

1 **Agenda setting with children using the ‘three wishes’ technique**

2

3**Abstract**

4The National Health Service (NHS; UK) offers initial screening appointments for
5children referred to Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS) to
6determine clinical need and assess risk. Conversation analysis was utilised on 28 video-
7recordings of these assessments, lasting approximately 90 minutes each with a
8multidisciplinary team. This paper focuses on the agenda setting strategies used to
9establish relevant goals with children and adolescents; specifically, the technique of
10offering ‘three wishes’. For example, “*if you had three wishes, what would you like to
11make happen?” In cases where children initially volunteered an assessment-relevant
12wish, they tended not to articulate further wishes. Non-assessment-relevant wishes (i.e.
13fantasy wishes, such as being “rich”) were treated as insufficient, with many approaches
14used to realign establishing assessment relevant goals. Where responses were not
15institutionally relevant, practitioners undertook considerable discursive work to realign
16the focus of the three wishes task to assessment relevance. In these cases, the wish
17responses were treated as irrelevant and tended to be dismissed, rather than explored for
18further detail. Such work with the children’s contributions has implications for engaging
19children and child-centred practices.*

20

21 Introduction

22

23 During their lifespan, approximately one third of children and adolescents experience an
24 emotional, behavioural or neurodevelopmental difficulty (Merikangas, Nakamura, &
25 Kessler, 2009), with global prevalence ranging from 10-20% (Kieling, et al., 2011). In
26 the UK, mental health services are provided by the National Health Service (NHS) and
27 young people are seen by child and adolescent mental health services (CAMHS).

28 CAMHS is a service provided for those who experience emotional, behavioural or
29 neurodevelopmental difficulties (Karim, 2015), and assesses, diagnoses and treats
30 individuals, using approaches including pharmacological and talking therapies.

31 Typically, access requires a referral from the General Practitioner (GP) for assessment.

32

33 In CAMHS, a multidisciplinary approach is taken for assessments and treatment
34 (Karim, 2015), usually including psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, community
35 psychiatric nurses, occupational therapists, and other psychological therapists. At the
36 initial assessment, parents/guardians typically accompany children (Hartzell et al,
37 2010), and other close family members may also attend. The invitation to the whole
38 family allows for practitioners to ascertain a broader understanding of the child's
39 difficulties from different perspectives. The function of the assessment is to screen for
40 difficulties (Parkin, Frake & Davison, 2003), by identifying any immediate risk of harm

41to the child/adolescent or others, to develop an initial formulation of the presenting
42problems, and to consider what might be the next steps (Mash & Hunsley, 2005).
43During assessments, the agenda specifically relates to the institutional requirements for
44information-gathering, and thus questions put forward by practitioners tend to be
45focussed around these requirements (Thompson & McCabe, 2016).

46

47In relation to family-centred practice, it is important to account for the views of
48children/adolescents and their family, to ensure that services meet the needs and
49expectations of the families involved. Evidence suggests that greater engagement with
50children/adolescents in therapy predicts better outcomes (Chu & Kendall, 2004). In
51assessments it is therefore common to use techniques such as using Subjective Units of
52Distress Scales to elicit feelings (Kiyimba and O'Reilly, in press), asking children to
53describe their 'three wishes' to set goals, and drawing family trees to understand
54relationships. However, there is little empirical evidence to examine these strategies,
55and research has indicated that children/adolescents can feel peripheral to the
56assessment process (Ross & Egan, 2004), feeling professionals do not always engage
57them sufficiently or take their views seriously (Buston, 2002).

58

59A contributing factor could be that practitioners who are involved in assessments may
60have had little formal training in assessing children (Grigg et al., 2007) and may

61struggle to elicit relevant answers (Stivers, 2001). Thus, it is possible there may be room
62for improvement in practitioner expertise in how they question children/adolescents to
63inform decisions and how they implement available techniques to facilitate this.

64

65*Aims of the paper*

66

67Despite the crucial gatekeeping function of initial assessments, there is little empirical
68evidence to guide practitioners. Problematically, there is little qualitative research on
69assessments to help inform best practice (Hartzell, Seikkula, & von Knorring, 2009).
70Therefore, the objective of this study was to take an inductive approach to analysing
71video-recordings of assessments to better understand these interactions. Specifically, we
72were interested in how goal-setting was achieved collaboratively to examine child-
73centred practice and child engagement. We aim therefore to examine an engagement
74technique commonly used whereby the child/adolescent is asked to describe ‘three
75wishes’ to give insight into their expectations and understanding of the setting, and to
76provide a platform for goals.

