consequence of Challenge or Adversity

Findings of this study suggest that occupational therapy students undertaking role-emerging placements experience greater challenges compared to traditional placements and that higher demands are placed on them to thrive and succeed, given the *roller-coaster* nature of these is known (Clarke, 2012; Dancza et al, 2013; Clarke et al, 2015b; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Schimitz et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). Cooper and Raine (2009) and Clarke (2012) debate the challenges indicating students often feel overwhelmed, lacking direction, and isolated, with Wood, (2005) and Hook and Kenney, (2007) indicating a risk of being used as an extra pair of hands in role-emerging placements. Misunderstanding of expectations and barriers to practice are typically faced by students, with findings emerging strongly from the qualitative data of this study to support this. Students indicated feelings of being immersed at the *deep end* and being out of control due to uncertainty, being pushed out of their comfort zone, mirroring previous research evidence (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b, 2019; Hunter and Volkert, 2016). Students felt the weight of responsibility to succeed, daunted and apprehensive, but equally mixed with emotions such as excitement and optimism. Given this, situational optimism explains how positive belief in specific events can promote a capacity to thrive, where students may of chosen the placement setting or expressed an interest in the area of practice helping them to overcome apprehension (Maltby et al, 2017). Niemiec (2019) suggests character strengths have an important role in capturing, developing and appreciating the positives and opportunities in life that facilitate an ability to thrive. Students were also able to turn initial anxiety and fear into a positive through rationalisation or a realistic orientation (Davis and Asliturk, 2011), whether this be by being placed in an area of practice of interest, with a peer or accepting their placement as ‘fait accompli’, with Clarke et al (2019) similarly discussing the value of such strategies. Hope and optimism are known factors supporting resilience (Davis and Asliturk, 2011; Guadalupe Jiménez Ambriz, 2012; Souri and Hasanirad, 2011; Beddoe, et al, 2013; Adamson et al, 2014; Sakar and Fletcher, 2014; Brown et al, 2017a). All students perceived themselves as resilient, negotiating the highs and the lows with determination, which Reyes et al, (2015) describe as ‘pushing through’, reflecting this as being a dynamic

and contextual process, nurturing development of resilience. One participant stating, ‘we embraced it and lived it ... survived the challenges and have grown so much because of it’. Consequently, they drew on a number of facets to allow them to survive, even thrive in the placement; primarily their protective factors, fuel sources or personal enablers and coping strategies became important assets, alongside their personal attributes and traits they held and employed to their benefit previously indicated as important by Beddoe et al, 2013; Ledesma, 2014; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Minulescu, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a; Oshio, 2018 and Clarke et al, 2019. All these resonate with the construct of resilience enabling students to thrive in their role-emerging placement environments, positively adapt and come out as stronger, more resilient individuals. Equally suggesting the notion of positive psychology and emotional intelligence are important for coping with anticipated events and reflecting on experiences, both negative and positive to nurture resilience as purported by Davis and Asliturk, 2011; Brown et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018 and Niemiec, 2019.

9.2.2 Resilience and Personality Trait: a correlation

Using the quantitative results, this study draws correlations between resilience and personality trait with students exhibiting higher levels of correlation with specific traits dependent on the placement setting. Students in role-emerging placements demonstrate a higher level of resilience whilst also scoring slightly higher in openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness, with lower scores in neuroticism compared to those students in traditional placements. These findings will be explored more fully section 9.3 of this chapter but do however, mirror other studies of resilience (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014: Minulesca, 2015; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017; Oshio, 2018). Minulesca (2015) suggests resilient students evidence a profile of being slightly extraverted, possessing a positive control of emotion or emotional stability (low neuroticism), exhibiting agreeable interrelations, are able to self-organise with volition and motivation for learning performance (conscientiousness) and are guided by curiosity, positive risk-taking and creative attitudes (openness). These positive personality characteristics reflect resilience that allows high achievers to thrive in stressful and pressured environments (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014; Niemiec, 2019) and is equitable to the ‘more capable’ occupational therapy student having a greater propensity for a role-emerging

experience where self-confidence and autonomy are essential attributes (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000). Such attributes identified by McGinley (2020) as being non-cognitive abilities reflect professional behaviours deemed requisite for entry into the occupational therapy profession.

9.2.3 Stress-Coping Ability and Coping Strategies

According to Connor and Davidson (2003) and Niemiec (2019), this ability to thrive and turn adversity into positive adaptation and growth is a measure of successful stress-coping ability through personal qualities and protective factors. Niemiec (2019) maintains these character strengths bring a buffering and resilience function. Such protective factors include hardiness, self-efficacy, spirituality, and self-esteem (Wong, 2011; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2013) and positive coping and belongingness (Guadalupe Jiménez Ambriz, 2012; Meredith et al, 2011; Clarke et al, 2019). Brown et al (2017a) suggests these are personal enablers. In acknowledging that placements are likely to be challenging and stressful (Delaney et al, 2015), Flinchbaugh et al (2015) and Crane and Searle (2016) suggest that some stressors can be beneficial, whilst others can be a hindrance. The challenge stressors that elicit learning, growth and development are associated with a perception of thriving, promoting well-being and life satisfaction. These contribute to performance opportunities, so those students who are open and, or seek such learning experiences will benefit, in contrast to hindrance stressors that impede performance or goals (Cavanaugh et al, 2000). Findings of this study overwhelmingly indicate a depth of learning and development beyond that of traditional placements, particularly in professional identity and underpinning theory informing practice as suggested in earlier studies by Thew et al, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Knightbridge, 2014; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2014b; 2015b, 2019 indicating students embraced the challenges positively.

Furthermore, for students who deliberately chose a role-emerging placement, may possibly adopt a more positive attitude from the outset, knowing the likelihood of facing a challenging experience, supporting the realistic orientation and anticipatory preparedness advocated by Davis and Asliturk (2011). Also, described by Maltby et al, (2017) as situational optimism, where positive belief in circumstances an individual may find themselves in aids thriving, that Niemiec (2019) suggests allows

for protecting, managing and changing adversities faced. In contrast those placed in a role-emerging setting without a choice, as in this study, may perceive their placement with greater anxiety and the challenges faced have the potential to serve as hindrance stressors (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Crane and Searle, 2016). Therefore, volition and motivation or self-efficacy facilitated through the element of choice could enhance performance learning, growth and development, nurturing even greater levels of resilience and satisfaction. Equally, this study suggests that where students do not have a choice of undertaking role-emerging placements but are selected because of their natural propensity and characteristics to succeed, respond positively to the challenge. Zhou and Urhahne (2013) discuss student success through intrapersonal motivation based on a teacher's judgement of their ability through Attributional Theory, first postulated by Weiner (1983). If the student perceives that the placement tutor believes in their ability to cope, it has an empowering impact by alleviating self-doubt and creating challenge stressors as they embrace the placement more positively. In stating 'you saw something in me.. you knew I would be able to cope with the pressure of it'. Therefore, the propensity to thrive occurs when a student does not necessarily perceive or face adversity in their placement experience, or deals with it more effectively, arguable as a consequence of selecting the more capable student with a strong sense of self-efficacy (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a). The subsequent positive adaptation aligns with the notion of thriving and is also deemed to develop resilience (Niemiec, 2019). Further research would be of value to explore whether choice of placement serves to influence student perception of stressors and whether they hinder or challenge and if resilience differs as a consequence. Also whether the more capable student perceives their placement differently, relishing the challenge with a realistic orientation (Davis and Asliturk, 2011) and situational optimism (Maltby et al, 2017), allowing them to thrive, as the placement experience is positive, not necessarily with adversity.

The students used coping strategies in various ways as a resource. These included practical strategies to plan, prepare and self-organise to consciously changing thought processes, using their inner voice of reason and sharing the burden with others (Shaw et al, 2014; Minulescu, 2015; Clarke et al, 2019). Davis and Asliturk (2011) align this preparedness to a positive psychology of coping with anticipated events or situational optimism (Maltby et al, 2017). Support mechanisms in various

forms were vital to all students as they experienced the *roller coaster* and strived for a work-life balance, whether these be through family and social networks, peers or placement tutors (Wilks and Spivey, 2010; Crombie et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014; Matheson, et al, 2016; Brown et al, 2017; Clarke et al, 2019; Cleveland et al, 2019). Adamson et al (2014) explain this through the relational aspect of resilience and in seeking or accepting support. Findings confirm that all the students highly valued the support mechanisms in place, particularly those of their long-arm supervisor who could offer clinical and professional guidance (Warren et al, 2016; Clarke et al, 2019). This was pivotal to reassure students in a timely and accessible manner, but also served to inspire and motivate (Healey, 2005; Craik, 2009; Rodger et al, 2014) . Practice educator's taking up this long-arm supervisor role need to be fully cognizant of the additional challenges students may face and be prepared for a more intense, possibly demanding supervisory process (Warren et al, 2016). Targeted training and preparation for the role, beyond the usual practice educator support mechanisms is essential to ensure the student is provided with appropriate and valuable guidance to thrive in the placement (Edwards and Thew, 2011).

The findings also offer insight into the importance of students being placed in pairs with a peer (Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; O'Connor et al, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b; Warren et al, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019), typifying the preferred supervisory model in role-emerging placements (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke et al, 2015b). Those placed with another student valued this as a support mechanism fostering greater resilience (Crombie et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Clarke et al, 2019). The students found it easier to deal with the challenges, promoted a shared confidence through the journey they had together and a single voice in exploring the potential role and implementing practice. This *journey* allowed for personal growth alongside a shared experience creating a bond, cementing friendship and camaraderie, therefore building resilience (Thew et al, 2008; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Clarke et al, 2015b, 2019). In contrast, where students were placed in pairs but there was conflict and tension between the two students, possibly due to differing personality (individual difference) or one overshadowing the other can create further challenge to overcome requiring careful supervision to avoid jeopardising the learning experience and placement outcome. An ability of the students to work together with complimentary or shared values and

disposition will help to negate this occurring through deliberate selection or choice accommodating friendship dynamics. Further research would be of value in understanding the nature of peer learning in this context.

9.2.4 Resilience and Environmental Context

Role-emerging experiences equate to workplace adversity that Jackson el al (2007) defines as any stressful situation experienced in work environments, with resilience enabling adaptation to deal with these challenges. The unique experience students are exposed to in role-emerging placements should not be underestimated. Each one having its own practice context and mediating factors, alongside the student's own strengths and qualities (Clarke et al, 2019). The qualitative data supports the notion advocated by Adamson et al (2014) of the multi-faceted and complex nature of resilience that 'cannot be ascribed to one core attribute, one context or one strategy but is an ever-changing relationship between all factors mediated through experience, occurring within environments that at times constrain and at other times enable resilience to manifest' (p537). This explains the roller coaster nature of the placements with students experiencing a raft of emotion, at the same time of trying to make sense of their professional identity and establishing a role (Clarke et al, 2014a, 2019).

Resilience is known to be more threatened through imposed organisational and structural factors compared to the emotional intensity of the role itself (Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). With Matheson et al, (2016) suggesting that environmental and cultural factors impact on the resilience of healthcare professionals. These could be construed to include limited resources, limited support and rigid policy. Role-emerging placements are likely to accentuate the challenges and barriers by the very nature of differing management strategies, governance and accountability with unconventional boundaries compared to statutory healthcare settings. The students witnessed aspects of practice that would be deemed as unacceptable in conventional health settings, such as a disregard for record keeping, being excluded from team meetings or questionable staff values. This being the case, it would be logical to conclude that greater levels of resilience are a requisite for these students and that the dynamic contextual nature of this as a construct develops as they face stressful circumstances and *push through* (Reyes et al, 2015). These stressors are

therefore not necessarily as a consequence of working with a particular group of individuals, such as veterans, homeless people or primary school children but due to the organisational culture where they are attempting to embed an occupational therapy role and may face resistence. This resonates with Fisher and Savin- Baden (2002) who posed the question over the fairness in placing students in these organisations, where even a qualified practioner would face challenges, with Cooper and Raine (2009) debating the risks necessary for the development of the profession.

The qualitative data also indicates students faced considerable negativity in their placements with resistance to change, poor understanding of expectations and even the staff perceived to be threatened by the presence of the students. All students had an overwhelming sense of winning staff over, becoming part of the culture to be accepted and the need for diplomacy. Perseverance, determination and adaptability, recognised as attributes of resilient people were clearly evident as students found ways of overcoming these challenges as suggested by Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014 and Clarke et al, 2019. This adds to the thinking that these stressors, whilst frustrating and difficult at the time, can be of value to enhance learning and development and ultimately a more satisfying experience to reflect on (Davis and Asliturk, 2011; Flinchbaugh et al, 2015).

9.2.5 Resilience in Healthcare Students

The findings of this study suggest that occupational therapy students are perceived as being inherently resilient as individuals, by the very nature of coping with the demands of study, placements and in choosing a career in healthcare supported by Kunzler et al, 2020. Both the qualitative and quantitative data supports this. Mirroring earlier research by Bahidar-Yilmaz and Oz (2015) where findings established students studying health sciences had higher levels of resilience compared to students in other subject areas, concluded to result from learning to cope with emotive, critical and challenging situations. With Crombie et al, (2013) identifying that the vocational factor and a desire to be in healthcare as a career choice with very clear end goals helps students to foster resilience compensating for challenging and negative placements. Evidence to support this notion of increased hardiness and resilience levels in healthcare students is also maintained by Jameson (2014).

Furthermore, evidence concludes resilience builds and develops as students progress through their term of study, with Tambag and Can (2018) findings establishing higher resilience in final year healthcare students. This corroborates the findings of this study where the participants perceived the undertaking of a role-emerging placement should take place in the latter stage of training, but not necessarily their last, similar to findings of Clarke et al (2014b) and Linnane and Warren, (2017). Practice-based learning and placement experiences are essential and where students are exposed to such stresses, allowing them to achieve personal growth mirrors that of Knightbridge, (2014) and builds resilience as a consequence.

9.2.6 Resilience: Life Experience, Age and Maturity

Life experience, age and maturity are deemed likely factors that build greater resilience, helping students in role-emerging placements deal with these experiences and to positively adapt from the challenges they faced reflecting earlier studies by Thew et al, (2008), Clarke, (2012). Crombie et al, (2013) and Adamson et al, (2014). The students in the qualitative participant sample were able to offer an insightful acknowledgement of how their own resilience had been shaped by past adversity and life experience facilitating personal growth, combined with their intrinsic resilient characteristics making them suited and capable for allocation to role-emerging placements. Participants articulated that previous failure and dealing with life challenges makes you a stronger person and brings an ability to get on with it regardless of how tough the situation. Pooley and Cohen (2010) and Froutan et al (2018) support this by advocating the necessity of attributes, strengths and internal traits as a requisite for adaptation and positive outcomes that are indicative of resilience. However, this study findings do not support the notion that age alone is a definitive factor to determine resilience. The age ranges of students on both traditional and role-emerging placements were comparable, as was the mean age, across both second and third year students. The youngest student on a role-emerging placement was 23, compared to a student aged 20 in traditional type placements. The eldest being 48 and 51 respectively. This reflects the nature of the students typically studying on this particular occupational therapy degree programme being on the whole, higher in number of mature students. Other universities may attract intakes of a greater proportion of school-leaving age

students bringing a need for consideration of the allocation process to placement settings. Equally, older students coming to study later in life could be deemed to lack the attributes to attempt a role-emerging placement, potentially lacking confidence and self-belief. The median for each type of placement was age 38 for role-emerging students and age 33 for those in traditional experiences. The findings therefore indicate that the age of students was not a factor accounted for in the allocation process and nor should it be. Maturity took greater precedent in the reasoning for being placed in a role-emerging placement. This resonance with making distinction between age and maturity is explained by Adamson et al (2014) where resilience is perceived to be not about age. Maturity in individuals whether young or old allows a sense of self and an ability to take responsibility for your own self and your own learning; being autonomous deemed requisite for role-emerging placements (Clarke et al, 2014a, 2019). With Crombie et al (2013) suggesting mature students can draw on pre-existing resilience from life experiences making practice placement environments and cultures more familiar. This reflects the nature of resilience that emerged from the data with students demonstrating self-efficacy, a sense of purpose and autonomy deemed essential for role-emerging placements with Brown et al (2017a) describing these as personal enablers. Life and work experience are thought to help students develop or utilise these coping strategies more effectively supporting maturity as an attribute for role-emerging placements (Clarke et al, 2019).

9.2.7 Resilience: A Process of Growth

Whilst participants broadly held the view that occupational therapy students are resilient in nature, they equally indicated that not all students have the requisite determination, confidence and assertiveness that they deemed necessary for role-emerging placements, basing this view on having experienced these for themselves. This concurs with Sullivan and Finlayson (2000) who pose an ethical dilemma in placing a student who is deemed less able to cope with the demands of a role-emerging placement, viewed by participants as setting students up to fail. A body of evidence suggests that being in the helping professions is emotionally demanding, associated with a wide range of stressors in relation to role and organisational context, with trainees also being at risk of high stress levels through placement experiences without the requisite resilience to survive (Grant and Kinman, 2013b).

The participants articulated that the characteristics of resilience are innate, being part of an individual’s personality, aligning with trait theory and cannot necessarily be taught, which reflects the notion that the construct of resilience develops over time through facing adversity and making positive adaptation, therefore suggesting that all students have the capacity to build on this through placement experiences as suggested by Lopez et al, (2018) and Tambag and Can, (2018).

The quantitative results of this study support the notion of developing resilience through placement experiences with the students scoring higher in resilience post-placement in comparison to pre-placement scores in the role-emerging sample group (Table 8.4). There was no difference in resilience between before and after placement for the students in traditional placements suggesting role-emerging placements facilitate a greater degree of resilience (Table 8.2). This mirrors the breadth of evidence that dealing with practice-based stress and contextual factors of organisational settings builds resilience (Rose and Palattiyil, 2020) and supports earlier studies by Thew et al, (2008), Clark, (2012), Clarke et al, (2015b, 2019) that recommend that all occupational therapy students should be placed in role-emerging placements. In understanding a greater scope for nurturing resilience, Clarke et al (2019) suggest it would be unfair to disadvantage some students by not being able to undertake a role-emerging experience.

Whilst this greater level of growth in resilience relates to the students in role-emerging placements compared to traditional placements (Table 8.7 and Table 8.8), this study does not however, allow for measurement of the exponential growth in resilience of those students if they were allocated to undertake these more challenging experiences. If role-emerging experiences nurture this development of resilience, it is therefore, for educators and the higher education sector to equip students with the requisite attributes in the curriculum delivery rather than preclude them from this transformative learning experience where they don’t have the natural propensity deemed necessary mirroring the findings of Beasdale and Humphreys, (2018), Clarke et al, (2019), and McGinley, (2020). This would serve to minimise the perceived risks and dilemma of placing the less capable student into a role-emerging experience where they may be set up to fail otherwise. Further research would be of value to explore this.

Furthermore, to explore the perception held of the resilient nature of occupational therapy students more broadly, regardless of placement settings they experienced, the statistical data in this study was used to measure against comparable cohorts in other health care studies using the same measurement scale of resilience (CD-RISC 25) (Connor and Davidson, 2003). Of the 5 comparative studies, only 1 indicated that the students had lower levels of resilience suggesting occupational therapy students are broadly more resilient than other students (Table 8.9). This finding could be explained by the nature of choice in studying for a healthcare profession, that it is largely a demanding career with likelihood of facing adversity, exposure to stressful experiences and human suffering, particularly in practice-based learning experiences (Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Badahir-Yilmaz and Oz, 2015; Brown et al, 2019; Kunzler et al, 2020). Froutan, et al (2017) equally support this notion of higher resilience in healthcare professions.

9.2.8 Student Selection as a Complex Process

The qualitative findings suggest the nature of placement allocation is complex and multi-faceted, placing a high value of the tutor role in understanding the individual student needs, their aptitude, professional identity and characteristics or traits. This was deemed to be done well facilitating successful allocation. Students recognise and advocate the need for selecting individuals to the more challenging placements, highlighting that those who present with attributes or characteristics aligned to resilience, such as assertiveness, confidence and determination, as well as being open-minded, self-aware and diligent are more suited to undertaking role-emerging placements in comparison than others. Qualitative findings also suggest that without taking into account a student’s perceived level of resilience and nature of their characteristics was deemed to be placing some students into a situation where they would unfairly struggle to cope through inappropriate allocation, loss of confidence, and even be set up to fail. Therefore suggesting that not all students have a propensity to these more challenging placements as indicated by earlier evidence (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000; Fisher and Savin-Baden, 2002; Wood, 2005; Kirke et al, 2007) or that other strategies are necessary to counterbalance and offset potential risks to students when immersing students in these settings as suggested by Clarke, (2012), Clarke et al, (2015b), Hunter and Volkert, (2016), and Clarke et al, (2019).

Earlier studies by Thew et al, (2008), Clarke, (2012) and Clarke et al, (2015b, 2019) postulate the need for all students to undertake role-emerging type placements recognising the value in developing professional identity and personal growth. However, the study findings that advocate this are based on participants who were in pre-registration study at master's level, in contrast to the undergraduate students in this study. The participants also chose a role-emerging placement suggesting a greater degree of confidence in their own ability to cope with such a challenging experience or relish this opportunity by opting for this in preference to a traditional one. With Davis and Asliturk (2011) drawing on positive psychology as an means of coping with anticipated events and adopting a realistic orientation with optimism. This arguably does at first appear to be at odds with the qualitative findings in this study, where it is very clear that participants hold a reticence over the aptitude of some students to be allocated to role-emerging placements. Furthermore, the participants in this study were allocated using a compulsory mode of allocation, being placed in settings where they would be deemed to thrive and embrace a role-emerging opportunity. Judgements of the placement tutor took account of the observable student characteristics, their professionalism and professional identity to ensure alignment between student and the setting, whether that be stronger students to role-emerging placements or those who are more suited to traditional type placements. Chapter 3 explores this through implicit personality theory and decision-making processes where intuitive judgements are made and can result in a higher quality outcome supporting the notion of a personal approach to allocation (Mikels et al, 2011; Minda, 2020).