77

78**Method**

79

80A qualitative approach, specifically conversation analysis (CA), was adopted to

81interrogate the data and address the aims. We focused on understanding the initial goal-
82setting interactions between practitioners and children/adolescents who were
83participating in assessments. We recognise the notion of adolescent can have specific
84meanings, we use this concept throughout to reflect the technical terminology used in
85the Child and *Adolescent* Mental Health Service, from which our sample was drawn.

86

87***Participants and data collection***

88

89Purposeful sampling was used to gather data from twenty-eight consenting
90children/adolescents together with family members in a UK CAMH service. Urgent
91referrals and acute cases were excluded. Participants were typical of the population
92attending the service, ranging from 6-to-17 years (Mean 11.21, SD = 3.10), with 36%
93female and 64% male. Twenty-seven young people attended with mothers, eight with
94their father, and six also had their maternal grandmother with them. In some cases,
95siblings or extended family members also attended. All but one family were seen by two
96practitioners, consisting of qualified and assistant clinical psychologists (5), consultant,
97staff-grade and training-grade child and adolescent psychiatrists (10), occupational
98therapists (4), psychotherapists (2), community psychiatric nurses (5), and a learning
99disabilities nurse (1), with some having medical students or student nurses observing.
100Each assessment appointment was approximately 90 minutes, and resulted in a data

101 corpus of approximately 2240 minutes, which meets sampling adequacy parameters for
102 this approach.

103

104 All initial appointments were video-recorded, and these recordings constituted the
105 naturally occurring data corpus. Naturally occurring data is defined as that which occurs
106 regardless of a researcher's involvement (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Kiyimba, Lester,
107 & O'Reilly, in press). The use of naturally occurring data for this kind of analysis has
108 the advantage of demonstrating actual clinical practice rather than simply generating
109 retrospective reports, such as those that may be gathered through interviews (Potter,
110 2002).

111

112 ***Data analysis***

113

114 CA was utilised for several reasons, including its inductive focus and attention to details
115 of interaction as they occur in a real-world setting. Further, CA is a rigorous
116 methodology for studying talk-in-interaction (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984), which aims
117 to minimise ungrounded interpretations due to its observational focus on directly
118 observable characteristics of the data (Drew, Chatwin, & Collins, 2001). It has grown in
119 popularity for studying health interactions due to its use of using naturally occurring
120 data. The benefits are that CA can illuminate actual practices between doctors and

121patients (e.g., Peräkylä, 1997; Pilnick, & Dingwall, 2011), as well as between mental
122health practitioners and their clients (e.g., Peräkylä, Antaki, Vehviläinen, & Leudar,
1232008; O'Reilly, Karim, Stafford & Hutchby, 2015).

124

125In CA, the process of analysis begins with familiarisation with the data through repeated
126listening/watching and reading transcripts. To capture important paralinguistic features,
127such as volume, pauses, and emphasis etc., a detailed transcription system is used
128(Jefferson, 2004). The symbols are outlined in table 1. Further, the analytic process is
129emic and data-driven as analytic claims are evidenced through the data. Typically, co-
130analysis between researchers is used to identify emergent patterns and to promote
131methodological rigour.

132

133INSERT TABLE ONE HERE

134

135In our study, following these procedures, we gathered a corpus of extracts that were
136identified as sharing features relevant to the aims of the study; that is collaborative goal
137setting. In our case, these were data extracts from early in the assessment in which goal
138setting was conducted. Specifically, we sought to ascertain whether there were recurrent
139or systematic patterns of communication within the extracts (Drew et al., 2001), which
140could provide insights into agenda-setting. In this process, we identified a re-occurring

141 technique that practitioners referred to as ‘three wishes’, which became the focus our
142 investigation. At its simplest level, this was a question-answer sequence, which within
143 CA literature is part of a larger category referred to as ‘adjacency pair’ sequences
144 (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973).

145

146 ***Ethics***

147

148 The study was awarded full ethical approval from the UK National Research Ethics
149 Service. All procedures proscribed were adhered to, including age-appropriate
150 information for all participants, provided up to three weeks before attendance with the
151 appointment letter. Written consent was collected before and after the appointments
152 from all participants, including practitioners. All transcripts were anonymised.