Participants, using the benefit of hindsight, articulated that the placement tutor saw something in them that allowed them to work autonomously, with the confidence to know what to do and the insight to know they could cope with the pressure of the placement. This self-belief or self-efficacy is clearly pivotal in how students perceive their placement allocation. This perception held by students, that by being selected by the placement tutor was empowering helping students to rise to the challenge with one student stating 'you obviously saw something in me that allowed me to do that' and 'personality wise you've seen me struggle and seen me come through.. praps you knew I would pull it out of the bag'. Having faith, confidence and belief in each other is symbiotic in its relationship between tutor and student, therefore, supporting the personal approach to placement allocation. Williams et al, (2017)

discuss this inter-dependent bond between two individuals based on expectation that one or more will provide support and attention at times of need through attachment theory. A secure attachment style allows healthcare students to confidently seek support in times of stress and a less likelihood of burn-out. With occupational therapy students identified as having a higher incidence of secure attachment with adaptive characteristics (Williams et al, 2017) indicating the need for strong support mechanisms throughout the placement through effective supervisory processes similar to findings by Warren et al, (2016). Equally, Zhou and Urhahne (2013) articulate student success through intrapersonal motivation based on a teacher's judgement of their ability using Attributional Theory, first postulated by Weiner (1983). If the student perceives that the placement tutor believes in their ability to cope, it has an empowering impact by alleviating self-doubt and creating challenge stressors as they embrace the placement more positively

Findings indicate four out of the six students would not have chosen such a placement, lacking a sense of self-belief, confidence and reticence to expose themselves to the known challenges but were selected to undertake role-emerging experiences. They recognise retrospectively, they were purposefully selected as being resilient and demonstrating self-efficacy where perseverance and determination helped them to turn the experience into a positive one. These students vocalised a preference for a more traditional placement experience, which were perceived as less daunting and within their comfort zone. Students had insight to recognise that the selection process to the more challenging placements left them in a position where the decision was out of their control but was also not to their detriment. This study also supports evidence that learning situations that challenge and bring positive risk should not be avoided, and by creating them facilitates development and preparedness for future practice, similar to findings by Clarke et al, (2015b). They served as a motivating force with a sense of getting on with it and to live the experience regardless of how they initially felt, deeming this as being resilient (Zhou and Urhahne, 2013). Findings from the qualitative data also offered a consensus from all students that the selection process undertaken to allocate students into either role-emerging or traditional placements was appropriate, suggesting the personal approach to allocation by the placement tutor at the University is effective. In recognising the strengths, needs and aptitude of the students through professional judgement optimises the placement experience

(Minda, 2020) and more likely positive outcome in terms of personal growth, professional development and identity as in earlier research by Clarke (2012). Clarke et al (2015b) recognise the fine balance needing to be struck between sheltering students from difficult situations and allowing them to take positive risks to further their development.

It is noteworthy to consider the utilisation of compulsory allocation having different connotations depending on how the curriculum of a degree course is designed by a university. There may be an expectation that all students of a cohort undertake a role-emerging placement during their degree study as part of the mandatory requirement to accrue 1000 placement hours for registration (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke et al, 2015b; WFOT, 2016). There could be an element of choice and level of challenge within the range of placement settings available to students (Clarke, 2012; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). The range could extend from project type placements across a spectrum to the true role-emerging settings. The participants in this study were allocated to all of their placements on a compulsory basis, without a choice and are expected to fulfil this unless there is justifiable reason to change to an alternative setting. However, the students purported to the value of having expressed an interest in a certain area of practice that helped them to positively perceive a role-emerging placement despite this being through a compulsory process. Being interested in a specific sector, such as the veterans or primary school children, helped students overcome their initial anxiety of their allocation. Andonian (2013) supports this by suggesting that being placed in a setting of interest may positively influence motivation of occupational therapy students. This intrinsic motivation energises an individual allowing them to thrive and execute actions of mutual benefit to both the student and the setting as indicated by Brown et al, (2017a). Working with the client group in an area of practice, despite emotional demands and intensity is known to facilitate job satisfaction and that the majority of challenges to resilience come from organisational factors (Rose and Palattiyil, 2020). Findings of this study concur, in that the barriers students faced were primarily due to internal dynamics and organisational culture leading to frustration and the need for overcoming these through resilience, perseverance and self-efficacy. Therefore, suggesting students may need more support and guidance in dealing with this, putting strategies in place, alongside being closely supervised from

a clinical, profession-specific and service development perspective advocated by Warren et al, (2016) and Clarke et al, (2019).

The quantitative results of this study support the notion of deliberate selection, with the statistical data indicating that those students in role-emerging placements had greater levels of resilience prior to commencing placement in comparison to those students in traditional placements. Furthermore, the students in role-emerging placements developed greater resilience as a consequence of their placement in comparison in the students in traditional placements (Table 8.3 and Table 8.6). Therefore, suggesting that students have been placed appropriately using selection criteria whereby resilience is prioritised as a requisite for optimising the challenging experiences of role-emerging placements.

9.2.9 Placement Occurance and Stage of Training

There was a consensus of agreement that role-emerging placements should occur in the latter stage of training, with earlier, traditional placements being where students begin to develop a sense of professional identity, professionalism and underpinning knowledge of occupational therapy allowing them to develop as an autonomous practitioner over the duration of training. Boehm et al (2015), Clarke (2012) and Gray et al (2020) support this notion of the value of placement to facilitate professional identity and that the earlier, traditional placements offer immersion with occupational therapists for role-modelling and professional socialisation. This being supported by Brown et al (2019) where first and second year occupational therapy students reported deficits in coping strategies, referring to a reflection of their younger age and corresponding lack of life experiences. This is at odds with this study where age, maturity and readiness for role-emerging placements does not explicitly correlate with the personal approach to placement allocation allowing for individuality and student strengths and attributes to be accounted for in deciding who goes where. The evidence suggests resilience is higher in final year students and develops over time, increasing throughout the duration of degree study. It is therefore logical for role-emerging placements to be undertaken by students in the latter stage of training when their resilience levels are more likely to be optimised as indicated by Tambag and Can, (2018).

Qualitative data from the 6 participants brought a disparity in opinion as to when the optimum time is for a role-emerging placement and correlated to when they had themselves been placed in these experiences. This suggests that their individual personal success of completing a role-emerging placement influenced their perspective. Those undertaking these placements in the final year were of the opinion that confidence and the ability to practice autonomously would be less likely in second year and there would be a greater need for support. These students compared their placements to being qualified and having the freedom to practice autonomously. In contrast, those undertaking their placement as a second-year student described the benefit as a mode to accelerate development in terms of identity and resilience, preparing them more for their final placement and therefore placing them at an advantage. These findings concur with the study of Clarke, (2012) in that students are deemed to benefit from a role-emerging placement earlier in their studies to enhance and inform development academically and in practice-based performance.

9.2.10 Placement Preparedness

Strategies to embed professional development and confidence, including the targeted building of resilience in programme delivery throughout the period of study and comprehensive placement preparation could support those less resilient students to experience placements beyond the norm of mainstream healthcare settings (Thomas and Rodger, 2011; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b; Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020). Learning experiences facilitated in university including group work, simulation and role-play can be utilised to create challenging situations that aim to build resilience, positive risk-taking and coping strategies in students, similarly indicated by Jameson, (2014), Boardman, (2016), Bleasdale and Humphreys, (2018) and Kunzler et al, (2020). Furthermore, resilience can be developed and strengthened through strategies and curriculum delivery that opens up opportunities for problem-solving, personal reflection, growth and nurtures positivity, and confidence supported by Clarke et al, (2019). However, evidence offered by Kunzler et al, (2020) suggests a lack of robust research over the long term impact of interventions to develop resilience with a recommendation for further research.

Other strategies including support mechanisms such as a theory–informed workbook (Dancza et al, 2016), peer action-learning sets (Clarke et al, 2019) and developing the long-arm supervisory role (Warren et al, 2016) for students in role-emerging placements are more recently evidenced. Furthermore, varying levels or modes of non-traditional placements from project-type experiences and those on the periphery of mainstream healthcare, to the true third sector settings where the aim is to scope and shape role potential would allow all students to experience the opportunity for occupation-focused practice not necessarily seen in traditional settings (Clarke et al, 2015a; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). Learning and development standards laid down as expectations from the professional body advocate a range of practice -based opportunities across all sectors for students (WFOT, 2016; HCPC, 2017a; RCOT, 2019a). This opens up a means of accommodating students in placements where their strengths and varying levels of resilience can be optimised. Even with adopting these approaches, appropriate allocation and understanding of the students, their attributes and needs to ensure each is placed where they can thrive and succeed is a fundamental requisite underpinning best practice.

9.2.11 Placement Allocation Processes

The current allocation process used by the University, adopts a highly selective and deliberate approach to match students to appropriate placement experiences that is clearly drawing on a rationale that optimises outcomes, as findings indicate the students in role-emerging placements have greater resilience and adapt positively to the challenges. The notion of *cherry-picking* students to certain placements through a personal approach is supported by these findings and resonates with the intimate knowledge held by the placement tutor and supporting tutor team to allocate according to the attributes and perceived resilience held by individual students. Whilst this hybrid process is successful for the HEI and study sample, there must be consideration of the cohort size and demographic making this possible to achieve. Universities with large cohorts will inevitably be far less likely to build placement capacity for all students to experience role-emerging placements. Consideration must be given to achieving robust allocation processes within curriculum design and delivery, achieving the value brought by contemporary including role-emerging placements regardless of cohort size previously explored

by Thew et al, (2008), Clarke, (2012), Knightbridge, (2014) and Hunter and Volkert, (2016). Equally, resource implications offer a counter argument to the recommendation for all students to undergo a role-emerging or non-traditional type placement. Setting up and sustaining these placements is time consuming and often on a single organisation basis (opposed to a number of placements being hosted in one health board). Therefore capacity, demand and support processes may not be achievable or realistic for some universities particularly where placement allocation is under the remit of the programme team with limited practice based learning and administrative support. Whilst recognising the value of this hands on, personal approach, through this study, sufficient resources and dedicated roles must be secured for it to work in practice.

For universities with larger cohorts and where centralised placement units exist, it is unrealistic to adopt such a personalised approach to allocation or in practice fit within higher education institutions placement systems. Where a centralised, administrative system supports programmes with placement allocation or auto-allocation software is utilised will inevitably depersonalise the process and being system driven would almost certainly lack student centredness. A centralised placement team are less likely to have awareness of students' individual attributes and likely resilience to inform the allocation process and will be distanced from knowing the demands of specific placements. Whilst acknowledging the limitations of this approach to allocation of students to placements, it opens up a dialogue of possible strategies to overcome these. The use of personal tutor and placement tutor mechanisms to cross-check allocation of students to placement destinations to ensure suitability and appropriateness given the setting and placement demands cannot be disregarded within the process of placement allocation.

It could also be argued that with an endorsement of this approach and the notion of *cherry picking*, that there is a need to counter this with a more objective allocation process ensuring equity for all. There is a perception that the selective nature of allocation brings a risk of making assumptions and overlooking students who would benefit from these placements to the detriment of their development and personal growth previously maintained by Clarke et al, (2014b, 2015b). Findings from earlier studies suggest all students should have the opportunity to experience role-emerging or contemporary placements, achievable through comprehensive

preparation and robust support mechanisms being in place (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012). Participants interviewed in this study had undergone role-emerging placements through the *cherry picking* process and therefore have the benefit of hindsight and increased confidence, knowing they had been selected for their aptitude to embrace these placements, having successfully endured the challenges of a role-emerging experience. Whilst earlier studies sanction the use of role-emerging placements for all students, adopting this recommendation based on evidence of the value and benefit to those who undertook them, the participants in the studies were masters level, chose their placement setting and were allocated in pairs. In contrast, this study drew on participant perspectives studying on an undergraduate course, not automatically placed in pairs but also some on their own and placed as a compulsory expectation.

Furthermore, the use of measuring and developing levels of resilience in student populations from onset of study and throughout a healthcare degree programme across allied health and nursing subject areas will facilitate a greater scope for use of placement opportunities where increasing challenge is faced. Whilst not advocating the use of psychometric testing as a screening tool for selection onto a programme of study, that McGinley (2020) suggests is of complex debate lacking evidence, the use of self-measurement tools with students is worthy of consideration. This offers a means of establishing a baseline of resilience on commencement of study and re-administering at milestone stages, throughout a degree programme within the context of personal development, will allow students and tutor teams to support students in developing this explicitly. This supports the findings of McGinley (2020) where non-cognitive attibutes can be nurtured as the student journey progresses. Curriculum delivery within universities should embed resilience as a vital requisite that all students should develop alongside their profession-specific skills and knowledge (Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020).

The construct of resilience or propensity to thrive and the impact of this within the allocation process for different modes of placement for occupational therapy students has been explored in this section. This demonstrates the need to consider student characteristics that align with resilience as it is deemed an important requisite for all students. Strategies to explore and adopt in practice have been

embedded within the discussion but will be drawn together into the recommendations for practice at the end of this chapter.

9.3 Personality Trait in Role-Emerging Placements.

This study aims to bring understanding to why, in the placement allocation process, some occupational therapy students are deemed to have a natural propensity or aptitude making them more suited to role-emerging experiences. Trait theory, explained in chapter 3 is drawn on to inform this understanding of individual differences between individuals (the students), the traits they possess and their behaviour, using the five-factor model (McCrae and Costa, 2010; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Corr, 2019). These traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism are measured and presented as quantitative data in chapter 8. However, the student narrative captured as qualitative data in chapter 7 refers to personal qualities, the intuitive nature of individuals and inherent characteristics that are interpreted here through trait theory. Trait is played out in contextual circumstances through a person exhibiting and revealing characteristics or natural propensity and aptitude. The discussion explores the lived experience for the students in how they perceive role-emerging placements and attempts to interpret the meaning to explain how personality traits have an impact on the allocation of students to placements, the placement experience and are different according to the nature of the placement setting.

Trait is a distinguishing feature in personality and is a fixed construct typifying behaviour of an individual to a greater or lesser extent of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (McCrae and Costa, 1997, 2010). Maltby et al, (2017) states traits are units of personality that remain relatively stable over time and across situations. Therefore, measuring trait across two student cohorts and at two points in time (pre and post placement) allows for establishing differences and correlations. Both participant groups demonstrated no or marginal differences in the five personality traits between time one and two, being pre and post placement, which is to be expected given trait theory suggests these remain stable over time (Shane and Nicolaou, 2015; Maltby et al, 2017).

Using the Big Five Inventory scale (BFI) (John, et al, 1991) established that the occupational therapy students in the role-emerging placements scored slightly higher on the traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness compared to those in traditional placements. Whilst the trait scores were not statistically significant, it is possible to draw from the findings an overall trend that suggest a difference that may be determined in a study with a larger sample group. Students in the traditional placements scored slightly higher in neuroticism (or lower emotional stability) compared to the students in role-emerging placements. Therefore, the students in role-emerging placements are more stable, open to different and more unpredictable experiences. They hold qualities such as tact and diplomacy, being more agreeable. They have more confidence and are assertive, with greater self-efficacy. They possess higher levels of diligence and perseverance through being conscientious, and organisational skills. They are optimistic. Their traits indicate grit, hardiness and resilience (Merino-Tejedor et al, 2015) or propensity to thrive (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014).

There is an established correlation in trait resilience where high scores in all the Big Five factors are known to indicate a resilient personality profile (Connor and Davidson, 2003; Friborg et al, 2005; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017; Oshio et al, 2018). Resilience is negatively correlated with neuroticism and positively correlated with the other four traits of openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness and extraversion (Oshio et al, 2018). This study reflects the same correlation, in that resilience is negatively correlated to neuroticism but had statistical significance only in the students who had traditional placements. Resilient people are associated with intrinsic characteristics and factors as suggested by Beddoe et al, (2013) and Grant and Kinman, (2013a) that can equally be drawn from and applied to trait and individual differences. Qualities such as optimism, hope, adaptability, self-efficacy and empathy are all correlated to the construct of resilience and entrepreneurship. Character strengths enable an individual to thrive in their role through appreciating the positives and opportunities that open up, as well as buffering, managing and changing the adversities faced in life (Niemiec, 2019).

This study, in considering the selection of students for placement types is currently based on knowing the student's strengths, qualities, behaviours and the notion of *cherry picking* suggests the more capable student would be deemed more likely to

be placed in a role-emerging setting. The student could be perceived as a high achiever on varying levels, not just academically. High achievers possess many positive personality characteristics that enable them to thrive and succeed. This notion of high achievers, their resilience and extraordinary performance will be explored within each trait as previously evidenced by Sarkar and Fletcher, (2014).

The qualitative findings impart student perceptions of the process of allocation and in the role of the placement tutor in understanding the students and their aptitude or natural propensity for specific placement experiences. All students interviewed support the deliberate selection, perceiving this to meet the student needs at a very personal level, allowing for appropriate judgements to be made based on personality and behaviour. Whilst acknowledging that the participants all had challenging, yet positive experiences (indicating thriving) and on reflection saw the value of the learning opportunity, this perception may be different if the students had a negative experience, struggled or were at risk of failing (indicating adversity). Equally, the careful pairing of students to a placement was perceived as a valuable support mechanism and with complimentary styles of working together, generated a comardarie and a shared experience. However, for one participant, there was a clear difference in personality with their peer and their approach to the placement, causing some tensions and conflict, demanding greater resilience and diplomacy as the individual had to manage this as a further challenge. The pairing of students and to optimise peer learning is as critical to the allocation process as the alignment to the placement itself for all stakeholders previously upheld by O'Connor et al, (2012).

Students could legimately question their allocation and the fairness of being placed in a more challenging experience, potentially being set up to fail. For the less capable student, the risks of this become more apparent with the argument made by some that not all students are suitable to undertake these placements (Wood, 2005; Jepson et al, 2006) as supported by the qualitative findings of this study. Early concerns raised by Fisher and Savin-Baden (2002) over the fairness in placing students in settings where a qualified practitioner would equally struggle but acknowledged by Cooper and Raine, (2009) as a necessary risk for the profession. Qualities such as perseverance, being autonomous and professional were recognised by the students as requisite and perceived as being seen to possess these themselves. But equally, not possessed by some of their peers, suggesting

some students would find such a placement detrimental. Smaller student numbers were identified as being of value, allowing for knowing everyone as an individual, so universities with larger cohorts and centralised placement units would be less likely placed to adopt these processes.

9.3.1 Openness

Facing uncertainty and the unknown, typifies the student in a role-emerging placement with feelings of being out of control and out of their comfort zone emerging strongly from the qualitative findings mirroring earlier studies by Clarke, (2012) and Clarke et al, (2015b, 2019).

The openness trait suggests an individual is receptive to new experiences and is willing to explore new ideas using imagination and creativity, with Creek (2017) recognising this trait as an enabling professional characteristic required for working in marginal settings. People scoring highly on openness are typically unconventional and independent thinkers whereas those with low scores for openness prefer familiar and conventional contexts. These individuals prefer predictability, structure, routine and stability. Given role-emerging placements and marginal settings are known to be more challenging in nature, often with less structure and formality, it would be logical to assume students require a higher level of openness and a willingness to embrace the unknown, demonstrating a propensity to take a risk and explore a new opportunity (Creek, 2017). Clarke et al (2015b) describes this as *facing unchartered waters* and a feeling of being thrown in at the deep end. The trait of openness is associated with resilience, recognised as being a characteristic of resilient people supported by Grant and Kinman, (2013a&b), Beddoe et al, (2013), Sarkar and Fletcher, (2014), Merino-Tejedor et al, (2015), Sanderson and Brewer, (2017) and Oshio et al, (2018). Higher achievers possess openness to new experiences, actively seek these out and problem solve creatively when learning new ways of working (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014).

Students assigned to role-emerging placements scored slightly higher in openness compared to students in traditional placements, however, the difference one might expect was not significant. The qualitative findings offer some understanding as to why, in that the use of compulsory allocation of students to placements in the

University, does not allow for choice or opting for one type of placement above another. If students were given a choice, those with higher levels of openness would logically be more likely to opt for these more challenging placements that are known to create a *roller-coaster* experience, as reported by Clarke, (2012) and Clarke et al, (2015b). Where a choice is offered to fulfil the compulsory requisite of a role-emerging placement for all students, varying levels of non-traditional experiences would allow students to be matched aligning with their openness trait.

The students articulated an insightful understanding of why they had been chosen to undertake a role-emerging placement with over half of the participants indicating that given a choice they would have preferred a traditional placement, suggesting a reticence and self-doubt to embrace these more challenging experiences. Or not being as 'open' to new experiences to the extent where they would willingly embrace or elect to have a role-emerging placement. This also suggests their preference for more stability and predictability, that logically is more likely to be gained in a traditional placement with an on-site practice educator to provide role-modelling and structured learning opportunities.

Anxiety and feeling daunted was an overwhelming emotion associated with role-emerging placements, similar to earlier findings by Clarke (2012) suggesting the importance of support mechanisms and preparation. Those students who had previously expressed an interest in an area of practice overcame their anxiety of being placed there through rationalisation turning this into a positive with a keenness to embrace the opportunity despite their fear. Maltby et al (2017) describe this as situational optimism. In so doing, this positive adaptation helps to build resilience. Equally, students who are more open and relish the challenge of such experiences will thrive, perceiving the stressors as challenges rather than hindrances (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015). Where these placements are compulsory and an expectation that all students undertake a role-emerging placement requires clear processes are in place to encourage openness to these experiences. Placing students in pairs and having varying levels of placements beyond the periphery of traditional health settings are strategies evidenced to open up these experiences for all students as suggested previously by Thew et al, (2008) and Hunter and Volkert, (2016). Embedding positive risk-taking through exposure to various learning

experiences in curriculum delivery serves to develop openness in students preparing them for challenges in placement.

The students perceived that other students (their peers) would prefer to remain in their comfort zones and would equally choose to be assigned to traditional placement experiences. Participants recognised that students assigned to role-emerging placements have to be open-minded and independent bringing the requisite adaptability and autonomy necessary for thriving in these experiences.

9.3.2 Conscientiousness

Professional behaviour is an essential requisite for students in all placements but possibly more so in role-emerging experiences when the student is presenting themselves through the eyes of being an occupational therapist and representing the profession. Learning about professionalism and professional identity is therefore often accelerated in role-emerging placements and is clearly evidenced (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2014b; Knightbridge, 2014; Mason et al, 2015; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Brown et al 2019).

Individuals who score high on the trait of conscientiousness are diligent, demonstrating self-discipline and commitment, with McCombie et al (2015) suggesting occupational therapists typically score highly in this trait because of the nature of the role and working in a regulated health profession. They work hard, are organised and plan meticulously to achieve goals. Conscientiousness affords dependability and reliability, with the students being entrusted to deliver what was expected of them without an on-site educator to monitor their practice. The students reported to take their placement seriously and feeling the weight of responsibility mirroring earlier findings of Clarke, (2012) and Clarke et al, (2015b). Being motivated, tenacious and persistent allows a person to persevere and thrive despite the challenges and therefore builds resilience (Grant and Kinman, 2013a; Sanderson and Brewer; 2017). The students used preparation as a key coping strategy in helping to maintain control, drawing on resources on many levels. Being autonomous and proactive was perceived by the students as an essential requisite with an ability to self-organise as suggested by Shaw et al, (2014) supporting the higher levels of conscientiousness measured in role-emerging students. They

understood the importance of investing time and effort in the placement, therefore ensuring a successful placement with a positive legacy for the organisation and the profession more broadly. This commitment to learning will facilitate a strong theoretical base, through high-level cognitive functioning, as students apply their knowledge and skills to underpin their practice, building their professional identity, professionalism (Mason et al, 2015) and resilience (Brown et al, 2017b). The student's diligence, determination and commitment to the placement indicates high levels of self-efficacy that is known to facilitate development of resilience (Sanderson and Brewer, 2017) and integrity (Mason et al, 2015). High achievers take control of their thoughts, feelings and behaviours and are committed to personal development and mastery indicating the value of conscientiousness (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014). This suggests aligning to the construct of emotional intelligence discussed in chapter 3, that is known to be important for placement performance (Brown, et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018). Selecting the students who exhibit this trait suggests an understanding of its importance for optimising the opportunity, both for the student, their outcomes and knowing the student has demonstrated professionalism to a level expected of healthcare practitioners (COT, 2015; Mason et al, 2015, HCPC, 2016; RCOT 2019a). Equally this trait allows for the profession to be portrayed in a favourable light, reflecting on the students' performance and the positive legacy they leave behind, similar to the findings by Clarke (2012). Organisations where students have left such legacies, have a depth of understanding of the value occupation-focused practice can bring, enhancing service delivery and outcomes for their clients with the potential for creation of posts and career choices opening up for practitioners as suggested by Thew et al, (2008, 2018).

9.3.3 Extraversion

The students in role-emerging placements scored higher in extraversion compared to those in traditional placements and also scored slightly higher post placement suggesting placement had increased confidence. Individuals who score high on this trait thrive in exciting situations and environments reflecting the context of a role-emerging placement (Kolb and Wagner, 2015). This trait explains those individuals who are gregarious in nature and typically are sociable, friendly and optimistic (McCrae and Costa, 2010). By students perceiving their placement positively as an

opportunity suggests a strong sense of optimism and ability to thrive, balancing against those who believed their placement to be highly anxiety-provoking. Those who were less optimistic about their placement, facing adversity, but knew they had to dig deep to survive, would explain the development of greater resilience. It could be that students who would choose a role-emerging placement would be typically more extrovert, exuding greater confidence and perceiving this as an exhilarating chance to put their skills and knowledge to use, with Ashby et al, (2013) suggesting such opportunities allows for maintenance of professional resilience and entrepreneurship (Kolb and Wagner, 2015).

Facing and confronting challenging situations such as role-emerging placements draws on the interactive relationship between resilience and optimism that students held on to (Souri and Hansanirad, 2011; Beddoe et al, 2013; Brown et al, 2017a; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017). Being assertive and outgoing or extravert allows for a social confidence that is associated with resilience (Friborg, 2005; Minulescu, 2015; Brown et al, 2017a; Oshio et al, 2018). These attributes were identified by students as a requisite for anyone undertaking a role-emerging placement as there is a need to avoid being seen as an extra pair of hands (Cooper and Raine, 2009; Hunter and Volkert, 2016). Assertion and confidence allow the students to focus on the purpose of the placement and be clear in setting out expectations in developing the role and service. High achievers actively seek out stimulating environments and have a strong drive towards action rather than procrastination and deliberation (Sarkar and Fletcher, 2014). Identifying those students with this level of confidence is important to placement outcome success or where students have a lack of self-belief, perhaps less extravert but are capable of undertaking these experiences will build confidence as a consequence, as seen in both the qualitative and quantitative findings of this study. Therefore, supporting the personal approach to placement allocation and aligning students to where they are most suited.

Students in the traditional placements demonstrated a significant correlation between extroversion and resilience post placement. This could be attributable to a consequence of those students knowing they had completed a placement and come out at the end with a positive outcome boosting confidence.

9.3.4 Agreeableness

This trait indicates an orientation towards others and enjoyment of social interaction. Being agreeable brings compassion, loyalty and empathy (Bacq and Alt, 2018). Individuals having insight; they are tactful and diplomatic facilitating an ability to be socially aware. Individuals who score low on agreeableness are uncooperative, may be perceived as cynical, antagonistic, untrustworthy and unfriendly. For occupational therapy students, agreeableness would be a desirable trait, meeting with the values and qualities expected by the professions who deliver healthcare, where there is a belief in the value of practice and potential to create positive change in others (McCombie, et al, 2015; NHS, 2020). The quantitative findings indicate higher scores for the students in role-emerging placements compared to traditional placements, but this is negligible, suggesting the nature of being an occupational therapy student fits across all types of placement and the requisite to be agreeable regardless (Jamison and Dirette, 2004). McCombie et al (2015) equally pertain to occupational therapists as being perceived as empathetic and agreeable individuals, which logically means students of the same profession would exhibit these traits too, with Williams et al (2017) concurring with this in their study.

Research indicates a relationship exists between being agreeable and being resilient (Merino-Tejedor et al, 2015; Minulescu, 2015; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017). In this study the correlation between agreeableness and resilience was different between those students in traditional placements compared to those in role-emerging placements (Table 8.5 and Table 8.6). There was no relationship between resilience and agreeableness in students in the traditional placements suggesting they are less insightful and diplomatic compared to the students who had role-emerging placements. Higher levels of resilience are significantly correlated to agreeableness in students in role-emerging placements which indicates this trait is important and that qualities such as tact, insight, empathy along with modesty are requisite for the students. Beddoe et al, (2013) support this suggesting empathy, compassion and caring for others is a factor supporting resiliency as is agreeableness (Sanderson and Brewer, 2017). The qualitative findings discussed below offer some explanation and understanding of this correlation.

Qualitative findings indicated the students accepted their allocation to role-emerging placements despite anxiety. They accepted the decision and insightfully reflected on being someone who would not complain or perceived themselves as someone needing to be pushed suggesting agreeableness. Students were also flattered to be selected and recognised they would not be the best judge of whether they were capable but were glad of having the decision made for them. This fits with individuals being altruistic and modest who score highly in this trait (Capara et al, 2012).

The dynamics and organisational culture of role-emerging settings can result in fragility and tensions, so part of the allocation process is also understanding the less desirable traits of students that could be destructive, antagonistic and create a negative legacy. Over-confidence, lack of awareness and a personality that is not resilient were identified as undesirable traits that would could serve to be provocative and inflammatory causing conflict and rifts in the organisation. This potential for a negative legacy left by a student is not just detrimental to the student, but also to the University and the profession more broadly as perceptions are not just reflecting the student's behaviour but understanding of occupational therapy and its purpose. Managing the tensions such as conflict, expectations and the emotional *roller coaster* is a key role for the long-arm supervisors supporting students during role-emerging placements (Warren et al, 2016). With Brown et al, (2017a) suggesting that social competencies such as peaceful conflict resolution and interpersonal / cultural competence can be employed to promote thriving.

The majority of participants in this study had been placed in pairs for their placement. The agreeable nature they afforded was of value not only to the setting but was also regarded highly as a support mechanism, with students working together to overcome the challenges, building a comardarie and bond through the shared experience. Where there was tension between one student pair due to differing personality, it was clear diplomacy and social competency was paramount as the student attempted to resolve the conflict created by her peer. This study indicates the importance of selecting students for optimizing peer learning through personalities that compliment and work together, opening up opportunities for placing a stronger student with one who is less so. This could pertain to different levels of underpinning theory and academic attainment to inform the placement experience and role development as a complimentary approach to allocation.

All students in role-emerging placements required high levels of diplomacy and tact if they are to negotiate their way through the challenges they faced, reflecting agreeableness. Participants felt a resistance to change bringing a sense of frustration and powerlessness. Organisational culture and dynamics led to tension and resistance that is known to exist when students purpose is to create a new role and new ways of working with user groups. Dawson and Andriopoulos (2017) draw on Schumpeterian theory suggesting that innovation driving these new ways of being and doing, destroys what already exists, referring to this as *creative destruction,* that may not be very welcome within the placement setting. Staff and managers can place barriers in the way of the change process, possibly through lack of understanding of the scope of practice and embedding occupation or as a consequence of feeling threatened by the student. The students need to facilitate and influence change rather than impose it on the organisation (Kyte et al, 2018). This was achieved through being adaptable, diplomatic, willing to change to fit in, and getting on with the situation to make it work.

Students perceived the value of small changes of being achieved and frustration in the the slow pace in making this happen. Findings suggest a shift in thinking and expectation by students as the placement progressed. From initial high expectations to create change and embed an occupational focus was gradually overcome by a sense of realism and lowering of expectation as resistance to change became evident. This process of rationalisation and expectation of what could be realistically achieved on placement should be a core aspect of the student's preparation. Explicit preparation is requisite for students undertaking role-emerging placements to set boundaries, realistic expectations and ways of working (Dancza et al, 2018a) The attributes to facilitate change processes has a very clear link to professionalism and traits associated with professional behaviour that were identified in theme 6.

Agreeableness exerts significant influence on social entrepreneurship (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010), typically associated with marginal settings where role-emerging placements occur. The agreeable individual will use their trait characteristics including altruism, modesty, compassion for others and empathy to drive societal change (Bacq and Alt, 2018). The notion of prosociality and prosocial behaviours have been evidenced through individual difference with the trait of agreeableness aligned with self-efficacy as being pivotal (Capara et al, 2012). Whilst

this study presents limited statistical results of significance, the trait of agreeableness is clearly encapsulated within the qualitative findings and with those students in role-emerging placements exhibiting these characteristics, suggesting the profession is well placed to drive forward social entrepreneurship through prosocial behaviours (Creek, 2017). Equally the students in these environments showed higher levels of resilience that are positively correlated with agreeableness, again suggesting a propensity for these settings and establishing practice within these (Hocking, 2014; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Creek and Cook, 2017; Creek, 2017).

9.3.5 Neuroticism

Emotional stability, or the absence of neuroticism, facilitates an ability to be calm and to adjust and cope with stressful situations. Individuals with low neuroticism present with higher levels of self-esteem, optimism and confidence (Kolb and Wagner, 2015; Froutan et al, 2018).

Students in role-emerging placements scored lower on the trait of neuroticism, which again, although not statistically significant, is of note, suggesting the students undertaking these placements are more stable and cope with stressful situations, being calmer and less emotionally volatile. Emotional stability allows for engagement in new and riskier environments facilitating entrepreneurial behaviours that role-emerging placements create (Kolb and Wagner, 2015). The statistical data mirrors that of the participants voice and their lived experiences of being students on placement that emerged from the qualitative data.

These findings reflect that of earlier studies (Clarke, 2012) and also links back to the fundamental appropriateness of allocation. Inevitably there will be students who have greater confidence and exhibit the desirable personality traits such as extraversion and are more stable or lower on neuroticism, enabling them to relish the opportunity and thrive. These students are therefore likely to be more resilient allowing them to cope with these more challenging placements (Oshio et al, 2018). Low levels of neuroticism are indicative within healthcare professionals where emotional maturation and exposure to clinical situations require stability and coping abilities (McCombie et al, 2015) and correlate to higher levels of resilience (Froutan,

et al (2017). Furthermore, individuals with emotional stability (low levels of neuroticism) and extraversion are also known to promote a positive working environment and these traits are positively correlated to team working skills including the ability to communicate effectively with warmth and enthusiasm reflecting the students' strengths in their practice contexts (Brown et al, 2017b). This offers some scope to predict which students could thrive in these more challenging team environments.

9.3.6 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is explained as a personality factor in holding a sense of belief in your own abilities to achieve a goal. The belief system held by the students reflected their ability to influence situations, the choices they made, and the power held to face challenges in their role-emerging placements driving success and positive outcomes (Bandura, 2012; Beddoe, et al, 2013; Pérez-López et al, 2016). Those with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to demonstrate resilient adaptation and recover quickly from setbacks (Sanderson and Brewer, 2017) or thrive on the challenge stressors rather than react to the hindrance stressors (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Crane and Searle, 2016). The students in role-emerging placements clearly faced many challenges but approached these with a self-belief and intrinsic motivation, with Brown et al, (2017a) suggesting this energises and drives a high level of performance seen in those students with a natural propensity and aptitude to succeed.

Self-efficacy is explained through social cognitive theory and beliefs held in what can be achieved through a proactive personality driving behaviour and shaping entrepreneurial intention (Bandura, 2012; Wang et al, 2016; Fuller et al, 2018). The students exuded a self-confidence reflecting back on their success, recognising their capabilities to undertake a role-emerging placement and a tenacity to *do it properly*. This perceived competence, held by the students, in terms of a context-specific judgement of capability, strong professional identity and underpinning knowledge or theory-base is core for self-efficacy (Hughes et al, 2011). Confidence, competence and assertiveness being recognised as a requisite for students being selected to undertake these experiences (Hunter and Volkert, 2016). However, the students equally experienced fluctuating levels of confidence over the duration of the

placement combining self-belief with self-doubt, reflecting the *roller-coaster* nature of these experiences (Clarke, 2012). This suggests self-efficacy is shaped by thriving and successful outcomes, reflecting on these and by the development of resilience as a consequence (Bullough and Renko, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2013; Pérez-López et al, 2016). Earlier research supports this idea that self-efficacy evolves during placement experiences (Derdall, et al, 2002) and that it can be learnt (Ramparsad and Patel, 2014). However, Andonian's (2013) contrasting findings suggest this perceived self-efficacy can be less in high achieving students, as they doubt and question their outcomes measured against high expectations of themselves or could equally be quite modest and humble or altruistic. The qualitative findings indicate the students in role-emerging placements continued to question the success of their placement suggesting outcomes and legacy may not always be apparent, especially if only small changes occur as a consequence of their efforts. Equally if the organisation reverts back to custom and practice, not continuing with the innovation and resources the students put in place, could cast self-doubt and negativity over their achievements.

Students with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to challenge themselves and be intrinsically motivated to achieve their aspirational goals, described by Wang et al (2016) as 'conviction'. With linking trait and entrepreneurial intention to self-efficacy, with the findings of this study supporting those of Wang et al (2016) where openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness predicted preparation and conviction, whereas neuroticism does not. The quantitative findings indicate the scores of the students in role-emerging placements mirror those of Wang et al (2016). Individuals with greater self-efficacy and internal locus of control are deemed more likely to seize opportunities with Shane and Venkataraman (2000) suggesting individual differences and cognitive properties allow individuals to determine if there is a worth to exploiting an opportunity. The following section discusses entrepreneurship in the context of role-emerging placements.

9.4 The Entrepreneurial Mindset in Role-Emerging Placements.

The construct of resilience and personality trait theory is aligned with the construct of entrepreneurship through a synthesis of study findings, research evidence and literature. The entrepreneurial individual draws on and exhibits characteristics or traits to face challenges, even potential failure, demonstrating perseverance and tenacity that reflects a resilient nature.

Entrepreneurship and innovation are relevant to the occupational therapy profession deemed important in bringing creativity and diversity to shaping practice (Pattison, 2006, 2008, 2010; Anderson and Nelson, 2011; Scaffa and Holmes, 2014; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Kantarzis, 2017, 2019; RCOT, 2019a, 2019c; Doll et al, 2020). More broadly, healthcare challenges due to ageing populations with complex needs, chronic health demands and escalating costs of service delivery require extensive and profound innovation to expediate change (Hocking and Townsend, 2015; SCIE, 2017; Melder et al, 2018; Kantarzis, 2019; NHS England, 2019). Furthermore, pandemics of recent global significance and in times of crisis and disaster, drive change and entrepreneurship, as new ways of doing and being are requisite in healthcare (Keen, 2020) and in communities (Dees, 2012; Scaffa, 2014; Van Rensburg, 2018; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020). As a consequence, students of healthcare professions including occupational therapy must be allowed to develop an enterprising approach addressed through enterprise competencies, behaviours and attributes (WFOT, 2016; QAA, 2018; RCOT, 2019a). Role-emerging placements open up a means by which students can put these into play aiding their development, professional identity and ultimately broadening out the scope and diversity of practice within the profession (Cooper and Raine, 2009; Clarke, 2012; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Thew et al, 2018).

Role-emerging placements epitomise entrepreneurship and enterprise, serving as a platform to explore and develop practice. Students are expected to be entrepreneurial as they find ways of embedding an occupational focus in an organisation that does not have an established role or delivery of practice (Cooper and Raine, 2009; Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Dancza and Rodger, 2018c; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). Roy et al, (2014), Algado et al (2017) and Doll et al (2020) support the profession and its place in social

entrepreneurship linking the importance of human occupation, productivity and promoting enterprise to address health inequality and social injustice (Roy et al, 2014; Scaffa and Holmes, 2014; Van Bruggen, 2014; Hocking and Townsend, 2015; Zahra and Wright, 2016; WFOT, 2016; Creek, 2017; Creek and Cook, 2017; Saebi et al, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020). Students in role-emerging placements have to take up the mantle of social entrepreneurship, trailblazing the value of occupational therapy in organisations sitting beyond the periphery of mainstream health and social care (Cooper and Raine, 2009; Anderson and Nelson, 2011; McClure, 2011; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; WFOT, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; RCOT, 2019a; Doll et al, 2020; Molineux and Whiteford, 2021).

Whilst this study cements entrepreneurship within its objectives, the design and methods of data collection did not explicitly set out to measure and quantify entrepreneurial aptitude in the student participants. Instead, in recognising that the inherent characteristics of the entrepreneurial individual are reflected in both personality trait and resilience facilitated this objective to be met. Throughout chapters 3,4 and 5 and this discussion, the threads of each construct have been interwoven, indicating they are inextricably linked, each reflected in the other. The personality trait and resilience scales capture the entrepreneurial traits that are known to exist (BFI, John et al, 1991; CDRISC-25, Connor and Davidson, 2003) allowing exploration to elicit understanding of this construct. In hindsight this would have enhanced the findings, highlighted in chapter 10 as a limitation, but is deemed a realistic compromise in the study design given the synergies linking the constructs and personality theory. The scope to explore this opens up further research potential.

Research evidence exposes a synergy between the entrepreneurial personality (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010; Brandstätter, 2011; Leutner et al, 2014; Kolb and Wagner, 2015; Karabulut, 2016; Bacq and Alt, 2018; Fuller et al, 2018) and the resilient entrepreneur (Bullough and Renko, 2013; Ayala and Mazano, 2014; Pérez-López et al, 2016; Fisher et al, 2016; Adomako et al, 2016; Lee and Wang, 2017; Santoro et al, 2018). Similarly, grit and hardiness as interchangeable terms allows for perseverance, passion and tenacity in an entrepreneurial context to be explored through the student experiences (Ayala and Manzano, 2014; Lucas et al, 2015; Merino-Tejedor et al, 2015; Adomako et al, 2016; Fisher et al, 2016; Mooradian et

al, 2016; Mueller et al, 2017). Such a depth of evidence supporting the synergy between the constructs of entrepreneurship, resilience and personality trait theory corroborates across the findings of this study.

9.4.1 Entrepreneurial Characteristics

With Blundel et al, (2018) referring to enterprising individuals being adventurous, dynamic and making their mark on the world, the characteristics of entrepreneurs are widely accepted as being requisite to drive change. Striving to achieve and seek out new opportunities demands autonomy, self-efficacy, passion, alertness and risk propensity (Beugré, 2017). This study suggests the students recognise the need to be innovative, bringing entrepreneurship to their placement, with some achieving this more naturally than others. The need to develop 'new things' or being entrepreneurial was perceived as an unwelcome pressure by some, whilst students also not recognising they were achieving this by the very nature of immersion in a role-emerging placement. The findings reflecting the notion that occupational therapists do not typically consider themselves as 'entrepreneurs' in the conventional sense, but more as wanting to help people, in being creative and innovative through problem solving (Pattison, 2008, 2010; Anderson and Nelson, 2011; McClure, 2011; McCombie et al, 2015).

Certain traits aligned to entrepreneurship emerged more strongly than others from the data. Determination, self-efficacy and self-belief were highlighted as essential strengths to draw on in both the qualitative and quantitative findings, indicating conscientious, goal-driven behaviour by the students. Characteristics identified by the students reflect high levels of self-efficacy, driving their behaviour and actions throughout the placement as they focused on goal achievement and success (Santoro et al, 2018). Lucas et al, (2015), Mooradian et al, (2016) and Mueller et al, (2017) suggest the notion of 'grit' reflects the trait of conscientiousness indicating passion and perseverance of effort. The students articulated the need to act, to make decisions and make it happen regardless of the barriers they faced, assimilating this to a strong work ethic. The quantitative findings support this, with students in role-emerging placements scoring higher on the trait of conscientiousness compared to those in traditional placements. A positive correlation between resilience and conscientiousness (Table 8.5) was found but

only in students in traditional placements, suggesting students who are diligent and goal-orientated will build resilience but not necessarily reflect entrepreneurial trait. Participants referred to creativity and being a creative thinker, in particular achieving this through an aptitude for problem-solving, which is associated with the core skills of being an occupational therapist (Duncan, 2009; McCombie et al, 2015; Jerman, 2016). These interpersonal enablers encapsulating trait, motivation, values and beliefs are known to facilitate the development of entrepreneurial resilience (Lee and Wang, 2017).