153

154 **Findings**

155

156 Broadly, the ‘three wishes’ question was a way of asking what matters most to the child,
157 and thus (albeit obliquely), what might be the goals for the assessment. This approach
158 recognizes that the question itself was situated, in the sense that it was asked by a
159 practitioner in a mental health assessment of a child/adolescent referred by the GP. Our
160 analysis demonstrated that depending on the different types of responses offered by the

161 child or adolescent in the first-turn-position after the question, this appeared to dictate
162 the trajectory of the kinds of next turns that were provided by the practitioners:

- 163 1. When the child offers their first wish, in their next turn the practitioner treats this
164 as sufficient and the talk moves to talk about the child's difficulty.
- 165 2. When the child offers a first wish, in their next turn the practitioner pursues that
166 line of questioning seemingly treating it as insufficient.
- 167 3. When a child offers a first wish, in their next turn the practitioner treats that
168 wish in a dismissive way.

169 We note, that treating the wish as insufficient and dismissing the relevance of it often
170 occurred together, and while discursively perform slightly different social actions, they
171 were frequently combined by practitioners in their treatment of the wish.

172

173 The following two extracts demonstrate the first category of responses from children
174 and adolescents in answer to the 'three wishes' question, which are characterised by
175 their nature of being treated as sufficient by the practitioner.

176

177 Extract 1: Family 1

178

179 This extract is a good example of how the adolescent's response to the three wishes was
180 treated by the practitioner as sufficient and relevant.

181

182Clin Psy: ↑if you had three wishes(0.66) what

183 ↓would you like to make happen

184Adol: ↑my OCD'd ↓go (0.38) away

185Clin Psy: °yeah°

186Adol: erm (6.60) dunno (7.13)↑er (0.37) dunno

187Clin Psy: ↑ok well main ↓thing (0.34) is that e- er

188 the OCD g↓oes awa:y (0.46) you you

189 ↓feel you would be a lot happier

190Adol: ((*nods [head in agreement]*))

191Clin Psy: [ri:ght] (.) ↑excellent

192* Adolescent is 13 years old (F)

193

194In Extract 1, the practitioner (in this case a clinical psychologist) began by asking the
195adolescent a hypothetical question ‘↑if you had three wishes...’ With no hearable pause
196between the question and answer, the adolescent responded with what can be heard as
197an institutionally relevant first ‘wish’. Thus, the adolescent appears to have oriented to
198the nature of questions and answers as being situated. Notably, in doing so, the
199adolescent made relevant the potential reason she had come to the assessment, which
200was her ‘*OCD*’ (i.e., Obsessive Compulsive Disorder) (line 3). Further, the use of a
201diagnostic label, that is, a technical mental health concept, marked the talk as

202particularly relevant within this context. Following this response, the child engaged in
203several false starts, which included lengthy pauses (ranging from 0.37-6.60 seconds),
204perhaps indicating some trouble in the talk, as she had been asked to identify three
205things and only offered one. Conversation analysts have noted that lengthy pauses may
206mark trouble in talk (Jefferson, 1989; Speer, 2001).

207

208The practitioner's response repeated the child's initial wish, wherein the OCD 'goes
209away', perhaps serving to reinforce/emphasise the adolescent's initial wish. The
210responses from the clinical psychologist in the first and third turns are semantically and
211intonationally in agreement –as if indicating that the 'right' kind of answer has been
212provided. This is then extended by noting "*you ↓feel you would be a lot happier*", with
213the adolescent nodding to display agreement. The psychologist did not ask any further
214questions about the wishes or about the goals for the assessment. A similar structure can
215be seen in Extract 2, where again an institutionally relevant response was proffered.

216

217Extract 2: Family 3

218

219Psychiatrist: can °you tell me these wishes ↓what
220 they are°

221Adol: um (5.80) s↓top being °naughty°

222Psychiatrist: stop being ↓naughty (0.25) why

223Adol: um (0.51)°I dunno°

224Psychiatrist: °sorry°

225Adol: I dunno

226Psychiatrist: ok but one of your ↓wish is to stop

227 Being ↓naughty

228Adol: yeah

229Psychiatrist: o kay:

230* Adolescent is 13 years old (M)