Entrepreneurial trait expresses itself in the propensity to take calculated risks by seizing opportunity and driving this forward with tenacity and perseverance (Beugré, 2017). Role-emerging placements are typically an unknown and unpredictable platform in which the student has to immerse themselves and therefore is significantly more daunting and a 'riskier' option. This 'openness' to new experiences with potential risk, alongside the trait of conscientiousness has a positive relationship with entrepreneurial status, whereas, neuroticism and agreeableness are negatively correlated (Mooradian et al, 2016). In contrast, Nga and Shamuganathan (2010) established agreeableness and openness positively correlate when applied to social entrepreneurship and prosociality (Caprara et al, 2012)

The trait scores determining levels of openness alongside the qualitative findings of this study, indicate students were not as open to new opportunities, aligning to less of a propensity to take risks supporting Anderson and Nelson (2011). This suggests that occupational therapy students are less inclined to take risks that may be associated with contexts such as a business venture, but student traits align more so with participation and success in social entrepreneurship (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010). Schumpeter (1934) regards individuals who develop businesses by bringing innovation to market as 'conventional entrepreneurs' exhibiting risk orientation, passion, optimism and passion differentiating these individuals with other types of entrepreneurs who hold social values driving social change (Zahra et al, 2009; Dacin et al, 2010). This study therefore indicates occupational therapy students are not reflecting entrepreneurship in its customary realms of commercial, business venture but that their traits align with

entrepreneurship through driving societal change and diversifying the profession, shaping practice (Scaffa and Holmes, 2014; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020).

Focusing on social entrepreneurship allows for logical links to be forged between occupational therapy and students in role-emerging placements (Thew et al, 2018). The findings from this study indicate a positive correlation between resilience and agreeableness for the role-emerging students (Table 8.6), which is of note. Bacq and Alt (2018) determine that individuals who are more able to experience feelings of warmth, compassion and concern for others (empathy) are more likely to perceive an aptitude for carrying out social entrepreneurial activity reflecting the trait of agreeableness to be of importance (Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010). Dees (2012) suggests social entrepreneurs are motivated through 'compassionate impulses' driving their desire to facilitate change for the better (p323). Likewise, those individuals with high levels of agreeableness are not only empathetic but also altruistic in nature typifying characteristics of healthcare professionals (Burks et al, 2012; McCombie et al, 2015).

Each of the characteristics aligned with entrepreneurial behaviour will be explored in greater depth allowing for consideration of creativity, perseverance, tenacity, and passion, hope and optimism and the propensity to take risks.

9.4.1.1 Creativity and Agents of Change

Findings of this study established that students perceived their placement as a facilitator of change and that in their quest to succeed they found the need for creativity and resourcefulness in practice to overcome the limitations. Dino (2015) suggests creativity is the generation of new ideas and innovation is implementing these ideas in a specific context with an original outcome. Innovativeness as a trait is an enabler for entrepreneurial resilience (Lee and Wang, 2017) reflected in the big five traits, where individuals with high levels of openness are likely to be imaginative and independent thinkers. Rampersad and Patel (2014) expand on the traditional perception of creativity being an artistic, complex trait of gifted individuals, towards creativity being a collaborative process through effective leadership, inferring this a desirable graduate attribute for students (QAA 2018). For the students in role-emerging placements, this ability to be creative in how they develop

an occupationally-focused role in the setting demands self-efficacy and an ability to drive change through effective leadership, even as a student.

Creativity and innovation produce solutions to societal problems driving change over time from within practice and through education (Dino, 2015). Individuals with creative personalities are deemed more likely to explore new opportunities and create business ventures (Shane and Nicolaou, 2015). Capturing these opportunities brings a purpose and a value that students reiterated as being a motivational driving force to keep trying new ideas and the students set out their ambitions and goals as a way of driving change and as a means to embedding an occupationally focused role to their practice (Dancza, 2018c; Doll and Holmes, 2020). The students perceived themselves with varying degrees of creativity and some achieving this more innately than others. For the students who did not consider themselves innovative or creative, they felt a sense of pressure, understanding that in role-emerging placements finding new ways of doing was imperative. This concurs with Shane and Nicolaou (2015) who suggest creativity is influenced by situational factors and that individuals can behave more creatively than they would in other contexts. However, those with creative personalities with a genetic predisposition are more likely to behave in an entrepreneurial way.

Creativity and enterprise were perceived as beneficial, with this resourcefulness, identified as a characteristic and ability to use practical ingenuity for overcoming barriers in poor marginal settings (Roy et al, 2014; Creek and Cook, 2017; Saebi et al, 2019). Many of the organisations hosting students in role-emerging placements have charitable status and are run as social enterprises, so budgetary restrictions are inevitable with unpredictable funding streams. Entrepreneurship explores this overcoming of restraints as 'bricolage' and making something out of nothing (Zahra et al, 2009; Baker and Powell, 2016) with the students having very limited resources to implement their interventions forcing them to adapt and be creative. With Stenholm and Renko (2016) connecting entrepreneurial bricolage as a creative manipulation of available resources to find solution to a problem or generate new opportunities, driven by passion to survive and succeed. In the students' drive to prove their worth and succeed in achieving positive outcomes resorted to them funding some resources themselves.

9.4.1.2 Perseverance, Tenacity and Passion

The students in role-emerging placements scored higher on the trait of conscientiousness suggesting characteristics of diligence, ambition, perseverance and determination. Entrepreneurial persistence occurs when the entrepreneur chooses to continue with an opportunity regardless of counterinfluences and enticing alternatives (Holland and Shepherd, 2013). Being tenacious and determined in pursuit of goals allows for a greater chance of success. Whilst the students did not have a choice to follow alternative options, they still had to 'dig deep' and persevere to complete the placement. Perseverance and determination emerged strongly in the qualitative findings and supports the notion of passion that is associated with entrepreneurship (Mueller et al, 2017). Entrepreneurial passion or a *fire of desire*, deemed a core characteristic, motivates entrepreneurs, leading to persistence and goal-directed cognitions and behaviours (Cardon et al, 2009, p515). Through arguing that this intense period of time endured on placement, investment in time and energy creates a passion for the setting and purpose of the placement is a powerful motivational force, driving successful outcomes (Cardon et al, 2009, 2013). Equally, self-identity, its meaningfulness and its saliency to the student experiences also generate a passion that could be linked to the area of practice being of interest to the student. Cardon et al, (2013) suggest measures of passion integrate the two dimensions of intense positive feelings and identity centrality (p374) representing the positive legacy and positive impact on them as individuals articulated by the students. A sense of pride, personal growth, professional identity and boosting confidence in their level of competence through self-belief was strongly evidenced in the qualitative findings suggesting passion and career confirmation with a desire to be an occupational therapist, inspired by their endeavours.

Equally, the ability of students to choose their placements, either as role-emerging experiences or in a particular area of practice supports this notion of passion driving entrepreneurial success. Fisher et al (2018) explore the nature of passion being either harmonious or obsessive. By being able to freely chose to engage in an important activity with which the person identifies is a harmonious passion driving entrepreneurship such as a student in placement. Or in contrast an obsessive passion drives an individual to participate in an activity with which they identify until

the passion runs its course, such as a fad or new craze. If students are enabled or empowered to choose a role-emerging placement in an area of interest where they have a positive inclination, would help to nurture harmonious passion and enhance entrepreneurial success. Whilst our student cohorts cannot currently choose placements, they can express an interest in a specific area of practice. Several participants were driven to succeed, as a consequence of the placement setting being somewhere of interest in which they identified with, supporting the notion of choice to these experiences.

9.4.1.3 Optimism and Hope

The quantitative findings of this study indicate the students in role-emerging placements were lower in neuroticism than those in traditional placements (Table 8.7 and Table 8.8) indicating a higher level of emotional stability. Individuals hold a more hopeful disposition and positive outlook in contrast to being pessimistic, a negative characteristic associated with neuroticism. Optimism is a recognised characteristic in entrepreneurial individuals that serves as a motivating factor that drives them to act and to persist in order that they discover and exploit opportunities successfully (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Adomako et al, (2016) equally advocate optimism as an enabler in entrepreneurs' decision to persist is moderated by cognitive styles. Greater persistence is achieved through optimism driven by a creating and planning cognitive style (Cools and Van den Broeck, 2007), allowing the students to overcome the challenge stressors and thrive (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015).

Optimism and hope are known to be positively correlated with greater resilience (Beddoe et al, 2013; Ayala and Manzano, 2014) and human thriving (Brown et al, 2017a). Souri and Hasanirad (2011) suggest that optimism and resilience have an interactive relationship establishing that resilience results in optimism and optimism leads to resilience.

9.4.1.4 Propensity to take Risk

Entrepreneurs exhibit the behavioural characteristic of a propensity to take risks, alongside the visionary mission they aspire to (Beugré, 2017). Occupational

therapy, as a professional career choice, is not known as being ‘risky’ as it falls under stringent regulatory bodies to guide practice within statutory healthcare (HCPC, 2013, 2016; COT, 2017). The diversification of the profession is opening up more varied and marginal opportunities outside of the usual health and social care arenas (Cooper and Raine, 2009; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Creek and Cook, 2017; Creek, 2017; Kantarzis, 2017, 2019). The likelihood of greater associated risks in terms of financial stability, longevity of charitable and social enterprise organisations and lack of role status could impact on sustainability. There may be individuals within the profession who are more comfortable with taking risks and who will willingly step outside of the traditional roles undertaken by occupational therapists, whilst still being bound by regulatory standards of practice (HCPC 2016). The students, whilst not placing their own personal security and stability at stake through employment choices, are in fact exposed to the risks and the unknown of the setting. This refers back to the openness to new experiences in trait theory and choice discussed earlier in this chapter where the students would not opt for the role-emerging experience as they perceived the risks too great, creating anxiety and self-doubt. Role-emerging placements present opportunity to take positive risk and are balanced with sheltering students from difficult situations (Clarke et al 2015b). The students who had previously expressed an interest in working in emerging areas of practice, for example with the veterans or dependency detox would logically show a greater propensity for risk and also more open to possible failure. Healthcare students need to have learning opportunities within curriculum delivery where they can be exposed and encouraged to take positive risks in new contexts, building confidence and entrepreneurial skills (QAA, 2018).

The sense of potential risk of failure was articulated by students as being a reason for not placing certain students from their peer groups in these placements, potentially setting them up to fail because these individuals do not have the natural propensity and aptitude concurring with early research by Fisher and Savin-Baden (2002), Wood, (2005) and Jepson, (2006). The notion of risk also goes beyond that of the student, but equally applies to the placement tutor who makes professional judgements over where to place students (Mikels et al, 2011; Minda, 2020). With each student allocation brings a calculated risk, accounting for the suitability of the student in the setting, the suitability of the practice educator to support, guide and facilitate learning for the student and the known parameters of the placement setting

itself. Statutory health and social care services offer more governance and accountability, protecting the student compared to role-emerging settings. The role-emerging placement typically has far greater levels of the unknowns and therefore brings much greater risk with Clarke et al (2015b) describing these as *unchartered waters*. Hence, the requisite to place students appropriately and minimise the risk of failure and negative legacy.

Risk associated with inappropriate allocation, also applies to the negative legacy that a student could leave behind on completing a role-emerging placement. Where personality traits allow for animosity and antagonistic behaviour could create tension between the staff and student, leaving a poor impression of the student and damaged reputation of the University and profession. The qualitative findings highlight the *gung ho* student who could be unintentionally destructive, lacking professionalism and professional identity (Clarke et al, 2014a). Students scoring low on agreeableness would lack diplomacy and tact, identified strongly in the qualitative data, as a requisite trait for coping with the challenges of these experiences Where students are lacking assertiveness or score low on extraversion could result in them being side-lined, alienated or expected to be another pair of hands, so being at risk of not achieving the intentions of the placement, leaving the setting without understanding the value of occupational therapy.

9.4.1.5 Nurturing Entrepreneurial Individuals

The entrepreneurial disposition is widely acknowledged and understood, with evidence suggesting certain traits and resilience typify entrepreneurs (Brandstätter, 2011; Kolb and Wagner, 2015; Leutner et al, 2014). The students in role-emerging placements reflecting this through their creativity, their perseverance, alertness and ability to capitalise on opportunity driving success. Being less certain and open to discussion is the nature nurture debate and whether entrepreneurs have an innate disposition or fixed personality to behave and drive them in an entrepreneurial way or whether this can be nurtured and learnt (Bessant and Tidd, 2015; Mooradian et al, 2016). Trait theory suggests a stable and fixed nature of the 5 big traits with a synergy to reflect entrepreneurial characteristics, already highlighted. However, if, as McClure (2011) and Blundel et al (2018) suggest that entrepreneurship can be achieved through an active learning process, individuals have the potential to be

nurtured to develop entrepreneurial skills. Rae (2007) alludes to active learning being driven by motivation, curiosity and desire through discovery and creativity. Shane and Nicolaou (2015) suggest that a creative personality exists shaped by both genetic disposition and environmental contexts, being more likely to drive entrepreneurial behaviour. However, Rampersad and Patel (2014) suggest that creativity in leadership, driven by self-efficacy can be fostered through experiential learning. Therefore, programme delivery in the higher education sector can be designed and tailored to support occupational therapy students to achieve this, equipping them to embrace new opportunities that in turn help to diversify the profession (McClure, 2011; Anderson and Nelson, 2011; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Gash, 2017; Doll and Holmes, 2020). The current curriculum delivery for occupational therapy students already includes module learning and outcomes focused on creativity, innovation and business nurturing entrepreneurship and self-efficacy. The quantitative data supports this, in that curiosity or openness to new experiences, as a trait, whilst slightly higher in those students in role-emerging placements compared to those in traditional placements was not significant. This need to develop greater openness to new experiences also mirrored in the qualitative findings, with the participants indicating a reticence to choose a role-emerging placement. Anderson and Nelson (2011). This also aligns with entrepreneurs more likely to exhibit a propensity to take risks (Beugré, 2017).

As discussed in the initial section of this chapter, maturity is known to foster resilience as individuals joureny through life, facing challenges and adversity. These life circumstances are also thought to support entrepreneurship. Corbett et al (2018) suggest that the lived experience and perceptions shape motivations and actions driving entrepreneurial behaviour. The pull and push hypothesis (Schoedt and Shaver, 2007) suggests entrepreneurship is driven by a motivation to change and improve a situation (push) or that life circumstances can open up opportunity that can be seized upon (pull). With compulsory allocation to placement students are ‘pulled’ into the need for entrepreneurial action and did not intentionally set out to generate new services or ‘products’ but these happen as a consequence. For clinicians and for students who seek and can choose to embrace practice in new and diverse settings, would be a ‘push’ driven entrepreneurial intention. The students brought ideas, past experiences and professional judgements to guide their practice and entrepreneurial intentions.

9.5 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presents an exploration of the findings of this study through a discussion structured around the study objectives. The constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality trait have been drawn on to understand and articulate the natural propensity of students to undertake role-emerging experiences. In doing so, the complexity of exploring placement allocation based on the entrepreneurial traits, the resilient personality and the resilient entrepreneur have emerged, allowing for alignment and in-depth articulation. Theory, literature and evidence with their synergies, have been synthesised throughout to support the discussion, informing subsequent recommendations for practice. The chapter offers insights into current practice of placement allocation for one University and articulates the experiences of occupational therapy students studying at this University, focusing on those who have undertaken role-emerging placements. The discussion takes the data gathered from both quantitative and qualitative methods to capture the differences for those students compared to students who were assigned traditional placements.

The discussion offers understanding of how the traits and behaviours exhibited by the students studying occupational therapy align with those that social entrepreneurship demand, supporting the value that the profession can bring to this sphere of practice in delivering occupation-focused intervention to address social injustice. Occupational alienation and occupational deprivation impact on individuals, communities and, at a wider societal level across the world and occupational therapists have the skills, knowledge and attributes to address these within their practice. Role-emerging placements typify marginal settings beyond the statutory healthcare organisations and students are well placed to use these experiences as a vehicle for diversifying the profession as emerging paradigms shape the future.

Chapter 10 : Conclusion

10.1 Outline of Chapter

This chapter draws together the study and presents how it has contributed new knowledge to the current evidence-base, through a mixed-methods methodology, informing the use of role-emerging placements for occupational therapy students within an educational context. The study design and methods undertaken to explore the complex, interrelated dynamics of personality, resilience and entrepreneurship and their impact on role-emerging placements has founded a much broader application in practice to inform future curriculum delivery. The study findings not only inform understanding of the use and value of role-emerging placements, and a students propensity to thrive in these challenging experiences but of the need for education providers to futureproof curriculum design that nurtures these constructs. Resilience and entrepreneurship are vital for the profession and its growth through diversity. The students, as practitioners of the future have to be equipped to be responsive and adaptable to meet the needs of complex healthcare delivery. This necessitates the need for a strong professional identity and understanding of occupation as a core tenet to drive forward the paradigm of social change, empowering communities through well-being at multi-levels, in local and global contexts. In 10.5 a model for practice is presented to offer drivers and strategies for education providers.

As this thesis is under the remit of professional doctoral study, the research must inform practice, with recommendations borne out of the study being presented under two key categories. The first is focused on the student, their individual differences and how curriculum design and delivery informs learning and development that encompasses student selection, building resilience and that entrepreneurship is for everyone. The second is on the allocation process for placement itself and the preparedness of those with a stake in placement facilitation. Limitations of the study are presented, along with recommendations for further research. Final thoughts capture the essence of the study and draw closure to the thesis.

10.2 Summary of the Study

Practice education is a mandatory and pivotal element of an occupational therapy student's training, comprising of blocks of placement learning, where skills and knowledge are synthesised with practice (WFOT, 2016; RCOT, 2019a). Placement learning facilitates development of professionalism and professional identity (Clarke et al, 2015a; Mason et al, 2015; Gray et al, 2020), where typically a student has a practice educator to role-model themselves on. The body of research in practice-based learning is continually growing, informing pre-registration education, whilst also shaping the occupational therapy profession paradigms more widely through diversification (Thew et al, 2018; Golos and Tekezener, 2019; Clarke et al, 2019; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). Placements have traditionally been within the realms of mainstream health and social care settings, but with an increasing use of contemporary settings that encompass experiences in marginal settings and emerging areas of practice (Thew et al, 2008; WFOT, 2016; Dancza et al, 2018a, 2018b; RCOT 2019a; Beveridge and Pentland, 2020). The occupational therapy profession envisions the key role that it can play within the health and well-being agendas, driving healthcare delivery through platforms such as social enterprise, using occupation focused interventions at individual, community, and societal level (Creek, 2017; Thew et al, 2017; Tyminski, 2018; Golos and Tekezener, 2019; Laukner et al, 2019; WFOT, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020; Molineux and Whiteford, 2021).

The use of role-emerging placements is accepted as a norm in education practice and programme delivery, with the value to students in undertaking these placements clearly evidenced (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014b; Brown et al, 2015; Clarke et al, 2015b, 2019; Hunter and Volkert, 2016; Gustafsson et al, 2017; Dancza et al, 2018a, 2018b; Thew et al, 2018). These experiences, despite their challenges, and lack of on-site practice educator, accelerate development of professional identity and use of occupation-focused intervention in practice (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a; Linnane and Warren, 2017; Dancza et al, 2018a). However, the process through which students are aligned to different types of placement is variable across universities, with some using a compulsory allocation model to these experiences (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke 2012, 2014b). The University and occupational therapy students that participated in this study have a compulsory element to placement

allocation i.e. no choice to the type of experience undertaken but not all will be allocated to a role-emerging experience. Using a personal approach and judgement each student is aligned to a level of placement according to their attributes, behaviours and implicit personality. The process allows for the pool of placements available at any given time to be optimised. The placement tutor recognises the student strengths and needs, with understanding of who has a propensity to thrive in the more challenging placements, where students are typically placed in pairs.

In focusing on personality and the constructs of resilience (thriving) and entrepreneurship has allowed for a broader consideration of how these are requisite for student practitioners. From student selection and exploring aptitude and characteristics to meet professional demands, through to nurturing resilience and an entrepreneurial mindset within the curriculum delivery and the multiple platforms that can facilitate this in the student population. The study offers recommendations in the targeted use of resources and strategies, underpinned with a strong rationale to build character strengths based on the resilient and entrepreneurial personality. The study findings can be taken forward through the student journey, from pre-entry to transition into practice, with the pivotal stages in between to inform curriculum design with confidence.

This study generates robust evidence to explain and understand the alignment of a student to placement and paired peer through the constructs of resilience, entrepreneurship and personality trait. A mixed-methods approach was adopted to underpin the study, its design drawing on the strengths of combining qualitative and quantitative data to address the study aim and objectives.

10.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The remit of a professional doctorate is to demonstrate a capacity in applying the fundamental principles of practice-based research and advanced scholarship by making a significant contribution to knowledge and practice in a professional context (Maxwell, 2019). Maxwell (2019) discusses the modes of knowledge production, contrasting knowledge through ‘pure’ research typically associated with PhD study compared to knowledge being created within a context of application expected in a professional doctorate. The context allows for the ‘environment in which the

scientific problem arises, methodologies are developed, outcomes are disseminated and uses are defined' (p7) bringing an intrinsic value to practice.

Pre-existing research in the body of occupational therapy evidence of relevance has been developed through a range of studies. The most pertinent of these that contributes to the background of this study is the qualitative research by Clarke (2012), where the meaning of role-emerging placement experiences is explored to bring insight into this phenomenon. There is equally a small body of research that explores resilience, personality and entrepreneurship within the lens of occupational therapy. The uniqueness of this study, bound within a mixed-methods paradigm and methodology, using data collection tools and analysis from both qualitative and quantitative methods is bringing new understanding of this complex phenomena. The nature of the study and its aim to understand role-emerging placement experiences through personality and the constructs of resilience or thriving and entrepreneurship is a valid and robust contribution that is situated within the sectors of education, practice-based education and the wider professional arena of practice diversification.

This study is embedded in practice, adopting an insider research approach and explores the lived experience of a tutor and role in placement allocation of occupational therapy students at one university. The creation of new knowledge is bound within the context of how students are aligned to different placement settings and how their personality trait, resilience and entrepreneurial skills impact on the allocation, peer pairing and the placement experience. The findings presented in chapter 7 and 8, with subsequent discussion in chapter 9, suggest placements, particularly role-emerging experiences, build resilience and those students assigned to these placements exhibit a higher resilience than those in traditional placements. The students in role-emerging placements also scored higher in trait of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness. They scored lower in neuroticism or were more emotionally stable compared to students assigned to traditional placements. Higher levels of resilience are positively correlated with the trait of agreeableness, so the students in role-emerging placements with greater resilience are also orientated towards others, being tactful and cooperative, mirroring the findings in the qualitative data. This also reflects the value of selecting students to pairs that work well together, where the challenges they experience

builds a comardarie and shared bond through peer learning, whilst equally at risk of creating conflict and tension if personalities are not complimentary (Clarke et al, 2019). The mean scores of both participant groups indicate that occupational therapy students regardless of type of placement are highest in agreeableness and conscientiousness reflecting the findings of trait in students (Brown et al, 2016) and qualified practitioners (McCombie et al, 2015). Previous research indicates the agreeableness trait is a predominant requisite for social entrepreneurship (Bacq and Alt, 2018) therefore suggesting occupational therapists and students are well placed to adopt this scope within their practice (Thew et al, 2017). However, openness as a trait scored lower, echoing the students' reluctancy to undertake a role-emerging placement if given a choice.

Whilst the participants held the belief that not all students have the aptitude or level of professionalism for role-emerging placements, this study suggests that favouring the stronger student may disadvantage those who are not, mirroring earlier research. Positive, calculated risk rather than protecting the weaker student has the potential to build their resilience, supporting earlier findings, where evidence indicates all students should be exposed to contemporary placements to facilitate accelerated development of professional identity (Clarke, 2012). Therefore, understanding and minimising the risk(s) for the student, the University and placement provider is key to opening up these experiences to all students. Equally, exploring student strategies to support them in these experiences must be adopted if they are to be open to all (Clarke et al, 2019).

This is however, bound within the realms of practicalities, resources and sufficient placement capacity for this in practice, with the need to develop a placement portfolio across a range of settings, alongside robust student development strategies embedded into the curriculum. Contemporary placements can take different forms, with varying levels of expectation and focus, making them more or less challenging for the student depending on the context; so, even making these experiences compulsory still requires appropriate allocation. The study supports the value of the personal approach to aligning students to specific placements by understanding student strengths, needs and attributes, therefore optimising placement outcomes for both the students and the setting, whilst offsetting this with

benefit of choice and student preference for an area of practice (Thew et al, 2008; Clarke, 2012).

This study brings understanding that personality trait is known to be stable and fixed over time, with a genetic disposition to exhibit certain traits but the characteristics aligned with traits can be shaped by social and cognitive environments and contexts, suggesting students can learn and develop qualities such as self-efficacy and emotional intelligence (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2016). Students can learn and understand professionalism and develop behaviours that are requisite to being and becoming a professional through programme delivery and placement experiences (Mason et al, 2015; ADEE, 2020; Childs-Kean et al, 2020) with role-emerging placements accelerating ontological development and professional identity (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a). Equally, in understanding that resilience develops through exposure to experiences nurturing positive adaptation and that entrepreneurial skills can be learnt is imperative to taking the study findings forward.

Therefore the education provider has to aid students to identify and understand their own traits, build resilience and learn entrepreneurial skills. Supporting students to embrace positive risk-taking and being open to new experiences will in turn nurture resilience, creativity, entrepreneurship and fundamentally, greater diversity in practice. The study opens up a dialogue of how and when to capture a baseline of these characteristics and attributes in students. This can be explored through recruitment and admissions processes to determining those students who are most aligned to the profession and becoming an occupational therapist, whilst recognising the student journey itself can facilitate outcome success questioning selection based on non-cognitive attributes (McGinley, 2020). This can also be used to construct sequential learning and robust development opportunities within curriculums to nurture and build resilience (Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018; Kunzler et al, 2020), openness to experience, and creativity through entrepreneurship (QAA, 2018).

It can be concluded current practice is, therefore, appropriate and optimises the placement outcomes, placing students with the greater propensity into these experiences and highlights the importance of pairing students to enhance this. However, to expand the use of role-emerging placements effectively needs to take account of the multi-facets underpinning occupational therapy education more

broadly alongside the individual differences of the student population, facilitating a greater certainty and predictability of the allocation process.

The contribution of this new knowledge can be confidently taken into the higher education sector and applied to curriculum design and delivery within the occupational therapy subject area and a wider allied health arena. This study identifies the importance of understanding personality trait and individual difference in students, alongside the requisite for professionalism, resilience and entrepreneurial skills to be nurtured for the benefit of the students and the occupational therapy profession. The adoption of a robust mixed-methods approach has allowed for a unique and valuable insight to be offered in understanding the complexity of personality, resilience and entrepreneurship through the platform of role-emerging placements that can inform the occupational therapy profession and education sector more widely.

10.4 Recommendations for Practice

By taking forward the findings of the study and the dialogue constructed in chapter 9, allows for recommendations to be made, fulfilling the remit for new knowledge to be placed within the practice arena. The recommendations fall into broad categories, one being based on the student, their individual differences and how they learn and develop as student practitioners. This encompasses the need for effective curriculum design explicitly nurturing resilience, entrepreneurship and professional behaviours including emotional intelligence. The recommendations go beyond this, to consider recruitment and admissions within selection processes for occupational therapy students entering a programme of study. The second category explores recommendations of the placement allocation process and preparedness of those with a stake in the placement facilitation.

The complexity of this study and application in practice is explained through a conceptual model that aligns the constructs along the student journey and requisite for developing professional competence and identity. The model is depicted in Figure 10.1 and has been adapted from the Challenge-Hindrance Model (Cavanaugh et al, 2000).

Figure 10-1 - Conceptual Model of the Development of Professional Competence and Identity (Adapted from the Challenge-Hindrance Model. Cavanaugh et al, 2000)

10.4.1 Curriculum Design and Facilitation of Learning and Development

10.4.1.1 Student Selection and Individual Differences

Curriculum delivery and placements are pivotal to serve in helping a student develop beyond skills and knowledge, but to help them understand what is expected of them as a professional and to adopt such behaviours through self-awareness of their own attributes and traits. Professional attitudes can be more difficult and complex to nurture in some students: some attributes may come more naturally to some students whereas others must be developed (Childs-Kean et al, 2010).

Exploring aptitude or the natural propensity of students to undertake role-emerging placements and optimise the outcomes of these experiences, indicates the importance of certain traits and higher resilience or ability to thrive as a desirable requisite, (Sullivan and Finlayson, 2000). Universities, will utilise different strategies and processes in student recruitment, allowing selection of individuals to an occupational therapy degree programmes that mirror the desired personality and resilience for healthcare as a career choice (Grice, 2013; Thomas et al, 2017). The selection process undertaken by the University affiliated with this study, employs rigorous methods, activities and values-based interviews to determine which students are more suitable for entering the profession exhibiting core personal and professional attributes, behaviours and values (RCOT, 2019a).

The possible use of psychometric testing of candidates prior to admission onto healthcare programmes, advocated as being of benefit, could capture those students who score highly in resilience, with a creative personality and desirable traits, aligned with professionalism (Childs-Kean et al, 2020). However, Mason et al (2015) and McGinley (2020) also suggest the need for further research around use of professionalism scales and predicting suitability within allied health. By fitting the person's current skill set to the expected role (Patterson and Zibarras, 2017), brings a danger of excluding those individuals who have a potential to develop and opposes the thinking that the constructs of professionalism, resilience and entrepreneurship are a dynamic process nurtured over time. This approach, or model, also narrows the diversity of practitioners entering the profession, at a time when career paths are wide and varied, accommodating graduates with differences for divergent practice arenas. The profession embraces diversity with practitioners across the globe adopting cultural contexts, meeting needs of communities with student demographics matching demographics of the local population (WFOT, 2016). There is, however, merit in using recruitment platforms to highlight to potential applicants wishing to enter the profession, the qualities and attributes that are necessitated for entering a career in occupational therapy (McGinley, 2020).

Psychometric testing in student selection is therefore not considered to be adding value to existing screening and selection processes but could be used as a tool in establishing a student's resilience, creativity and traits to provide a baseline for personal development on commencement of study (McGinley, 2020). The use of values-based recruitment and multi-mini interviews are advocated and increasingly used in preference to traditional interviews; designed to identify and capture students who are appropriate, where the stations present opportunity to explore ethical dilemmas, reasoning, self-awareness, team working, professionalism, and communication skills (Grice, 2013; Chambers et al, 2016; Thomas et al, 2017). Objective recruitment with a clear remit over desirable attributes alongside academic attainment is an initial tool to ensuring students wishing to enter the profession are selected appropriately (Holmstrom, 2014; McGinley, 2020).

Employing use of self-rating scales at points in time across the duration of the student's study, will help identify traits held by the student, alongside their resilience levels and entrepreneurial traits. Self-measurement of non-cognitive abilities would

allow students to explore their own attributes, behaviours, protective factors, and personal enablers (Brown et al, 2017a; Childs-Kean et al, 2020). By students identifying their own characteristics and traits, raising their self-awareness, in turn allows for potential for personal growth through use of development platforms including support mechanisms / personal tutee systems and learning / experiential opportunities delivered through the curriculum (McGinley, 2020). Furthermore, embedding explicit platforms to nurture reflectivity in both academic and placement performance will enhance a students sense of self, being and becoming as a student practitioner.

The construct of emotional intelligence aligned with personality trait can equally be measured in students as a benchmark predictor of team working skills (Brown et al, 2017b) and importantly fieldwork or placement performance (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018). The affective aspects of personality such as agreeableness, reflected in emotional intelligence allow students to manage situations effectively (McKenna and Mellson, 2013). Emotional intelligence, can be measured using scales to establish qualities such as empathy, insight, integrity and emotional stability, aiding indicators of professional behaviours (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2016). Managing emotional competencies is vital if students are to navigate their way through placement experiences and optimise outcomes. Managing stressful situations through employing emotional intelligence nurtures resilience (Schneider et al, 2013). Providing students with strategies and learning experiences that develop self-awareness and reflective skills are essential and these can be synthesised throughout study but have greatest value pinned to placement preparation and consolidation. The students who perform poorly on placement will benefit from additional support and development opportunities (Brown et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018).

10.4.1.2 Building Resilience and Ability to Thrive

This study supports the value of role-emerging placements in nurturing ontological development, professional identity and resilience as a consequence of students undertaking these more challenging experiences advocating all students should benefit from this (Clarke, 2012; Clarke et al, 2014a, 2014b, 2015a, 2015b). However, experiences of the COVID-19 pandemic have heightened the need for

developing resilience by all stakeholders, indicating healthcare practitioners and students have a duty to use strategies that build an ability to cope and positively adapt from challenges to help them thrive personally and professionally. Placement environments now allow all students to situate themselves in practice where expectations are hugely challenging and should serve to develop resilience regardless of the setting.

Resilience, as this is a key requisite to becoming a healthcare practitioner must be embedded explicitly in the educational context if all students are to develop this. Building resilience will allow students to be more likely to thrive rather than just survive particularly in practice (Beddoe et al, 2013; Grant and Kinman, 2013a; Brown et al, 2017a; Bleasdale and Humphreys, 2018). Curriculum delivery should emphasise the development of individual competencies associated with resilience from the outset of a student's time of study, with Reyes et al (2015a) and Bleasdale and Humphreys (2018) viewing resilience as a dynamic process that can be learned and enhanced. This ability to progressively develop resilience over the duration of a period of study, facilitates greater levels of resilience seen in later stages correlating to when most likely a role-emerging placement would be undertaken (Tambag and Can, 2018). However, Kunzler et al (2020) conclude effectiveness of resilience 'interventions' within healthcare training requires more robust and geater evidence particularly in its impact beyond the short to medium term. The nature of targeted training may improve resilience and reduce stress and anxiety but current evidence is lacking and further research is recommended.

Whilst resilience and hardiness are advocated as of importance in healthcare education (Jameson, 2014; Reyes et al, 2015a; McGowan and Murray, 2016; Sanderson and Brewer, 2017; Kunzler et al, 2020) the way in which this is facilitated is less defined (Reyes et al, 2015b). With De Witt (2017) arguing that resilience cannot necessarily be taught with a 'one size fits all' classroom approach and that it is a personal construct affected by internal and external factors that may not be within the sphere of educators to influence. A dialogue and understanding of what it is to be resilient from a personal definition, identifying protective factors (Wong, 2011; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013; Beddoe et al, 2013) and world-view needs to be explored before any educational training and interventions are utilised (De Witt, 2017). Helping students to understand their own stress-coping mechanisms and that

some stressors can challenge (in a positive sense), others are a hindrance (Flinchbaugh et al, 2015; Crane and Searle, 2016) and the value to exploring how these align or are perceived by students in relation to placements. Equally, performance expectations and the impact of academic failure can be normalised to build resilience through effective student support mechanisms and tutoring systems (Edwards and Ashkanasy, 2018).

Strategies, techniques and activities such as mindfulness or reflective journals increasing awareness of personal journeys and motivations are pivotal (Misretta et al, 2020). Improving self-efficacy and self-regulation help to build resiliency (Boardman, 2016) and emotional intelligence (Andonian, 2013; Brown et al, 2016; Gribble et al, 2018). Mentorship programmes and mechanisms that bring positive and nurturing professional relationships and a sense of belongingness (Meredith et al, 2011; Bahadir-Yilmaz and Oz, 2015; Clarke et al, 2019), with Reyes et al (2015b) advocating the importance of the teacher-student relationship to students' development of resilience.

Engagement and connection can be achieved through comprehensive support mechanisms, personal tutee systems and development platforms embedded at the core of the curriculum (Clarke et al, 2019). This symbiotic relationship between tutor and student facilitates a belief in each other that is a powerful enabler, placing students in situations where there is confidence they will thrive. Equally students gain confidence knowing that you have faith in them to cope and succeed. The resilience of individuals is reflected in nurturing relationships and a belongingness within universities with Bleasdale and Humphreys (2018) suggesting consideration of the extent that this is supported through the physical environment and use of space, student societies and staff-student events.

Uncomplicated strategies to develop resilience can be easily embedded: encouraging students to seek support, either through university, placement mechanisms and by family, friends and peers (Clarke et al, 2019). Students must learn to identify the locus of control enabling them to focus on what they themselves can change to improve a situation. Self-esteem and belief in ability brings confidence and builds resilience through various platforms and support mechanisms. Curriculum delivery can equip students with understanding of their

own identity as an occupational being, the importance of goal setting and maintaining their own health and well-being (HCPC, 2020).

10.4.1.3 Entrepreneurship is for everyone

Entrepreneurship is a requisite for the occupational therapy profession if it is to diversify and meet the shifting health and well-being agendas. Occupational therapy students must be equipped with entrepreneurial skills and business acumen giving them the confidence to shape practice and healthcare delivery (McClure, 2011, Doll and Holmes, 2020). Being entrepreneurial, is not just for the elite in search of business venture success but is relevant to health and social care and can be achieved as an active learning process that nurtures creativity and *thinking outside of the box* (Patterson and Zibarras, 2017). This aligns with the core skills such as problem-solving that occupational therapists need in their practice. Occupational therapy students need to be open to new experiences, hold a strong self-belief or self-efficacy in their own abilities and be motivated and autonomous to drive forward their own goals (Andonian, 2013). A curriculum that exposes students to a breadth of opportunities where they develop confidence, learn to take risks and that positively rewards new experiences will facilitate and nurture creativity.

Universities must design curricula and learning activities that create a culture to facilitate enterprise awareness, an entrepreneurial mindset, capability and effectiveness (Davey et al, 2016; Lindner, 2018; QAA, 2018). Both curricula and extra curricula learning such as engagement in university societies (Mitchell and Bozward, 2014), will support students to become more entrepreneurial, with a recommendation to develop this through adopting specific higher education guidance to inform enterprise and entrepreneurship education (QAA, 2018). Modules that help students to explore leadership and innovation in practice could be developed further to include intellectual property, taking ideas forward into execution through scoping, marketing and production of ‘products’ with a commercial viability and value. Equally, social entrepreneurship can be nurtured through curriculum delivery and experiential learning (Boore and Porter, 2011; Davey et al, 2016) exploring community-based approaches with students being immersed in social enterprise opportunities such as volunteering and contemporary placements in the third sector. Hence, this study supports earlier research

recommending that all students are placed in role-emerging placements where entrepreneurial skills and resilience can be developed.

The Quality Assurance Agency offer specific guidance that occupational therapy educators can adopt within curriculum delivery to develop:-

a) Enterprise behaviours: taking the initiative, making things happen, reflecting, communicating, pivoting and adapting, storytelling, taking responsibility, networking, personal effectiveness and managed risk taking.
b) Enterprise attributes: open mindedness, proactivity, curiosity, self-efficacy, flexibility, adaptability, determination and resilience.
c) Enterprise competencies: intuitive decision making, identifying opportunities, creative problem solving, innovating, strategic thinking, design thinking, negotiation, communicating, influencing, leadership and financial, business and digital literacy.

(QAA, 2018)

And that developing an entrepreneurial mindset in students is becoming:

- self-aware of personality and social identity
- motivated to achieve personal ambitions and goals
- self-organised, flexible and resilient
- curious towards new possibilities for creating value
- responsive to problems and opportunities by making new connections
- able to go beyond perceived limitations and achieve results
- tolerant of uncertainty, ambiguity, risk, and failure
- sensitive to personal values, such as ethical, social, diversity and environmental awareness.

(QAA, 2018)

Education providers should explicitly aim to nurture occupational therapy students to develop in their resilience and entrepreneurial skills through curriculum delivery including practice-based learning and engagement in extra-curricular activities such as student societies. Students should be offered opportunities to gain understanding of their own trait, resilience and creativity and to explore how these can be developed over the duration of study. Psychometric testing could be used to establish this at relevant milestone stages of training within development review

processes. The key is to minimise potential risks and to open up positive risk taking opportunities for students, universities and placement providers.

10.4.2 The Placement Allocation and Placement Facilitation Processes.

10.4.2.1 Choice v Compulsory Allocation

This study established that choice of placement can be beneficial as the student is incentivised to undertake the experience with a greater sense of ownership and motivation concurring with earlier studies (Clarke, 2012). Equally, students indicated that given a choice they would have opted for a traditional placement, lacking confidence and self-belief to undertake the more challenging placements. This study established that immersing students in these experiences, where they had no choice, can enhance development of resilience by the very nature of being thrown in and having to thrive. The students rose to the challenge, drawing on their personal enablers and protective factors as they steered their way through the placement. As with earlier research, placing students in pairs optimises the placement experience through effective peer learning (Edwards and Thew, 2011; Hunter, 2012; O'Connor et al, 2012; Treseder, 2012; Clarke et al, 2015b; Warren et al, 2016; Thew et al, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). The recommendation, therefore, is that all students should be expected to undertake contemporary placements, ideally in pairs, but not necessarily given a choice of where they are placed. Risk assessments of each placement setting, and context will identify the potential demands and challenges that could be placed on the student. Understanding the student's individual differences in traits, resilience and creativity will enable alignment of each student to placement environments where they are most suited with greater certainty and predictability. The selective and careful use of psychometric testing will serve to provide such understanding of a students individual differences and focus development needs. Similarly, an awareness of emotional intelligence, with the potential to measure this in students will aid the allocation process. Placing those students with a natural propensity to those placements known to create a greater challenge, whilst considering the demands of more supportive placements for those students who would not previously be deemed capable of role-emerging experiences. Students understanding their own personality traits, resilience and

creativity would serve to develop self-efficacy and confidence, reflected in emotional intelligence, achieved through the mechanisms discussed earlier in 10.3.1.

10.4.2.2 Support mechanisms and Preparation

The need for various support mechanisms is critical to the successful outcomes of role-emerging placements, for the student, on-site supervisor and long arm supervisor (Warren et al, 2016; Copley and Dancza, 2018; Clarke et al, 2019). Students must be provided with clear platforms of support as they prepare for, and negotiate their way through the placement experience. There is a need for the University to work closely with the placement provider to set out clear expectations and accountability, with placement agreements going part way to achieving this. However, different levels of governance can undermine this in practice, as the organisations can be non-conformist in their structures and processes. On-site supervision can be sporadic and limited. As a consequence, the role of the long-arm supervisor becomes pivotal as the students face the challenges, making this a more intense and demanding process (Warren et al, 2016). Preparing both the student and long-arm and on-site supervisor is essential prior to commencement of the placement and there is a value in undertaking this as a joint process to bring clarity and collaboration (Thomas and rodger, 2011). It is recommended that the University and education provider invest time in comprehensive preparation to optimise the student experience and placement outcomes (Copley and Dancza, 2018). The support will help students to understand the dynamics and organisational culture with greater objectivity and guide them in realistic solutions and strategies to overcome the challenges through effective conflict management.

Educators need to prepare students for the realities of the placement experience and guide them to set realistic expectations. Students need to be assertive in seeking out support as they deal with hindrance stressors and be aware of their protective factors including the wider support network such as family to maintain their well-being (Wilks and Spivey, 2010; Grant and Kinman, 2013b; Brown et al, 2017a; Clarke et al, 2019).

It is recommended that placing students in pairs facilitates peer support mechanisms that are valued by the students (Clarke et al, 2019). However, this is dependent on a pairing that brings mutual support and benefit rather than conflict

and differing approaches to the placement. The student who is less diplomatic or overly confident has the potential to cause friction amongst the pair and within the organisation. However, a less confident student, paired with a strong student could in contrast work well. The pairing of students therefore requires consideration within the allocation procedures and supports the deliberate selection of which students are placed together, based on attributes, strengths and needs.