231

232As in Extract 1, this example also demonstrates that the first answer to the three wishes
233question is something that could be considered relevant to the business of a mental
234health assessment. The adolescent offered one wish that was treated as sufficient and
235heard to be a ‘reason’ for attending the assessment. Similar to Extract 1, the adolescent
236initially only offered one wish. The subsequent trouble in the talk, marked by the pause
237(0.51), seems to indicate that the adolescent was having difficulty producing the
238requested additional two wishes. Nevertheless, the first wish was treated as an answer
239that was a relevant basis for further questioning; in this case ‘why’ was posed,
240indicating that the ‘wish’ was being treated as appropriate to the current institutional
241business but reasons for it were sought. However, he did not give an answer to this
242reason-seeking question, apart from ‘*I dunno*’. The usual conventional requirement in
243conversation is that when a question is asked, an answer becomes immediately relevant

244and required (Sacks, 1992). However, where a question may be difficult to answer, 'I
245don't know' can provide a way of fulfilling the social and conversational obligation to
246respond to the question without directly answering it (Stivers & Robinson, 2006). The
247psychiatrist treated this response as 'incomplete' (Stivers & Heritage, 2001), and
248continued to reiterate the last point on which they agreed. This is seemingly a way of re-
249establishing shared knowledge, by reflecting that the adolescent's 'wish' was to stop
250being naughty. The 'okay' from the psychiatrist following this statement also
251semantically indicated sufficiency.

252

253The first two extracts illustrate how adolescents provided responses to the three wishes
254question that were treated as sufficient and institutionally relevant answers, thus
255mitigating the need for additional wishes. However, the following extracts show how
256some answers were either treated as insufficient and therefore pursued or were
257dismissed.

258

259Extract 3: Family 6

260

261Psychiatrist: if you had three wishes and you could
262 wish for absolutely anything in the whole
263 wide wold

264Child: °Yeah°

265Psychiatrist: what would you ↓wish for?

266Child: em: (7.91)↓for JLS to live at my h|o:use

267Psychiatrist: ↓Ok

268 ((*all laugh*))

269* Child is 9 years old (F)

270

271It is typical amongst mental health practitioners to prefer the use of open questions, as it
272is understood that these are likely to elicit fuller responses from children (DeVoe,
2732002). Generally, across the extracts, the participating children/adolescents offered
274relatively short responses about their wishes, even when institutionally relevant. Here,
275in Extract 3, this institutionally irrelevant set of wishes resulted in more detail being
276elicited, with the psychiatrist asking additional questions, as well as inviting further
277wishes. In everyday conversation, it is unusual for pauses to be longer than a few
278milliseconds (Sacks, 1992), but in therapy talk, the allowance of longer pauses is often
279used deliberately to allow the client more time to consider their response. Here, the
280child paused for nearly 8 seconds in considering her primary wish. The treatment of this
281wish was different from the earlier extracts, as all parties (practitioners and her mother)
282laughed at this response.

283

284Extract 4: Family 6 (continuation of extract 3)

285

286Psychiatrist: ↓so JLS em we can try ↓that one - I don't
287 think that's ↓gonna happen but what are
288 the other two ↓wishes and you can wish
289 for anyth↓ing () and you're dreaming
290 big ↓which is good

291Child: to ↑sing on a st↓age (0.88) in front of lots
292 and lots and lots of ↓people

293Psychiatrist: uhuh

294Child: em: an:d to:: (4.04) em:

295Psychiatrist: can I give you an opt out ↓clause you can
296 say (0.54) ↓I'll think about the ↓third wish
297 and keep it 'til later (5.02) if you don't
298 want to waste it on ↓something quick

299

300After the first wish was responded to with laughter, it was also then quickly dismissed
301by the psychiatrist as something impossible. Thus, the psychiatrist pursued the agenda
302further by asking what the child's next wishes might be, leaving a further opportunity
303for an institutionally relevant wish. Interestingly, after the child had 'used up' two of the
304allocated wishes and was displaying thinking about the third, the psychiatrist interjected
305with a suggestion that she 'save' the third wish so that she did not "waste" it. There is a
306clear judgment here about the validity or relevance of the wishes offered thus far, as
307well as an attempt to subvert the child's responses at this point.