10.5 A Model for Practice

This chapter draws together and presents the study findings and how these can offer a contribution to new knowledge. To facilitate and inform the application in practice, a model has been constructed to depict how personality and the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship can inform student development of competence and professional identity. The complex relationships between the constructs are embedded into the student journey, with pivotal stages highlighted to indicate the process of growth and development. These start with student selection, commencing study, curriculum design and delivery and lastly, the transition to practice. At each stage there are key drivers and strategies that can be used to inform education providers of how to nurture resilience, or a propensity to thrive and an entrepreneurial mindset in students. The fundamental requisite to shape students throughout their journey to being and becoming competent occupational therapists is at the heart of the model and is equally shaping the profession through diversification.

The model embeds personality at the core, informing both resilience and entrepreneurship. The fixed nature of our personality is discussed in chapter 3 and is measured to determine the student traits and their correlation to resilience. However, the nature of our characteristics we hold is shaped by experiences and social cognitive processes that can be integral to curriculum design and delivery. Resilience and an entrepreneurial mindset can be developed through adopting a targeted and focused educational approach. The model is designed to frame the process for developing competence and professional identity in occupational therapy education.

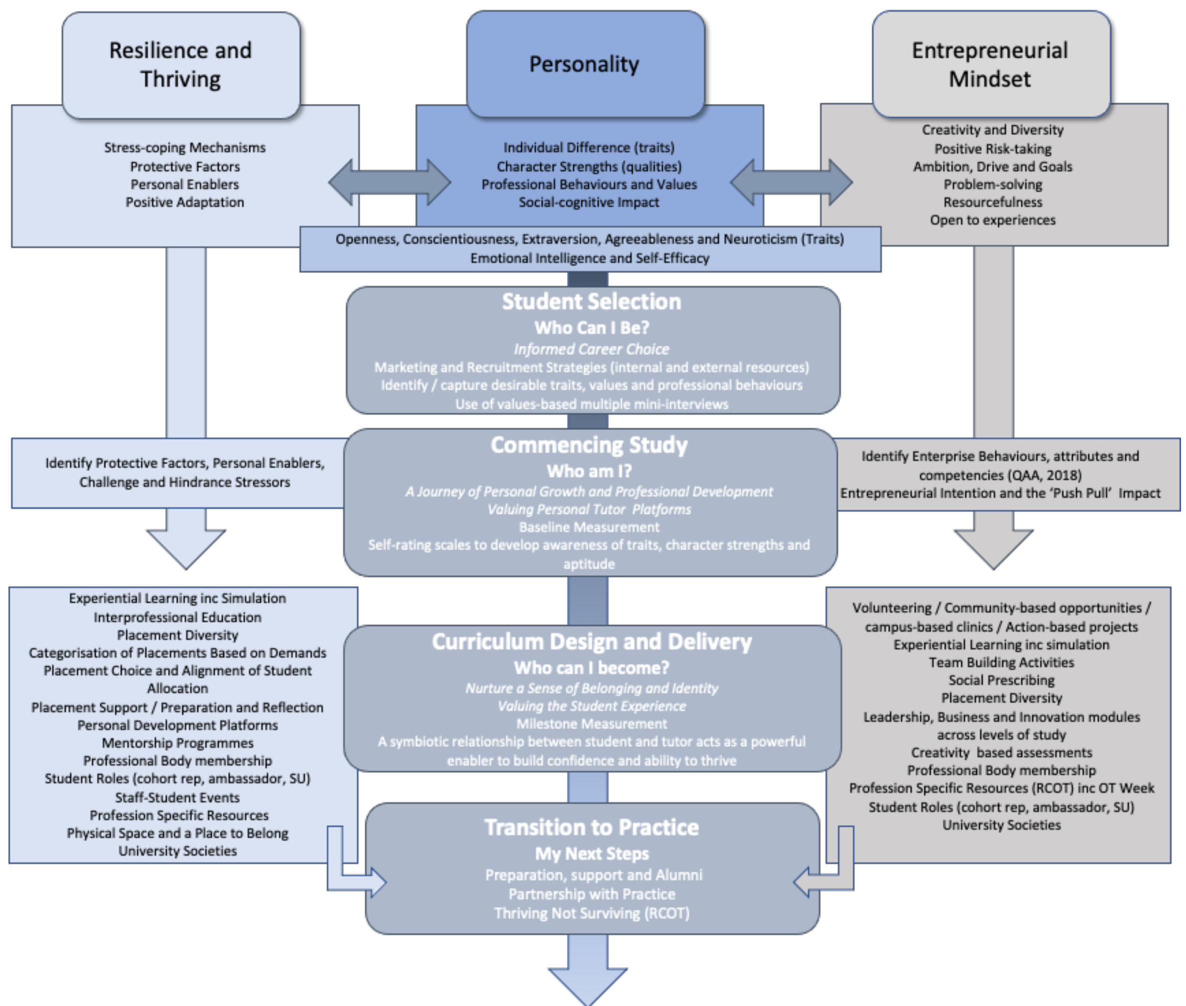

Figure 10-2 - The Resilience, Entrepreneurship and Personality (REP) Model (Developing Competence and Professional Identity)

10.6 Limitations of the Study

Whilst this study was designed using a robust method and methodology being deemed to be ethically sound (Appendix 3), limitations of the study are acknowledged, with a dialogue balanced with achieving the research aim and objectives in a realistic and timely manner. The study findings and conclusions were informed by the data collection, using both qualitative (semi-structured interviews) and quantitative (measurement scales for resilience and personality trait) data collection tools that have been justified within chapter 6. It is acknowledged that other constructs such as emotional intelligence could have explicitly informed the study and its findings.

At the outset of the study the construct of resilience was deemed a core element on which to base the aims and objectives and is a widely used and accessible term

across the sectors of health and education. As time evolved and in exploring the vast evidence-base the subtleties of resilience became more apparent. The notion of thriving as a distinct entity could have been used more explicitly to frame the study but is explored and rationalised within the chapters. Equally terms such as hardiness, grit and flourishing emerged from the literature. These have been acknowledged and synthesised where appropriate.

This study and subsequent recommendations are constructed on the data collected from occupational therapy students, the participants, from one UK based university delivering occupational therapy education. The processes undertaken to allocate students to placements are not necessarily mirrored in other higher education establishments. The processes are not unique but are context driven and apply to relatively small cohorts of students in comparison to other universities. Working practices may be different with some universities using placement teams, sitting outside of programme responsibilities, with the universities structure's and curriculum design directing practice-based learning. The findings and recommendations may not directly apply with transferability and generalisability in question. However, the study serves as a springboard to explore resilience (or thriving), entrepreneurship and personality more broadly within education arena's and where students experience placement learning.

The data collection tools were employed using two cohorts of occupational therapy students at one university, differentiating between those students who had undergone different types of placement. The qualitative data was gathered from students who had experienced a role-emerging placement through employing six semi-structured interviews aimed at gathering rich, in-depth understanding of their lived experience (Gray, 2018). The quantitative data was gathered from two cohorts of occupational therapy students regardless of which placement experience they had undertaken allowing for correlations to be established between those who had a role-emerging experience and those who had a traditional placement. The use of measurement scales for resilience and personality trait helped determine the differences individual students exhibited facilitating the scope to draw comparisons between the data. To add further credibility and robustness to the study, it is acknowledged that further qualitative data gathered from the students who had not

had a role-emerging placement i.e. a traditional placement would be of value. The time-consuming nature of undertaking interviews, capturing a vast quantity of data that then demands a systematic and methodical process of analysis made this unrealistic, given the burden fell to a sole researcher for the purposes of thesis submission. Equally interviewing the students both pre and post placement would mirror the mode of gathering quantitative data that involved the employment of the two measurement scales at time one (pre-placement) and time two (post placement). This would allow for capturing the perspectives of all students, not just those in role-emerging experiences, in relation to choice of placement and their understanding of attributes, traits and qualities and their importance or impact on alignment of students to types of placement.

It has been acknowledged in chapter 9 that the employment of a specific measurement tool to quantify entrepreneurial traits would strengthen the quantitative data rather than capturing this through the measurement scales of resilience and personality trait. Whilst this study cements entrepreneurship within its objectives, the design and methods of data collection did not explicitly set out to measure and quantify entrepreneurial aptitude in the student participants. Instead, in recognising that the inherent characteristics of the entrepreneurial individual are reflected in both personality trait and resilience facilitated this objective to be met. The personality trait and resilience scales capture the entrepreneurial traits that are known to exist (BFI, John et al, 1991; CDRISC-25, Connor and Davidson, 2003) allowing exploration to elicit understanding of this construct. In hindsight this would have enhanced the findings but is deemed a realistic compromise in the study design given the synergies linking the constructs and personality theory. The scope to explore this opens up further research potential.

The study purely focuses on the occupational therapy students and their perspectives of role-emerging placements. It is acknowledged that capturing the perspectives on the placement providers and the long arm supervisor would add depth to the study. This would explore the lived experiences for long-arm supervisors and the on-site supervisors and of the impact they had on the students. It would also facilitate an understanding of how a student's personality traits and level of resilience can enhance or be detrimental to the placement experience and its outcome.

In Chapter 1 and 2, the nature of role-emerging placements and context was explored and the value of these experiences to students articulated through a lens of the profession, developing occupation-focused practice and diversification of occupational therapy. Whilst the term of role-emerging placements is clearly embedded and accepted amongst the profession and higher education sector, the earlier and current thinking to articulate these as *partnership* or *contemporary* placements is open to debate. Extending and advancing the scope in practice through diversity in occupational therapy roles across the sectors will inevitably shape the norm of placement experiences and the role-emerging nature of these will gradually run their natural course becoming absorbed into the range of ***all*** placements typically experienced. Healthcare delivery is ever changing and the profession will continue to be responsive to this (Brown et al, 2015). The higher education sector will shape curriculum as an ongoing consequence of this. There will not be a need to make explicit reference to these as being unique or different to other placement contexts through the diversification agenda. The differentiation between types of placement and their demands, historically required, will therefore be less and the allocation process of students to experiences be more of a matching alignment process. However, there will still be a need for students to develop their resilience and entrepreneurial mindset if they are to become competent practitioners who are fit for purpose and able to thrive in healthcare environments.

10.7 Further Research

Taking the limitations discussed above, allows for consideration of further research building on the findings of this study. There would be a value in exploring the perceptions of those who support students in role-emerging placements. Capturing data from on-site, non-occupational therapy personnel and the long-arm supervisor would explore the notion of risk associated with these placements and whether it is of concern to the provider and others who support these experiences.

The student who exhibits fewer professional behaviours, less of a natural propensity and lower resilience could or should be given the same opportunity to experience these placements, compared to those deemed to possess this already. Further research to explore how placements facilitate learning and professional identity

development will build on this study and earlier evidence that role-emerging placements enhance and accelerate this.

Whilst this study explores and adds new understanding of the phenomenon of the natural propensity of some students for undertaking the more challenging role-emerging placements, it consequentially touches on those students who are less resilient, less suited or protected from these riskier experiences. For student cohorts in other universities who have a compulsory requirement to undertake a contemporary or non-traditional placement, it would be of value to research further, the risk and impact both on the students, the placement provider and the occupational therapy profession more widely. Encapsulating this through exploring whether the risk outweighs the value and the extent of detriment to all stakeholders.

Further research would be of value to explore whether choice of placement serves to influence student perception of stressors and whether they hinder or challenge and if resilience differs as a consequence linking to the nature of compulsory allocation. This would be best served by capturing this through research exploring motivational models, based on self-determination and expectancy theories to understand how students are driven or cope depending on compulsory or choice of placement (Mukhalalati and Taylor, 2019). Equally, there would be a benefit to explore further how the symbiotic nature of a tutor's belief in a student to succeed and the student being motivated as a consequence through attributional theory to inform this understanding.

The growing body of evidence on embedding resilience, emotional intelligence and entrepreneurship within curriculum design and delivery supported by the notion that these can be learnt and developed in students is a key aspect to build on and drive forward. The need for developing resilience and entrepreneurial skills within healthcare practitioners and students preparing to enter these professions is already evidenced. However, the strategies employed or the facilitation of this in practice within the higher education to optimise a student's capabilities, emotional competencies and behaviours requires much greater focus to further understanding and new knowledge through research evidence (Kunzler et al, 2020). Longitudinal study research design would be of value to investigate the developmental process

of students informed by curriculum content aimed at enhancing and developing resilience and an entrepreneurial mindset.

The impact of COVID-19 on students in their studies and placement learning must be considered, as all students are now exposed to more challenging experiences outside of the norm of practice. The impact and need of resilience and entrepreneurship is never more timely and should be the subject of further research.

10.8 Final Thoughts

This study has been driven by an intrigue in relation to current practice for placement allocation in one university, the adoption of a personal approach and the alignment of students to certain placements. Why are some students deemed more likely to thrive in these more challenging placements? Why are some students deemed to have less of a propensity or aptitude for role-emerging placements? Professional judgement cannot stand alone and the need for robust evidence to underpin practice is important and allows for shaping of this and facilitates change to custom and practice. The importance of evidence of placement and practice-based learning informs the curriculum of every higher education institution delivering occupational therapy and allied health education. Equally the curriculum design shapes and generates graduates who are not just fit for practice but who are contemporary, resilient and entrepreneurial practitioners, who in turn mould the paradigm shift of the occupational therapy profession. Health and well-being is core to the occupational therapy profession through use of meaningful and purposeful occupation embedded in individuals lives, communities and societies across the world (Creek, 2017; Lauckner et al, 2019; Hocking and Wilcock, 2020; Molineux and Whiteford, 2021). Students who experience and learn in emerging and marginal settings are undoubtedly best placed to drive these community-based approaches, in turn sculpting the occupational therapy profession and healthcare delivery of the future.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Being a Reflexive and Reflective Researcher

Doctoral study embodies the notion of competence along a continuum, where levels of proficiency and expertise change over the course of time in the quest for professional development and mastery (Barnacle and Dall'Alba, 2014). This competence is explained by Sandberg and Pinnington (2009), as not being defined by application of scientific knowledge, tacit knowledge and knowing-in-action but as constituted by specific ways of *being.* Taking this ontological perspective thoeorised by Heidegger allows for conceptualizing competence, 'not primarily as a thing or entity we possess but rather something we embody and enact in the sense of what we *do* and at the same time *are* ' (p1145). The doctoral journey and opening up this possibility leads to transformations associated with the process of *becoming* and *being-in-the-world,* with Heidegger also suggesting humans have the *ability-to-be* (Sandberg and Pinnington, 2009). Furthermore, suggesting that education and learning, shapes the stands we take and has a key part in who we are becoming, in what we come to know, how we act and who we are (Dall'Alba, 2009). Casanave (2019) suggest doctoral students must know how to position themselves in their own writing and that learning must be ongoing, growing knowledge that is integrated and embodied so allowing for adopting authoritative voices and to perform like experts.

Equally, professional doctorate study facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and research skills to advance or enhance professional practice through a process of learning and a research journey (Smith, 2009; Morley and Petty, 2010). Leonard et al (2005) likewise, conclude that the continuing importance of intellectual and emotional growth is a value derived from doctoral research, in addition to the original contribution of knowledge in a chosen field and profession. Professional development, achieved through doctoral study, is a transformative process involving accumulation of this knowledge and skills, promoted by practical experience and an embodied understanding of practice (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 2006; Dall'Alba, 2009). This growth or development, according to Smith, (2009) requires critical reflection and analysis of your professional practice and how you internalise your professional role. Furthermore, suggesting the need for a balanced willingness to view the world of practice through a different pair of eyes, to see things differently

and to think extensively beyond the usual repertoire of literature, values and beliefs (Smith, 2009). This reflexive and reflective account explores the impact of the researchers own positionality, values and beliefs in relation to the study, as the research question posed comes from practice itself.

May and Perry (2017) allude to reflexivity as being a critical ethos, not a method, that takes a set of dispositions enabling the researcher to reflect on the basis for their claims to know the social world throughout understanding the dynamics between knowledge, the context in which it is produced and consequences that arise from it. Finlay (2011) suggests there is a need for a dialectical process of hermeneutic reflexivity that allows for continually reflecting upon our interpretations of the experience and phenomenon being studied. Doing so allows the researcher to move beyond initial understanding at the start of the research process and to critically evaluate throughout. Johns (2017b) discusses this as a *reflexive journey of self-inquiry and transformation towards developing professional artistry and identity* (p101) and furthermore, suggests this review of one's journey of learning is achieved through reflection and weaving threads into a coherent narrative.

Reflexivity does not seek closure nor be confined to a single aspect of the research process (May and Perry, 2017). Reflexivity allows the researcher (and practitioner) to look back and see self-becoming in a sense of realising desirable practice, shaped by a chain of experiences (Johns, 2017a). Paterson, et al (2012) discuss this ability to make sense and reason through four concepts: experience, expertise, professional artistry and judgement artistry. The experience gained from a role accomplished over a number of years without making sense of it, can simply accumulate without learning or professional development. These experiences build capability and competence, and expertise is the outcome of the pursuit of excellent performance. A higher level of performance and scholarship brings professional artistry, which embodies judgement artistry, that seamlessly extends between thought and action, knowing and doing, and being, and becoming. These combine to facilitate a reasoning capacity in practitioners in the task of interpreting and addressing highly complex problems which arise in practice.

This narrative is a starting point and it offers a critically reflexive account from a stance of having been in the role of placement tutor for fifteen years, recently

relinquished due to taking on the professional lead post. Established over time, the role brings both positive and negative experiences that have shaped the values and assumptions held. The role has brought challenges, frustrations and rewards that have fuelled both masters and doctorate study, where a passion to explore constructs within the sphere of practice education have led to choice of study and posing of research questions to address these. This study, is driven by a curiosity of what makes some students more likely to have a propensity to thrive in the more challenging role-emerging placement experiences. This clearly brings a vested interest to the research undertaken and an inevitable set of values, beliefs and assumptions that cannot be set aside or disregarded. Critical reflection and reflexivity, as a given requisite in professional practice (Johns, 2017a) has been a constant throughout the study processes both in terms of current practice and the research itself. An insightful exploration in Chapter 2 offers a synthesis of the broader context of contemporary practice and how placements are seen as an important vehicle for shaping the profession and development of professional identity for the student. The pivotal role of assigning students to placement experiences, both traditional and role-emerging, lies with the placement tutor who determines the resilience and attributes of students to undertake certain types of placement. This personal approach to allocation, whilst bringing many benefits and advocating expertise in the tutor role also lacks empirical evidence to support custom and practice. The exploration of the constructs of resilience and entrepreneurship, along with personality trait theory add to the knowledge and expertise and are pivotal to this study. The motives driving the study is a curiosity as a force attempting to establish why some students are intuitively deemed more suited to being placed in role-emerging placements and why this should be so. The timely conclusion of the study in 2020, comes as humanity has faced a health pandemic of global scale, driving the need for creative placements, shaping healthcare education and delivery of services to meet population needs through prudent measures (WFOT, 2020).

According to Berger (2015) the stance of the researcher is known to impact on all stages of the research process. With a professional background in occupational therapy, which by its very nature is a dynamic process, primarily working with and alongside people in health and social care settings who have complex needs, brings insight and understanding of those individuals (Pentland et al, 2017). Occupational

therapists explore an individual's life and establish what is meaningful to them in order for them to enhance health and wellbeing for that person through therapeutic interventions. Consequently, the epistemological stance adopted by the researcher has been shaped by this practice over many years, comfortably sitting within the qualitative research paradigm, which Denzin and Lincoln (2011) argues as a subjectivity being entangled in the lives of others. The need to establish meaning and make sense of a *lived experience* as a phenomenon aligns itself with core practice and roles of being a therapist and educator and equally applies to students, as well as those who we work with clinically. Professional practice, thus influences the researcher position, context and reasoning that in turn helps to construct and make sense of the world (McCormack and McCance, 2017). By adopting this belief and valuing subjectivity as fundamental, suggests too that statistical, quantitative methodologies alone do not allow for the underlying meaning to be explained as to why and how a phenomenon is being lived and experienced.

Within Chapter 6 the epistemological stance and methodologies are explored in-depth, with justification for adopting the mixed-methods approach for this study. The convergent design, allows for deliberate selection and weighting of the qualitative and quantitative elements across the study. Hesse-Biber and Johnson (2013) call for this need to be 'reflexive on our own standpoint and be open across our paradigmatic and methods comfort zone to facilitate ways of answering complex questions' (pg 104). Although, the researcher 'comfort zone' clearly aligns with the qualitative paradigm, there is clarity in reasoning for adopting a mixed-methods approach given the research question being posed in this study. The constructs of resilience and personality are known to be quantifiably measurable through robust data collection tools encompassing measurement scales that have been empirically tested for their reliability and validity. It would seem an irrational and incoherent argument to disregard these, as their place is conclusively warranted as a means to address the research question. The researcher has been open to new methodological learning, appreciating the value of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. However, does adopting the third paradigm of mixed-methods for this study suppose the stance of being or becoming a mixed-methodologist with authenticity or is it a temporary status with the 'comfort zone' firmly remaining in the qualitative paradigm? The latter is most likely given the personal challenges posed

in the quantitative data collection with a preference for exploring meaning through narratives and stories rather than statistical data analysis.

Occupational therapists, as allied health practitioners, recognise the necessity to adopt reflective approaches to inform their professional practice and development (Taylor, 2010; Paterson et al, 2012; COT, 2015, 2017). Of relevance for the researcher is that whilst not being situated within clinical practice, professional roles exist as a synthesis across occupational therapy and education, as a consequence of working in the higher education sector on a professional healthcare programme. The roles are still bound by professional conduct and standards of proficiency and the need for continuing professional development (HCPC, 2016, 2017a; COT, 2015, RCOT, 2017). This synthesis of healthcare and education is reflected within this study, where the student experience and understanding of their personality, resilience and creativity is explored within role-emerging placements, alongside the process of allocation to these experiences facilitated by the placement tutor role.