308

309 Extract 5: Family 6 (continuation of extracts 3 and 4)

310

311 Child: I ↓know I wanna be rich

312 Psychiatrist: ah o↓k well that's pretty good because then

313 ↓that gives you lots of other wishes doesn't

314 it (0.63) a very sensible use of ↓wishes

315 young lady okay

316 (2.04)

317 Psychiatrist: two things I just want to ↓ask you about

318 (0.26) one i:s (0.37) you've obviously

319 ↓come here today with your ↓mum yeah

320 what were ↑you hoping we ↓might be able

321 to do for ↓you

322 Child: ↓don't know ((*shrugs*))

323

324 After the child ignored the offer from the psychiatrist to 'save' her third wish, she

325 responded with '*I wanna be rich*'. The psychiatrist favourably evaluated her final wish

326 and finished his turn with ending intonation of '*okay*'. He then took the conversational

327 floor to (re)introduce the idea of agenda/goal setting from a more direct approach, by

328 overtly asking the child about her hopes for attending the session. It is recognised that

329 questions often convey within them certain presuppositions that oblige preferred kinds
330 of answers (Hayano, 2013). In this case, there was a presupposition in the question from
331 the psychiatrist that ‘we’ might be able to help. Asking children about what they
332 understand to be the reason for their attendance at a mental health assessment is
333 commonly done to encourage the child’s engagement in the process (Stafford et al.,
334 2016). This can be heard as taking another approach to the topic of agenda setting than
335 the three wishes technique. However, this more direct approach was still met with a
336 response from the child that did not move the co-construction of a shared assessment
337 goal any further forward. A similar example is offered next.

338

339 Extract 6: Family 22

340

341 Psychiatrist: a magical wish (0.44) [what will y]ou ask for

342 Child: [(money)]

343 (0.58)

344 Psychiatrist: [(you ha you ha] you’ve d[one it]

345 Clin Psy: [we did actually] [(look) a]

346 little b[it at this]

347 Child: [my mum to ‘ave a job]

348 (1.04)

349* Child is 11 years old (M)

350

351 What is interesting about Extract 6, is that the two ‘wishes’ that the child presented
352 following the three wishes question were to have money and for his mum to get a job,
353 related wishes with a similar goal to be more financially viable. However, both wishes
354 were ignored, as the psychiatrist and the clinical psychologist took over the
355 conversational floor in overlap with each other. Instead, as we will see in the following
356 extract, which is a continuation of Extract 6, an alternative goal was offered by the
357 clinical psychologist, thereby orienting more strongly to the institutional context and the
358 goal-setting agenda being pursued.

359

360 Extract 7: Family 22 (continuation of extract 6)

361

362 Clin Psy: so w wh what wo (.) what Colt you was
363 saying earlier about if we could change
364 ↓things or we could help you to ↓change
365 things (0.75) then (.) >one of the things<
366 was (0.23) wanting to go back
367 Child: woah ((*tower falling*))
368 Clin Psy: to the s:pecial (0.34) school that (0.38) Colt
369 went to be[cause]
370 Psychiatrist: [ah]

371Clin Psy: (0.25) there (.) there was (.) clear
372 boundaries and clear consequences and they
373 helped him to not be naughty is what Colt
374 was saying

375

376Here the alternative assessment relevant goal offered by the clinical psychologist was
377presented as something that Colt (the child), had talked about earlier – i.e., to go back to
378the special school where there were clearer boundaries that helped him manage his
379behaviour better. Once again, where the three wishes technique did not initially *work* as
380an institutionally relevant goal elicitation device, another approach was taken, and the
381‘wishes’ that the child has already placed on the metaphorical table were dismissed or
382ignored. Both practitioners talked about what the child’s three wishes could have been,
383and framed them as goals. In effect, they reframed what the three wishes question was
384about, reconstructing how they wanted the child to respond that was more assessment-
385relevant. We can clearly see again that there was a preference for an institutionally
386relevant response; indexically tied and appropriately situated for these questions. We
387can see this evidenced again in the following extract, where once more a wish was
388provided which did not conform to the agenda-setting exercise.

389

390Extract 8: Family 13

391

413 Again, the child did not seem to understand that the question was not really aimed at
414 eliciting his wildest dreams about having lots of money, but that there was a
415 fundamentally more sophisticated underlying premise to the question. A premise which
416 related directly back to the relevance of who was asking the question, when it was being
417 asked and in what institutional context. In this sense, the child's answer was treated as
418 dispreferred and an effort to elicit a different, better or more relevant response is
419 evidenced with 'what else?'