According to Schön (1983), this need to create a dialogue of critical thinking and doing, through which we become more skilful and develop a greater level of self-awareness is reflection. This conscious appreciation of our own being, experiences, values and beliefs allow us to construct a reality and situates us in the world we know and understand (Johns, 2009). Reflexivity is a social and cultural construct based upon the understanding that we all create our own social worlds and therefore cannot assume others view the world in the same way (Gardner, 2014). Berger (2015) states that to be reflexive, is to turn the researchers lens back onto onself to recognise and take responsibility for one's own situatedness. Bolton and Delderfield (2018) suggests that to be reflexive we must contemplate how our presence influences the knowledge, actions and realities of others. This continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of the researcher's situatedness allows a conscious recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome. Berger (2015) advocates that reflexivity is affected by whether the researcher is part of the research and shares the participants' experience that is typically the case with qualitative research. Additionally, suggesting the degree of familiarity with the participant's experiences impacts at all phases of the research process.

Mason-Bish (2018) adds that positionality and power relate to the researcher participant relationship and the subject matter in question. Furthermore, suggesting the information gathered from participants, making meaning of it, and drawing the study findings is shaped by the worldview and background of the researcher, how they construct the world and the language they use in the gathering of data (Berger, 2015). Chesney (2000) discusses the growing recognition of the potential effects that the researcher philosophy, beliefs and feelings through personal experience have on the research process and outcomes. Reflexivity challenges the view of generating new knowledge as objective and independent of the researcher who is creating it (Berger, 2015). Drake (2010) discusses the challenges to promote the validity of insider research that requires reflexive consideration of the researcher's position with a conscious acknowledgement of the impact of actions and decisions, and this is especially pertinent in the case of research undertaken by practitioner researchers on professional doctorates.

Research, regardless of its underpinning paradigm should be carried out with integrity and transparency to promote rigour and trustworthiness (Berger, 2015; Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2018). Reid et al, (2018) discuss that the dynamic nature of human interaction in qualitative studies require a reflexive approach, whereby the researcher questions their own motivations, assumptions and interests. Transparency over the researchers positionality and potential biases is essential in judging the authenticity of the research and its findings. Despite this, Berger (2015) suggests no research is free of biases or the personality of the researcher but that the use of triangulation and other strategies such as peer checking and co-analysis secures a trustworthy representation. The methodology chapter (Chapter 6) explains how quality and rigour are attained throughout the research process.

Given the researcher has the role of placement tutor, there is a need to explore further the intimate and vested interest in the subject of the research being undertaken, by the very nature of managing placement allocation and the desire for students to articulate successful placement outcomes and simply to thrive and emerge as stronger, more resilient and confident individuals. The greater weighting of the qualitative data within this mixed-methods study gathered through the use of semi-structured interviews, is described by Aarsand and Aarsand (2019) as a socially interactive event, where the interviewer and interviewee engage in a joint

construction of meaning, knowledge and stories. Also suggesting the interview is a joint production with each party adopting distinct positions within a particular framing. The researcher, as interviewer, used the opening situation of each interview to primarily put the participant at ease, given the power dynamic between tutor and student by using ‘chitchat’, with some orientation about the research goal, that at some point switches to an active engagement in the interview itself (Aarsand and Aarsand, 2019). An environment that promotes trust allows the interviewee to be open and honest in their responses and not answer according to what they thought the interviewer wished to hear and therefore aims to reduce biases. The interviews were conducted in a way to empower the interviewee (the student) in a collaborative experience where the hierarchy or tutor-student power dynamic is minimised and their responses valued with empathy (Wolgemuth et al, 2015). Each participant offered their story, consisting of the challenges and the successes of undertaking role-emerging placements, along with the vocalisation of feelings and opinions relating to themselves, their peers and the placement setting. Equally, non-leading, open questions provided opportunity for student participants to respond with minimal direction, therefore gathering data that was aiming to be free from coercion and bias. Member checking of the interview transcripts by two participants provided reassurance to the researcher that the content of the interviews were accurately depicted and representative of the interview itself.

The quantitative data was gathered from the two participant groups who were cohorts of students. Whilst every student had the right to voluntary participation in undertaking the measurement scales used to gather the quantitative data, these were administered in a classroom environment with a whole cohort in attendance. Ethically, it would be inappropriate to coerce students to participate but the nature of the circumstances offered a captive audience through the selection of a convenience sample. This consequently brought a possibility of students feeling obliged to complete the self-rating questionnaires. To minimise this, the researcher withdrew from any active engagement with the cohort at the time of administration, leaving the room to facilitate completion of the questionnaires lessening the risk of coercion. On reflection, a more active use of a gatekeeper role would have enhanced this element of data collection bringing greater rigour. However, transparency of the process undertaken counterbalances this to ensure ethical demands were met fully. Authenticity achieved through credible and transparent

processes was further enhanced by use of peer checking and drawing on two tutors in similar roles from two different universities. This served to add an authoritive voice and confidence in the process of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 10 is a culmination of the thesis that brings together an overview, and most importantly, the recommendations for practice that serve as evidence to the purpose and value of professional doctorate study. Embracing limitations of the study and indications for further research is explored in the final chapter and builds on evidencing a reflexive and reflective approach discussed here, that is a critical element of professional doctorate research. This thesis is much more than a product of determination and ironically, resilience, but informs a sense of being and belonging, situating it in a place to bear witness to expertise and mastery through doctoral study (Dall,Alba, 2006; Sandberg and Pinnington, 2009; Paterson et al, 2012; westhead
Casanave, 2019) It is not necessarily being critical of self, but being able to articulate your own positionality with clear argument and understanding to justify the epistemological stance and chosen methodological approach as a fundamental requisite. This is not the end of the journey, but just the beginning.

Appendix 2: Literature Review Extract

The primary literature review is presented in chapters 3, 4 and 5 and profession-specific literature is embedded in chapter 2 to inform the background of the study and supports discussion throughout the thesis.

Whilst the literature review was carried out using an iterative and purposeful approach across a breadth of primary research, policy and practice-based literature, theoretical literature and grey literature, there were key studies that were appraised to inform thinking and critically argued discussion.

An appraisal of key studies from each construct and profession-specific research follows.

Clarke (2012) offers an in-depth study grounded in a qualitative research paradigm. This study offers many parallels to this study, being primary research in nature with an explicit focus on the experience of students in undertaking role-emerging placements. Pre-existing and disseminated widely in a number of further publications, the study offers highly pertinent understanding of the meaning of the phenomenon of the nature of role-emerging placement experiences to inform this study.

The study uses an interpretive phenomenological approach (IPA) that is clearly justified through a robust critique allowing for an interpretivist, inductive methodology. Participants were recruited using a purposive sampling technique, comparable to this study. Whilst the sample size was small (n=5) it typically reflects the number of participants deemed appropriate and justifiable for an IPA study where a rich, in-depth understanding is explored. This is equally acknowledged as a limitation and not deemed representative of other occupational therapy students or findings being transferable. All participants had chosen to undertake a role-emerging experience acknowledged of bringing a positive skew to the findings that is built on in this study where students are pre-registration and do not have a choice of placement. Semi-structured interviews post-placement were conducted with further less in-depth interviews 6 months post qualification. This reflects some aspects of longitudinal study design but is not explicitly referred to as such and the

limitations state the impact of relapse of time on the ability to re-account their experiences. The use of thematic analysis within an IPA approach argues for the interpretive nature and in-depth exploration of the phenomenon to explain the meaning of role-emerging placements for students. As with this study, insider research brings a potential of bias that was acknowledged but use of pre-registration MSc students outside of the researcher's responsibility in placement allocation off-set this risk.

In contrast, Kunzler et al, (2020) is a recently published Cochrane review and is therefore deemed to be highly robust evidence of psychological interventions to foster resilience in healthcare students. Systematic reviews collate best available literature that address sharply defined clinical questions within healthcare. The process of the review is a comprehensive and rigorous critique to appraise the existing evidence for quality or validity. In this study 30 randomised controlled trials (RCT's) were selected. Twenty-two studies focused solely on healthcare students including allied health and half the studies were conducted in a university or educational setting making it relevant to this study. The key findings of the review offer little confidence that resilience interventions improve resilience outcomes or reduce anxiety or stress and long-term implications were not established. The limited evidence of the efficacy that resilience training improves well-being and protective factors is of note at a time when this study was being written up. The interventions typically used in the studies include role-plays, discussion, mindfulness and practical exercises based on a psycho-educative element or cognitive behavioural approach. The review established few interventions are based on a defined resilience model.

Whilst offering discussion on stressor exposure in healthcare students and its consequences this focuses on academic pressure, work-life balance, transition and life challenges by the nature of the challenges specific to the chosen field of work. The notion of practice-based learning and impact of placements is not explicit and not a platform or means to developing resilience as identified in this study. The review supports the need for further research and informs the recommendations of this study to measure resilience in healthcare students over time, from point of entry to qualification accounting for all modes of developing resilience including placement experiences.

Brown et al (2019) offers robust primary research published in a peer-reviewed occupational therapy specific journal (impact factor of 1.162). Whilst lacking a wider audience through use of this publication, it is highly pertinent to this study. The study uses a quantitative cross-sectional design to collect data. A sample size of 149 occupational therapy students completed a self-report questionnaire and two resilience measurement scales to investigate the relationship between resilience and practice education performance. The resilience scales (Resilience Scale for Adults (RSA) and Resilience at University scale (RAU) whilst different to the CD-RISC adopted in this study, are both robust with good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) and validity. The self-report questionnaire is a practice evaluation form capturing key fieldwork performance factors. Using a regression analysis and a resampling technique brought greater accuracy in the confidence interval. Results were analysed as statistically significant indicating student's resilience levels were high and were key predictors of fieldwork performance including professional behaviours, self-management and communication. Whilst the placements were not specified as role-emerging, the study brings robust evidence to inform this study and its findings.

In exploring resilience and the notion of thriving two studies were of note, both basing their research on challenge or hindrance stressors and how this could help to explain the findings of this study and the impact of how students perceive these placements and that role-emerging placements build resilience as a consequence.

Flinchbaugh et al (2015) set out to examine how individuals assess stressors and to identify underlying psychological mechanisms to allow them to thrive in the presence of these. Basing the quantitative research on the challenge-hindrance stress framework to argue through three hypotheses that not all stressors are detrimental, and these can in fact have differing effects on well-being, growth and accomplishment. Using a survey-based design with undergraduate university students as participants (n=189) capturing the data at two points in time over a 10-week period. Scale measurement was used for life satisfaction, stressors, thriving, resilience and reflects the use of the CD-RISC10 mirroring this study. Measurement models incorporating the factors allowed comparison within the analysis process to draw correlations and explain the complex relationships between stressors, thriving, resilience and life satisfaction. The study deemed robust in nature acknowledges

ethical issues and limitations. The second empirical study by Crane and Searle (2016) adopted a longitudinal design using 208 participants who were working adults. Two measurement times were used with a 12-week interval. Similarly, to Flinchbaugh et al’s study (2016) the challenge- hindrance stressor framework underpinned the research and its 6 hypotheses to investigate relationships between stressors and resilience. Measurement scales captured data in work stressors, resilience and psychological strain. The study acknowledges the attrition rate impacted with the second survey being only completed by 48% of the initial sample of participants. The analysis procedure and results are clearly documented through a longitudinal analysis. The discussion is thorough and support the proposal that challenge stressors may create opportunity for the capacity of resilience and hindrance stressors deplete this capacity. The findings demonstrate some change in resilience over time which reflects the findings of this study. The study also suggests interventions employed to improve well-being in the workplace should consider the nature of the stressors but equally factor in the resilience of individuals as a critical variable. The researchers suggest challenge stressors are likely to be appraised positively as opportunities for growth and mastery but discuss how appraisal of the stressors is variable between individuals and that the same stressor can be appraised differently, supporting the notion that students will approach their placement experience differently with some seeing this as a challenge and others as a hindrance. The implications are noteworthy and of relevance to this study that if the workplace (or placement) is able to provide exposure to challenges stressors there is greater opportunity to build resilience and reduce work-related strain through the interaction between individual characteristics and opportunities for resilience.

The final element of this review of research is taken from the chapter of entrepreneurship, which the iterative approach brought a focus on the evidence-base for social entrepreneurship setting out the characteristics or nature of those who drive social change. Chapter 5 explores how role-emerging placements, diversification in occupational therapy and the nature of occupational therapists are well-placed to meet this agenda. Saebi et al (2019) present a review of the research published in the Journal of Management. This peer-reviewed publication has a high impact factor of 8.852 indicating the quality of the evidence. The authors drew on peer-reviewed articles (n=395) on social entrepreneurship with 3 clear aims. To

identify the gaps in research on 3 levels of analysis (individual, organisational and institutional), to proffer a framework and to discuss the future direction of research. The article clearly outlines the method through adopting a systematic review approach and the process for selecting the studies against criteria. Appendix 2 presents a breakdown of the results with search terms. However, there was no indication of the parameters of the publication dates, with the studies captured over a wide period of time. A PRISMA flow diagram is not included for clarity over the process for each phase of the review (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses). The studies were analysed and coded with regard to their theoretical lens, level of analysis, method and findings. Whilst the article itself does not present the review and final sample data analysis; it clearly states tabular information is available as an on-line supplement. Of most relevance for this study is the level of analysis based on the individual where the characteristics is aligned to the pro-social personality. The review includes the study by Nga and Shamuganathan (2010) that specifically uses the Big Five personality traits and the findings of agreeableness that positively influences all dimensions of social entrepreneurship. This evidence supports the findings of this study with the quantitative data indicating high levels of agreeableness in the occupational therapy students. Those in role-emerging placements scored slightly higher than those in traditional placements. Agreeableness is also positively correlated with resilience. Social entrepreneurship evidence is therefore relevant to this study and placing occupational therapists as pivotal to driving forward social change.

Appendix 3: Ethical Approval

glyndŵr

PRIFYSGOL GLYNDŴR WRECSAM
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07 July 2016

Dear Liz

Re: 'Role-Emerging Placements: The constructs of resilience and personality traits in determining suitability for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences'

This is to inform you that Glyndŵr University's Research Ethics Sub-Committee has confirmed ethical approval for the above study as set out in your application for ethical approval and any further clarifications and/or amendments requested by the RESC.

If you wish to make any changes to your plan of work during the course of your study, the RESC must approve any amendments before you continue the work.

With best wishes,

Yours sincerely

Stewart Milne
Head of Research Services

On behalf of the Glyndŵr University Research Ethics Sub-Committee

id287

Appendix 4: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Date:

Research Study Title:

Role-Emerging Placements: The construct of resilience and personality trait in determining suitability for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences.

Introduction

My name is Liz Cade and this research forms part of my professional doctorate study at Glyndŵr University. You are being invited to take part in this study. Before you agree to do so, it is important that you understand the purpose and nature of the research and what your participation will involve. Please read the following information carefully, and please do ask if anything is not clear, or if you want more information. Contact details are given at the end of this information sheet.

What is the purpose of the study and how will it be carried out?

The research objectives are:

- To establish whether the construct of resilience determines success of student outcome within role-emerging placement settings
- To determine how students' personality traits and attributes impact upon allocation and placement experiences in traditional and role-emerging settings
- To ascertain if students possess entrepreneurial traits and whether these determine suitability and success in undertaking a role-emerging placement

The research methodology is drawing upon a mixed methods approach using both quantitative and qualitative methods, which inform the data collection and analysis.

Why have I been invited to take part?

You have been invited to take part in this study, as you are an occupational therapy student who has to undertake placements as an integral element of your degree studies. Placements are either in traditional health and social care or role-emerging settings. Your placement experiences and how you deal with these are of relevance to the research.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is entirely voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do agree to take part, you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you agree to take part, you may still withdraw at any time, without giving a reason. If that happens, any information or data you have given will not be used in the study.

What will taking part involve?

You will be asked to complete two self-rating scales prior to commencing and on completion of your placement. These aim to measure different aspects that may influence your placement experience. Following placement you may be invited to participate in a short

semi-structured interview of approximately 30 minutes, which will be carried out at a mutually agreed time and campus location. The interview will be digitally recorded. This will not impact upon your study time but may affect free time you have available. There are no financial implications to taking part. Participation in this research is not likely to cause you any distress or harm. However, if reflecting on a difficult placement experience causes this, support will be available.

Will my participation be confidential?

All information about you collected during the study will be kept strictly confidential and stored in accordance with the Data Protection Act. The only people who will know about you are the researcher and my Director of Studies, Dr Mandy Robbins. All data collected (either hard or electronic copies) will not divulge personal details to ensure anonymity. All data, whether electronic or paper or in any other form will be destroyed once the professional doctorate thesis module is complete, the thesis is written up and published.

What will you do with the results of the research?

The results of the research will be incorporated into the thesis module of the Professional Doctorate programme of study. Further publication of the study will be undertaken through relevant academic journal publications. The research will inform best practice in the use of and allocation of students to role-emerging placements. More broadly, the study will also be disseminated to inform governing bodies including COT and HCPC of the implications for education standards and the curriculum for occupational therapy programmes in Universities within the UK.

No participant will be named in the thesis or subsequent publications.

What happens next?

Thank you for reading this information sheet. If you agree to take part, you will be asked to complete the self-rating scales as directed by a gatekeeper prior to commencement and on completion of your next placement. If you consent to participating in the interview, you will be contacted to arrange this.

You will be given a copy of the consent form to keep.

If you wish to discuss any aspect of how you have been approached or treated in respect of this research study, please contact:

Professor Mandy Robbins
01948 293943
Glyndwr University
Mandy.robbins@glyndwr.ac.uk

Contact for further information

If anything is not clear, or if you want more information, please do contact me on 01978 293549 or l.cade@glyndwr.ac.uk

Appendix 5: Participant Consent Form

Participant Consent Form

Research Study Title:

Role-Emerging Placements: The construct of resilience and personality trait in determining suitability for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences.

Name of Researcher: Liz Cade

Please tick the box(es) to confirm each statement

I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet dated [*insert date*] for the above study. If I have asked for clarification or for more information, I have had satisfactory responses. ☐

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. ☐

I understand that relevant sections of the data collected from me during the study may be looked at by the researcher and the Director of Studies, Professor Mandy Robbins. ☐

I consent to digital recording of the interviews ☐

I agree to take part in the above study ☐

Name of Participant	Signature	Date
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date

Appendix 6: Interview Schedule

Professional Doctorate Thesis HSE803

Interview Schedule

Role-Emerging Placements: Does the construct of resilience and personality trait determine suitability for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences?

The following schedule is a guide to inform participants of potential questions that may be used during the semi-structured interviews.

- What were your initial thoughts on being informed you were allocated to a role-emerging placement?
- Have other students shared their role-emerging experiences and how did this impact upon your own thoughts?
- Would you describe your role-emerging placement overall as a positive or negative experience? Why?
- What were the challenges of the placement? How have these impacted upon you?
- What were the positives of the placement? How have these these impacted upon you?
- What do you perceive the benefits to be in terms of your learning and development as an OT practitioner?
- What is your understanding of resilience and do you consider yourself resilient in nature? If yes, why? If no, why?
- What is your understanding of entrepreneurship? Do you consider yourself entrepreneurial? If so, how was this important to the placement and its outcome? If not, why?
- Do you think role-emerging placements are suitable for all occupational therapy students? If so, why? If not, why?
- Should role-emerging placements be a compulsory component of the curriculum? If yes, why?
- How should students be prepared for role-emerging placements?
- Do you think you could have been better prepared? If so, how?
- Is there anything else you would like to add about your experience of role-emerging placements that we have not covered here?

Appendix 7: Gatekeeper letter

Gatekeeper letter

Dear Helen
Re Professional Doctorate thesis data collection

I am currently undertaking the thesis module of the Professional Doctorate programme with Glyndŵr University.

The proposed research is entitled 'Role-Emerging Placements: The constructs of resilience and personality traits in determining suitability for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences' and will involve data collection from student cohorts enrolled in level 5 and level 6 of the BSc (Hons) occupational therapy degree.

To ensure recruitment and data collection is ethically sound and reduces the risk of coercion with the selected student cohorts I require the use of a gatekeeper to act as a designated objective individual to assist with this element of the research study. I hope you are able to help in undertaking this role in your capacity as programme lead.

The recruitment process will involve the distribution of invitation letters, the participant information sheet and consent form to the selected cohort of students whilst they are on campus.

The data collection tools will involve the administration of two measurement scales: The CD-RISC-25 scale and the Five-Factor scale pre and post placement. Semi structured interviews will also be carried out with 10 purposively selected students post placement. It is anticipated data collection will commence Autumn 2016 and be completed in Spring 2017.

The study has approval from the University's ethics and research committees and fulfils all requirements

Thank you

Kind regards

Liz Cade
Placement Tutor
BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy

Appendix 8: Participant Letter 1

Dear student

I am writing on behalf of placement tutor, Liz Cade, who is currently studying on the Professional Doctorate programme and is undertaking the thesis module where there is an expectation to undertake a research study. I act as a gate keeper for the study to facilitate the recruitment of participants and to administer the data collection tools.

The aim of the study is to determine how resilience and personality can impact upon the use of role-emerging placements for students on the occupational therapy programme.

You are invited to participate in the study as you are currently studying on the BSc (Hons) occupational therapy degree programme and you will be undertaking placement experiences in the near future.

The study will utilise self-rating questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as the method of collecting data. An information sheet providing further information will be provided and this will answer any questions you may have before you decide if you wish to participate.

The research study has received approval from the Glyndŵr University ethics committee and has been guided by a research supervisor, Professor Mandy Robbins.

If you chose to participate you will be asked to complete two self-rating questionnaires pre and post placement and, if willing, you will be invited to participate in a further one to one interview with the researcher.

You help is very much appreciated

Yours sincerely

Helen Carey
Programme Lead
BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy programme

Appendix 9: Participant Letter 2

28th April 2017

Dear Student

Role-Emerging Placements: The construct of resilience and personality trait in determining aptitude for occupational therapy students undertaking these experiences.

I am writing on behalf of placement tutor, Liz Cade, who is currently studying on the Professional Doctorate programme and is undertaking the thesis module where there is an expectation to undertake a research study. I act as a gate keeper for the study to facilitate the recruitment of participants and in the administration of the data collection tools.

The aim of the study is to determine how resilience and personality can impact upon the use of role-emerging placements for students on the occupational therapy programme.

You have already been invited to participate in the study as you are currently enrolled on the BSc (Hons) occupational therapy degree programme and you have recently undertaken placement experiences in role emergent settings. The study utilises self-rating questionnaires, which have already been completed and semi-structured interviews as the method of collecting data. An information sheet providing further information is attached and this will answer any questions you may have before you decide if you wish to participate.

You are being invited to participate in a one to one interview with the researcher. This will be arranged with a mutually agreed date and location and will be for an hour maximum in duration. This will be digitally recorded and transcribed into written format. You may be asked to check this for accuracy and that it reflects a true representation of the interview. A consent form will require a signature beforehand if you decide to volunteer for the interview.

The research study has received approval from the Glyndŵr University ethics committee and has been guided by a research supervisor, Professor Mandy Robbins.

Your assistance is very much appreciated

Yours sincerely

From:	Liz Cade
To:	Liz Cade (l.cade@glyndwr.ac.uk)
Cc:	
Bcc:	
Subject:	Research participation
Date:	23 January 2017 10:48:00
Attachments:	Interview invitation letter.doc Interview schedule .docx FINAL Participant Information Sheet.docx image001.png

---

Hello

You have recently completed self-rating questionnaires as one element of data collection for my Prof doc study exploring resilience, personality and role emerging placements. Please find attached an invitation to participate further in a one to one interview. The participant information sheet and interview schedule outlines what this will entail.

I would appreciate your willingness to volunteer as I think this is an important aspect of the experiences in these placement settings and is currently not available as robust evidence to inform custom and practice.

If you are happy to be interviewed please respond to this e mail by Friday 3rd February 2017

Thank you in anticipation

Kind regards

Liz

Liz Cade
Senior lecturer and placement tutor
BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy
M408
Plas Coch campus
Mold Road
Wrexham
LL11 2AW
01978 293549
07976 306989

From:	Liz Cade
To:	
Subject:	Research Interview
Date:	28 April 2017 10:26:00
Attachments:	FINAL Participant Information Sheet.docx Participant letter C15.docx image003.png Interview invitation letter.doc image002.png

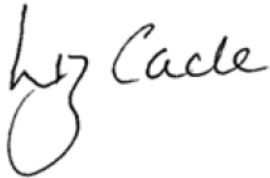
---

Hello

You have recently completed a role emerging placement and as you may recall I am undertaking my doctorate research in this. I have already asked for you to complete two self-rating questionnaires but require 3 volunteers to complete a one to one interview. I attach the participant information sheet to remind you of the study and its purpose. Of those who are willing to participate I will randomly select who to interview

Please e mail me if you are willing to participate and we will arrange a time that is convenient to meet. It is anticipated the interview will be approximately 45mins to an hour

Thank you



Liz Cade
Senior lecturer and placement tutor
BSc (Hons) Occupational Therapy
M408
Plas Coch campus
Mold Road
Wrexham
LL11 2AW
01978 293549
07976 306989

Appendix 10: CD-RISC Scale

Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale 25 (CD-RISC-25) ©

initials ☐☐☐ *ID#* ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐ *date* ☐☐/☐☐/☐☐☐☐ *visit* ☐☐ *age* ☐☐

*For each item, please mark an "x" in the box below that best indicates how much you agree with the following statements as they apply to you over the last **month**. If a particular situation has not occurred recently, answer according to how you think you would have felt.*

		not true at all (0)	rarely true (1)	sometimes true (2)	often true (3)	true nearly all the time (4)
1.	I am able to adapt when changes occur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	I have at least one close and secure relationship that helps me when I am stressed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	When there are no clear solutions to my problems, sometimes fate or God can help.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	I can deal with whatever comes my way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Past successes give me confidence in dealing with new challenges and difficulties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	I try to see the humorous side of things when I am faced with problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Having to cope with stress can make me stronger.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	I tend to bounce back after illness, injury, or other hardships.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Good or bad, I believe that most things happen for a reason.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	I give my best effort no matter what the outcome may be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	I believe I can achieve my goals, even if there are obstacles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Even when things look hopeless, I don't give up.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	During times of stress/crisis, I know where to turn for help.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Under pressure, I stay focused and think clearly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	I prefer to take the lead in solving problems rather than letting others make all the decisions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	I am not easily discouraged by failure.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	I think of myself as a strong person when dealing with life's challenges and difficulties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	I can make unpopular or difficult decisions that affect other people, if it is necessary.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	I am able to handle unpleasant or painful feelings like sadness, fear, and anger.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	In dealing with life's problems, sometimes you have to act on a hunch without knowing why.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	I have a strong sense of purpose in life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	I feel in control of my life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	I like challenges.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	I work to attain my goals no matter what roadblocks I encounter along the way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25.	I take pride in my achievements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

All rights reserved. No part of this document may be reproduced or transmitted in any form, or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, or by any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from Dr. Davidson at mail@cd-risc.com. Further information about the scale and terms of use can be found at www.cd-risc.com. *Copyright © 2001, 2013, 2015 by Kathryn M. Connor, M.D., and Jonathan R.T. Davidson, M.D.*

01-01-15

Appendix 11: CD-RISC Permission Letter

Dear Liz:

Thank you for your interest in the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). We are pleased to grant permission for use of the CD-RISC in the project you have described under the following terms of agreement:

1. You agree not to use the CD-RISC for any commercial purpose, or in research or other work performed for a third party, or provide the scale to a third party. If other off-site collaborators are involved with your project, their use of the scale is restricted to the project, and the signatory of this agreement is responsible for ensuring that all collaborators adhere to the terms of this agreement.

2. You may use the CD-RISC in written form, by telephone, or in secure electronic format whereby the scale is protected from unauthorized distribution or the possibility of modification. **In all presentations of the CD-RISC, including electronic versions, the full copyright and terms of use statement must appear with the scale. The scale should not appear in any form where it is accessible to the public, and should be removed from electronic and other sites once the project has been completed.**

3. Further information on the CD-RISC can be found at the www.cd-risc.com website. The scale's content may not be modified, although in some circumstances the formatting may be adapted with permission of either Dr. Connor or Dr. Davidson. If you wish to create a non-English language translation or culturally modified version of the CD-RISC, please let us know and we will provide details of the standard procedures.

4. Three forms of the scale exist: the original 25 item version and two shorter versions of 10 and 2 items respectively. When using the CD-RISC 25, CD-RISC 10 or CD-RISC 2, whether in English or other language, please include the full copyright statement and use restrictions as it appears on the scale.

5. A fee of $ 30 US is payable to Jonathan Davidson at 3068 Baywood Drive, Seabrook Island, SC 29455, USA, either by PayPal (at: mail@cd-risc.com), cheque, bank wire transfer (in US $$), international money order or Western Union.

6. Complete and return this form via email to mail@cd-risc.com.

7. In any publication or report resulting from use of the CD-RISC, you do not publish or partially reproduce the CD-RISC without first securing permission from the authors.

If you agree to the terms of this agreement, please email a signed copy to the above email address. Upon receipt of the signed agreement and of payment, we will email a copy of the scale.

For questions regarding use of the CD-RISC, please contact Jonathan Davidson at mail@cd-risc.com. We wish you well in pursuing your goals.

Sincerely yours,

Jonathan R. T. Davidson, M.D.
Kathryn M. Connor, M.D.

Agreed to by:

Signature (printed)

5th October 2015
Date

Senior Lecturer, BSc Hons Occupational Therapy
Title

Glyndwr University, Wrexham, UK
Organization

Appendix 12: BFI Scale

How I am in general

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who *likes to spend time with others*? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which **you agree or disagree with that statement.**

1 Disagree Strongly	2 Disagree a little	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree a little	5 Agree strongly

I am someone who…

1. _____ Is talkative
2. _____ Tends to find fault with others
3. _____ Does a thorough job
4. _____ Is depressed, blue
5. _____ Is original, comes up with new ideas
6. _____ Is reserved
7. _____ Is helpful and unselfish with others
8. _____ Can be somewhat careless
9. _____ Is relaxed, handles stress well.
10. _____ Is curious about many different things
11. _____ Is full of energy
12. _____ Starts quarrels with others
13. _____ Is a reliable worker
14. _____ Can be tense
15. _____ Is ingenious, a deep thinker
16. _____ Generates a lot of enthusiasm
17. _____ Has a forgiving nature
18. _____ Tends to be disorganized
19. _____ Worries a lot
20. _____ Has an active imagination
21. _____ Tends to be quiet
22. _____ Is generally trusting
23. _____ Tends to be lazy
24. _____ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. _____ Is inventive
26. _____ Has an assertive personality
27. _____ Can be cold and aloof
28. _____ Perseveres until the task is finished
29. _____ Can be moody
30. _____ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. _____ Is sometimes shy, inhibited
32. _____ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. _____ Does things efficiently
34. _____ Remains calm in tense situations
35. _____ Prefers work that is routine
36. _____ Is outgoing, sociable
37. _____ Is sometimes rude to others
38. _____ Makes plans and follows through with them
39. _____ Gets nervous easily
40. _____ Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. _____ Has few artistic interests
42. _____ Likes to cooperate with others
43. _____ Is easily distracted
44. _____ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

To score the BFI, you'll first need to **reverse-score** all negatively-keyed items:

Extraversion: 6, 21, 31
Agreeableness: 2, 12, 27, 37
Conscientiousness: 8, 18, 23, 43
Neuroticism: 9, 24, 34
Openness: 35, 41

To recode these items, you should subtract your score for all reverse-scored items from 6. For example, if you gave yourself a 5, compute 6 minus 5 and your recoded score is 1. That is, a score of 1 becomes 5, 2 becomes 4, 3 remains 3, 4 becomes 2, and 5 becomes 1.

Next, you will create scale scores by ***averaging*** the following items for each B5 domain (where R indicates using the reverse-scored item).

Extraversion: 1, 6R 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R
Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

SPSS SYNTAX

***** REVERSED ITEMS**

```
RECODE
  bfi2 bfi6 bfi8 bfi9 bfi12 bfi18 bfi21 bfi23 bfi24 bfi27 bfi31 bfi34 bfi35
  bfi37 bfi41 bfi43
  (1=5)  (2=4)  (3=3)  (4=2)  (5=1)  INTO  bfi2r bfi6r bfi8r bfi9r bfi12r bfi18r bfi21r bfi23r bfi24r
  bfi27r bfi31r bfi34r bfi35r bfi37r bfi41r bfi43r.
EXECUTE .
```

***** SCALE SCORES**

```
COMPUTE bfie = mean(bfi1,bfi6r,bfi11,bfi16,bfi21r,bfi26,bfi31r,bfi36) .
VARIABLE LABELS bfie 'BFI Extraversion scale score.
EXECUTE .

COMPUTE bfia = mean(bfi2r,bfi7,bfi12r,bfi17,bfi22,bfi27r,bfi32,bfi37r,bfi42) .
VARIABLE LABELS bfia 'BFI Agreeableness scale score' .
EXECUTE .

COMPUTE bfic = mean(bfi3,bfi8r,bfi13,bfi18r,bfi23r,bfi28,bfi33,bfi38,bfi43r) .
VARIABLE LABELS bfic 'BFI Conscientiousness scale score' .
EXECUTE .

COMPUTE bfin = mean(bfi4,bfi9r,bfi14,bfi19,bfi24r,bfi29,bfi34r,bfi39) .
VARIABLE LABELS bfin 'BFI Neuroticism scale score' .
EXECUTE .

COMPUTE bfio = mean(bfi5,bfi10,bfi15,bfi20,bfi25,bfi30,bfi35r,bfi40,bfi41r,bfi44) .
VARIABLE LABELS bfio 'BFI Openness scale score' .
EXECUTE .
```

REFERENCE INFORMATION

The BFI should be cited with the original and a more accessible, recent reference:

John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). The Big Five Inventory--Versions 4a and 54. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.

John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm shift to the integrative Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and conceptual issues. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), Handbook of personality: Theory and research (pp. 114-158). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Appendix 13: Extract of Transcript

26	Ok, do you have any thoughts about why you were selected to go into that particular placement?	
27	Err cos I asked for it (laughter) err… well erm .. I'd done well on previous placements erm.. and then I	Self reflection Self gratification /
28	thought erm.. erm like the tutors and things had seen that …obviously had confidence in me to be able	satisfaction Confidence
29	to go out and do that and not need supervision all the time… erm… possibly to do with previous work	
30	experience that I've done before cos I've been a lone worker and things like that be able to manage my	Insightful Self awareness
31	time.. erm.. errmm yeh just I suppose the confidence and.. the tutors had seen in me what I could do and	Ability to work autonomously
32	the trust they've got in me to er.. and you obviously saw something in me to allow me to do that so	Level of competence
33	So what do you think it was we saw in you that..	Agreeableness
34	Errr motivation, its one of those questions I get in job interviews like blowing your own trumpet (laughter)	Suitability of student –
35	Yeh.. go for it (laughter	motivation Perspective of
36	I think it was erm.. you… I think you could see that I'm pretty adept at erm… going off and doing things	student - Self confidence
37	on my own really and being able to erm.. what am I trying to say? Erm… suppose .. looking at previous	Proficient Autonomous
38	placements you could see that erm.. I'd had, I could be autonomous erm, I could work on my own with	Self directed
39	minimal supervision and I suppose you had the confidence as well knowing that I had the knowledge	Openness – independent
40	necessary in ot to know what I needed to do and how to implement it really.. ok erm (pause) erm if you	thinking Competence –
41	hadn't seen that and you didn't think that.. you obviously knew I would be able to cope with it as well ..	knowledge / skills Ability to put
42	with the pressure of it	Theory into practice
43	Ok so erm what's your understanding of resilience?	Judgement of tutor Being able to cope
44	Erm.. something I've had to learn the hard way.. erm.. cos my second placement erm… I didn't, suppose	with pressure
45	a bit of a confidence hit.. my problem is I set a really bar… blur.. the bar really high for myself so if I don't	
46	hit that then and (unclear) tell myself I'm rubbish at everything like what are you doing erm.. the second	Perception of student –
47	placement my educator ripped into me for that.. she she was really angry at me for being like that cos	Facing adversity in the past
48	wasn't that the case, cos it's a learning curve isn't it? I mean.. if you're not gonna be a perfect position ..	High expectations of self
49	on your second placement going into this one obviously I had to be resilient err because you've got to ..	Experience of previous
50	got the pressures of developing the service, of implementing it …of meeting people and things like that..	placements Challenge
51	and then I did get told on that placement towards the end I was starting to wane a little bit.. cos it was a	Commitment Conscientiousness
52	long (emphasis) placement so erm.. I've learnt the hard way that even in erm… adversity and things like	Expectations on student
53	that when you got pressures and things ..you've just got to just keep plugging away and keep going..	Emotional resilience
54	erm… so yeh.. that's.. well .. obviously you saw.. something you saw in in me like resilience of some	Facing adversity Self belief /
55	form..	determination / diligence

Appendix 14: Extract of Thematic Analysis

Thematic Analysis – Developing codes (colours refer to participants P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6)

	Participant	Line ref	Verbatim quotations
Allocation of Placements			
Valuing all placements	Interview 3	45	*'I .. rate… you know placements'*
	Interview 2	354-355	*'at the same time I suppose we just see it as a placement'*
Perceptions of placement	Interview 2	365	*'I think people are stressed in placement and just want to get it done and don't care what it is'*
		355-356	*'if they just want to pass it.. not that bothered about what that opportunity is'*
	Interview 3	443	*I never thought I'd go on a role emerging*
Allocation of RE placements			
Selective allocation – missing potential and assumptions	Interview 2	354	*'I mean you could miss someone's potential'*
		325-326	*I think if there was a student was was and the University could see potential in them then I'd be pushing them*
	Interview 4	348	*Cos people missing out but then (laughs) (overlaps) bit of a balance*
Selective allocation – Notion of 'Cherry Picking"	Interview 1	332-333	*'personality wise you've seen me struggling before and seen me come through so.. praps you knew I would pull it out of the bag'*
		349	*'I guess you just need to pick carefully'*
		466-467	*'I think you really need to spend your time considering who, if not everyone is getting one or matching people up but considering who's going to get these placements'*
		531	*'I still think you need to choose quite carefully to get it right'*
	Interview 2	32	*'you obviously saw something in me to allow me to do that'*
		36-40	*'I think you could see that I'm pretty adept at erm… going off and doing things on my own really and being able to erm.. what am I trying to say? Erm… suppose .. looking at previous placements you could see that erm.. I'd had, I could be autonomous erm, I could work on my own with minimal supervision and I suppose you had the confidence as well knowing that I had the knowledge necessary in ot to know what I needed to do and how to implement it really'*
		41-42	*'you obviously knew I would be able to cope with it as well .. with the pressure of it'*
		325-326	*I think if there was a student was was and the University could see potential in them then I'd be pushing them*
	Interview 3	173-176	*I've demonstrated in other placements that I'm quite hard working and quite erm.. think all the feedback that .. I don't need a lot of support possibly so I can myself …independently… I don't know ..work really without a lot of support.. may be that*
	Interview 4	330-333	*I think some people even at ..in their third year would still really … really struggle with it.. I guess it goes back to what I thought of… the set of skills it would take … can't be completely taught to somebody so even when they come into the third year its still .. this would be them…their personality's not really that resilient*
			'I think that individual… I guess what you do ..but as .. as for when you're arrangin placement I think people's ..

		341-343	people's personality and skills should be taken into consideration when allocating placements'
		430-432	'people's individual needs aren't gunna be taken into account and work in areas where they actually may need that extra input.. erm (pause) your gunna end up gettin people in quite.. inappropriate placements really .. erm… I do think its done quite well here'
	Interview 5	184-187	'I suppose initially praps you'd picked me because I wouldn't complain about it and I'd just go off and do it ..but yeh..maybe I've always completed whatever task is .. is comin my way so praps that I would just get on and do it.. gain something from it confidence wise'
		280-282	'I suppose you'd need to pick someone who would embrace it and not be.. sayin that though I was nervous to start with and so.. I don't know.. its difficult isn't it… yeh I suppose you'd need to try and decide who would stick it out and do it properly'
	Interview 6	263-265	I think some students would find it more difficult to cope and might not have the determination
		388	I can see the benefit and you might be able to be a bit more erm … clever with your allocation of students
		454-455	I think we take a confidence boost in thinkin that you saw something in me and XXXX (other student)
		490-491	I don't think I would have been the best person to make that decision for myself.. so I was glad that the decision was made for me'
Selective allocation – pairing of students	Interview 2	139	'I was excited to be working with someone.. we worked really well together'

	Interview 3	152	'putting two students together in role emerging so maybe that can answer the.. not that you'd want one student to take over'
		477-478	they worked really well together but they looked at different things
	Interview 6	316-319	there's definitely benefits of going in a pair that some students may cope but its getting that pairing right cos I guess that might not always be a successful pairing.. that's a bit of a responsibility for you to .. to get that right in some ways.. so that helps if that goes well…
	Interview 5	96	it was nice to have someone else there
Selective allocation – impact of cohort size	Interview 1	280-282	'I think you have a good opportunity here as you get to know your students quite well.. but if the course got much bigger I don't know how well you would know us... to know who would be the ones that would run with it'
	Interview 2	342-343	I think its worked for the cohort.. erm.. I think that's beauty of having a smaller cohort cos you get to know the students then. Errr.. you know who's going to manage'
Selective allocation – personal approach	Interview 2	28	had confidence in me to be able to go out and do that and not need supervision all the time
		32	you obviously saw something in me to allow me to do that so
	Interview 4	398	When I was in XXXX (previous University) you were more like a number whereas here you actually know people
		434-436	when we were in sessions as well you may pick on little things .. you take that into account when thinkin about where to put people
	Interview 5		they might be suited to more I suppose you could suit the role emergin placement to the student more…

	Interview 6	267 366 367 368 388 454	your not always the best judge of yourself we are gonna have to be pretty resilient, pretty assertive, pretty confident of our professional identity so that's where your judgement comes in I guess I don't think I would have been the best person to make that decision for myself.. so I was glad that the decision was made for me I can see the benefit and you might be able to be a bit more erm … clever with your allocation of students it was most flatterin and I think we take a confidence boost in thinkin that you saw something in me
Selective allocation – equity Why not me?	Interview 3 Interview 6	350-352 352-354 315	… I never had anyone complain about not having a role emerging placement.. nobody's ever said why did you get that and I didn't I suppose you could get some people who are thinking maybe you've got an over confident person who could be like.. so you've been given role emerging and I've been given this I wouldn't like to say absolutely yes cos it might be a little unfair on some students
Selective allocation – student perception of attributes	Interview 4	183-186	'think somebody needs to be .. you know .. quite open minded .. have that independence.. and be quite assertive… erm.. picturing like our cohort and I could pick out people and what is it that makes them .. yeh… I think confidence is a big part of this'

		319 280-282 328-336 343-345 347-349 492-493	I would actually worry that some other people might not handle it.. I suppose you'd need to pick someone who would embrace it and not be.. sayin that though I was nervous to start with and so.. I don't know.. its difficult isn't it.. erm.. yeh I suppose you'd need to try and decide who would stick it out and (pause) do it properly they need a level of assertiveness…a confident presenter that could put on the act when I have to .. you do need to be able to hold your own and be comfortable with your own voice.. so I guess its somebody who would be quite confident to talk in class or definitely not somebody who doesn't want to speak at all.. its got to be somebody who mixes throughout the group.. who can hold conversations with a variety of people.. those are all things that any ot gonna have to do in practice anyway but those skills can come sooner or later I guess for some people.. so it's a degree of confidence ..professionalism you do need the underpinning knowledge and theory so some students could struggle if they don't have that or be able to apply it to their practice.. are not as mature, insightful or with the right attitude.. some students could be too scared and feel too anxious for it to impact on them and the setting…so no I wouldn't say it was for everyone praps other students wouldn't of got out of it what we did or made the most of it