420

421 Extract 9: Family 13 (continuation of extract 8)

422

423 Child: two million pounds

424 ((*practitioners laugh*))

425 Registrar: oh a third one I think (I know) what you're

426 gonna say (0.45) is it three

427 Psychiatrist: is there anything you would like (0.22) is

428 there anything you would like to change?

429 (0.68) at home

430 Child: hum ((*shakes head at the same time*))

431 Psychiatrist: nothing?

432 Registrar: ↓no

433 Doctor: okay (.h) so you are okay?

434

(0.39)

435

436Notably, in Extract 9, the laughter after the child's second wish of two million pounds
437seems to indicate that it was treated as a 'bit of a joke' – again not sufficient, not
438appropriate, and certainly not *the right kind* of answer. At this point, the psychiatrist
439stepped in to be more directive and to give a clearer framework to the child about what
440kind of answer might be sufficient. He specifically directed the child to think about
441what he would like to change '*at home*'. Yet, this more direct approach, offered as a
442clarification to the three wishes, was not successful in eliciting an assessment-relevant
443shared goal.

444

445Discussion

446

447Using CA affords the opportunity to study assessment interactions and the sequential
448patterns within talk. CA is valuable in demonstrating how the process of assessments is
449achieved moment-to-moment and turn-by-turn. The specific investigation of how shared
450goals are established in child mental health encounters is not something that has been
451investigated in this way before. Bearing in mind the fact that children/adolescents vary
452considerably in terms of their presenting difficulties and developmental needs, the data

453 indicates that there was some consistency with regards to the sequence of turns
454 following the three wishes question.

455

456 This approach to analysing data demonstrated that there were three types of interaction
457 where the three wishes technique was displayed. First, the child/adolescent offered a
458 wish that was treated by the practitioner as sufficient, and the further two wishes were
459 not pursued. Second, there were occasions where the child/adolescent offered a wish
460 and the practitioner treated the response as insufficient. In other words, the three wishes
461 technique was extended and the full three wishes pursued. Third, the practitioner treated
462 an initial wish by the child/adolescent in a dismissive way. These three types of
463 interaction demonstrate that the implicit agenda of goal setting was not always
464 interactionally achieved. Thus, because the situated objective of the three wishes
465 technique was not always oriented to by the child/adolescent, the practitioner needed to
466 make the agenda more explicit.

467

468 The goal setting aspect of the agenda is a crucial part of the appointment, as it directs
469 the focus of the task. In this context, the questions presented by mental health
470 practitioners tend to relate to establishing the goals and pursuit of detail about them
471 (Thompson & McCabe, 2016). People normatively account for the context and
472 relationship in which the question is asked to offer a relevant answer. For example, if

473asked ‘how are you?’ by a cashier at the supermarket or a GP during a consultation, the
474person asked is likely to account for the situation and the person asking in their choice
475of response. Thus, not only is an answer conditionally relevant after a question is asked
476(Heritage, 2010), but also an *appropriate* kind of answer is relevant, depending on
477context and relationship. It is normatively expected that adults have an understanding
478about the appropriateness of types of answers to questions asked in a mental health
479setting. Additionally, parents are likely to be familiar with the function of the
480assessment. However, children/adolescents are not typically initiators of the
481appointment (Wolpert & Fredman, 1994) often do not know why they are there
482(Stafford et al., 2016) or misinterpret the function of the assessment (Bone et al., 2014).
483Arguably, they do not have the contextual information that enables them to consider
484what kind of answer is appropriate and relevant to the institutional agenda.

485

486In relation to the use of the three wishes technique, the question ‘if you had three wishes
487what would you wish for?’ could be taken as a straightforward request for wishes. In
488this setting, however, the subtler interpretation of the question would focus on
489identifying wishes relevant to mental health. What our data illustrates is that at times
490children/adolescents did not attend to this nuanced expectation. Notably, there may be a
491range of reasons, such as the child/adolescent may not see themselves as having a
492problem and thus this was not central to their responses, or they may be under review

493for a condition which means they interpret the question more literally (e.g., autism), or
494may have a specific language disorder. Regardless of the reason, what is important is
495that in some cases, practitioners abandoned the three wishes exercise to take a more
496direct approach to goal setting, seemingly treating it as a strategy that had not
497functioned in the way expected. Arguably, this may have left some children confused
498about why they were being asked about their wishes in the first place.

499

500There is an assumption that techniques like the three wishes are helpful for eliciting
501shared goals, yet this is not based on empirical evidence. The benefit of drawing on
502naturally occurring data to examine in situ practices is that the actual interactions can be
503scrutinized in detail. CA examines this kind of data, as it specifically allows for
504sequential analysis of questions and answers. As noted, our analysis shows that
505children/adolescents do not appear to have always accounted for the contextual setting
506in which the three wishes question has been asked. Understanding this may be of benefit
507to practitioners involved in frontline assessments. Specifically, if children/adolescents
508do not know the reason for their attendance, they have little basis for contextualizing the
509exercise.

510

511Indeed, practitioners do frequently ask children if they understand why they are
512attending the appointment, but do not always provide sufficient clarity for those that do

513not know (Stafford et al., 2016). Notably, we argue that the three wishes technique can
514be a useful exercise for goal setting, but some care needs to be taken. In other words,
515offering three wishes provides a basis for children to be encouraged to orient to their
516setting by offering more than one opportunity to do so, and in cases where this happens
517on the first wish allows the practitioner to abandon the other two and focus on the first
518and institutionally relevant wish. However, we argue that the technique is arguably
519more effective if practitioners first establish that children and adolescents understand
520the function of the assessment and the reasons why they are there for it to be most
521effective, to help them understand that the question is tied to the context and thus one
522wish may then be sufficient for the goal setting task. On this basis, one solution could
523be to ensure that they are provided with sufficient information about the purpose of the
524assessment prior to the goal setting component. Additionally, while asking about ‘three
525wishes’ may be generally understood to be something within a child’s domain,
526especially in targeting the suspected problems encountered by the child in the context of
527the assessment, it is necessary to account for the child’s competences in communication.
528Skills in communication such as reading facial expressions, intonation, syntax, as well
529as context and the intention of the speaker may have relevance to the interpretation of
530the question. This may be especially complex for questions with subtle context-bound
531agendas like the three wishes question. Such acquisition of pragmatic skills is often

532variable and developmentally tied and practitioners could bear this in mind when goal
533setting.

534

535In conclusion, ongoing attention is being given to improving the communication skills
536of practitioners at all levels of experience with the use of empirical evidence. Greater
537attention to the specifics of interaction through the training environment has potential to
538further improve practice. Although experienced practitioners often utilise effective
539communication techniques, translating and conveying these practices to trainees can
540sometimes be difficult. An understanding of the phraseology and subtleties of questions
541can highlight the need to examine other aspects of speech in more detail. We recognise
542that mental health practitioners representing different professional groups conduct
543assessments in different ways and that the use of questions, such as three wishes, are not
544utilised by all. Nonetheless, where practitioners do favour the use of these kinds of
545engagement techniques, we suggest that the relevance to the child and the goal-setting
546agenda are considered carefully.

547

548References

549

550Atkinson, JM & Heritage, J (Eds.), (1984). *Structures of Social Action: Studies in*

551*Conversation Analysis*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

552

553Bone, C O'Reilly, M Karim, K & Vostanis, P (2014). "They're not witches...": Young

554children and their parents' perceptions and experiences of Child and Adolescent Mental

555Health Services. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, 41(3), 450-458.

556

557Buston, K (2002). Adolescents with mental health problems: What do they say about

558health services? *Journal of Adolescence*, 25, 231-242.

559

560Chu, B & Kendall, P (2004). Positive associations of child involvement and treatment

561outcome within a manual-based cognitive behavioral treatment with anxiety. *Journal of*

562*Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 72, 821–829.

563

564DeVoe, E (2002). Questioning strategies in interviews with children who may have

565been sexually abused. *Child Welfare*, LXXXI (1), 5-31

566

567Drew, P Chatwin, J & Collins, S (2001). Conversation analysis: a method for research
568into interactions between patients and health-care professionals. *Health Expectations*,
5694(1), 58-70.

570

571Grigg, M Herrman, H Harvey, C & Endacott, R (2007). Factors influencing triage
572decisions in mental health services. *Australian Health Review*, 31, 239-245.

573

574Hartzell, M Seikkula, J & von Knorring, AL (2009). What children feel about their first
575encounter with child and adolescent psychiatry. *Contemporary Family Therapy*, 31,
576177-192.

577

578Hayano, K (2013). Question design in conversation. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.),
579*The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*. Blackwell Publishing, pp: 395-414

580

581Heritage, J (2010). Questioning in medicine. In: A Freed & S Ehrlich (Eds). “*Why do*
582*you ask*”: *The Function of Questions in Institutional Discourse*. New York: Oxford
583University Press, pp: 42-68

584

585Hutchby, I & Wooffitt, R (2008). *Conversation Analysis* (2nd ed.) Cambridge: Polity
586Press.

587

588Jefferson, G (1989). Preliminary notes on a possible metric which provides for a
589‘standard maximum’ silence of approximately one second in conversation. In: P. Bull &
590R. Derek (Eds.), *Conversation: An interdisciplinary approach*. Clevedon: Multilingual
591Matters, pp. 166–196

592

593Jefferson, G (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In: GH Lerner
594(Ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies from the First Generation*. Amsterdam: John
595Benjamins, pp. 13–31

596

597Karim, K (2015). The value of conversation analysis: A child psychiatrist’s perspective.
598In M O’Reilly and JN Lester (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Child Mental Health:
599Discourse and Conversation Studies*. Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan, pp 25-41

600

601Kieling, C Baker-Henningham, H Belfer, et al. (2011). Child and adolescent mental
602health worldwide: Evidence for action. *Lancet*, 378, 1515-1525.

603

604Kiyimba, N., & O’Reilly, M., (in press). The clinical use of Subjective Units of Distress
605scales (SUDs) in child mental health assessments: A thematic evaluation. *Journal of
606Mental Health*,

607

608 Mash, E & Hunsley, J (2005). Special section: Developing guidelines for the evidence-
609 based assessment of child and adolescent disorders. *Journal of Child and Adolescent*
610 *Psychology, 34*, 362-379.

611

612 Merikangas, K Nakamura, E & Kessler, R (2009). Epidemiology of mental disorders in
613 children and adolescents. *Dialogues Clinical Neuroscience, 11*, 7-20.

614

615 O'Reilly, M Karim, K Stafford, V & Hutchby, I (2015). Identifying the interactional
616 processes in the first assessments in child mental health. *Child and Adolescent Mental*
617 *Health, 20*(4), 195-201.

618

619 Parkin, A Frake, C & Davison, I (2003). A triage clinic in a Child and Adolescent
620 Mental Health Service. *Child and Adolescent Mental Health, 8*, 177–183.

621

622 Peräkylä, A. (1997). Conversation analysis: a new model of research in doctor-patient
623 communication. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine, 90*(4), 205.

624

625 Peräkylä, A., Antaki, C Vehviläinen, S & Leudar, I (Eds.). (2008). *Conversation*
626 *Analysis and Psychotherapy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

627

628Pilnick, A & Dingwall, R (2011). On the remarkable persistence of asymmetry in
629doctor/patient interaction: A critical review. *Social Science & Medicine*, 72(8), 1374-
6301382.

631

632Potter, J (2002). Two kinds of natural. *Discourse Studies*, 4(4), 539-542.

633

634Sacks, H (1992) (edited Jefferson, G.). *Lectures in Conversation*. Oxford: Blackwell.

635

636Sacks, H Schegloff, E & Jefferson, G (1974). A simplest systematics for the
637organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, 50, 696-735.

638

639Schegloff, E & Sacks, H (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica*, 8, 289-327

640

641Speer, S (2001). Reconsidering the concept of hegemonic masculinity: Discursive
642psychology, conversation analysis and participants' orientations. *Feminism &*
643*Psychology*, 11(1), 107-135.

644

645Stafford, V Hutchby, I Karim, K & O'Reilly, M (2016). "Why are you here?" Seeking
646children's accounts of their presentation to Child and Adolescent Mental Health
647Services, *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 21(1), 3-18

648

649Stivers, T (2001). Negotiating who presents the problem: Next speaker selection in
650pediatric encounters. *Journal of Communication*, 51(2), 252-282.

651

652Stivers, T & Heritage, J (2001). Breaking the sequential mold: Answering 'more than
653the question' during comprehensive history taking. *Text*, 21 (1/2), 151-185.

654

655Stivers, T & Robinson, J (2006). A preference for progressivity in interaction.
656*Language in Society*, 35, 367-392.

657

658Thompson, L & McCabe, R (2016). 'Good' communication in schizophrenia: A
659conversation analytic definition. In: M O'Reilly & JN Lester (Eds.), *The Palgrave*
660*Handbook of Adult Mental Health: Discourse and Conversation Studies*. Basingstoke:
661Palgrave MacMillan, pp: 395-418

662