The formation of teaching identities among novice social science seminar tutors: A longitudinal study at the London School of Economics and Political Science.

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Abstract

Research into academic identities has predominantly identified how social structures influence and constrain the agency of those involved in academic work (McLean, 2012). This reflects the predominantly sociological underpinnings of this research area (Clegg, 2005). This study introduces psychological theory on identity formation to offer a complementary focus on individual agency and personal meaning making. This longitudinal case study investigates how five novice social science graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) formed identities as academic teachers during their first two years in-service. These tutors participated in the London School of Economics’ Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCertHE) during these two years. Changing identity positioning over time (Wetherell, 2001) was captured in tutors’ writing using discourse analysis developed in the Discursive Psychological tradition (Edley, 2001).

The findings of this study offer insight into academic identity formation. However, this study also contributes to research into the impact that participation on developmental courses, such as the LSE PGCertHE, can have on aspiring faculty as academic teachers. Impact has been assessed through pre- and post-testing (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Hanbury, Prosser, & Rickinson, 2008; Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, & Nevgi, 2007) and case studies (Butcher & Stoncel, 2012; Ho, Watkins, & Kelly, 2001). These studies have found impacts in terms of increased student focus and self-efficacy (Stes, Min-Leliveld, Gijbels, & Van Petegem, 2010). This study presents complementary findings. However, the longitudinal design offers an account of how the change identified in the larger, survey-based studies can come about. This shifting positioning is presented here in terms of initial ‘idealism’ becoming ‘realism’ with experience, but then leading
to 'independence' as tutors developed 'pedagogic content knowledge' (Shulman, 1987).
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Chapter 1 – Introduction to the study

1.1 Justification for and context of the research

This opening chapter describes the starting point for the research project. This study is located within my professional background of teacher development work within higher education and the wider discourse of the professionalisation of teaching in the sector. The study investigates the impact of the Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCertHE) course that I run at a specialist social science HEI, The London School of Economics and Political Science. An unusual feature of this course is that it is voluntary and the majority of participants are PhD candidates working as graduate teaching assistants (GTAs).

Members of this group are often not able to take part in longer term institutional development opportunities (Park, 2004), and no other UK institution offers the chance for GTAs to complete the full PGCertHE over two years. This study therefore investigates the contribution longer term development opportunities can make to this expanding group of tutors, who deliver teaching outside of career and tenure track structures. The study is small scale, longitudinal and qualitative, utilising a method of discourse analysis developed within the Discursive Psychological tradition. This longitudinal analysis focusses on change over time in how these tutors formed and developed their professional identities as academic teachers, and the contribution their participation on the LSE PGCertHE can be seen to have made to this process.
1.2 Background to the research

I began this research for two reasons. The first was personal curiosity, though this was located within my working practices, and the other was professional. The personal reason related to the experience of marking coursework assignments as a PGCertHE course director. My background is in English language teaching. For a number of years I trained EFL teachers at Certificate and Diploma levels and my MA is in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching. This background means I notice the language used in the texts I read or the utterances I hear. I am curious about the choices speakers and writers make and what their syntactical, lexical and structural production does for the messages they offer and the rhetorical functions these messages serve. I left this behind professionally in 2004 when I set up the PGCertHE at the LSE, but as I marked my new participants' work, over time, I made an observation.

This observation was that there seemed to be differences between the writing these novice social science tutors produced in their first as opposed to second year assignments. I felt there were qualitative differences in the way these texts were produced, their frames of reference, and their complexity - both ideational and linguistic. I was curious about this because I felt that the differences in the coursework assignments set in the first and second years of the LSE PGCertHE could not in themselves explain this qualitative difference. The assignment requirements were clearly influential, but there was something more, something that differed between participants, but was observable across class sets of first as opposed to second year assignments. I began this research to learn about this difference and in this way to attempt to contribute to theoretical understandings around becoming a university teacher. To achieve this, a sensible approach seemed to be a case study based on the
writing of a number of graduates of the LSE PGCertHE across their first two years in-service. My thinking was that this would allow an analysis that explored their personal theories of learning to teach.

The professional reason for undertaking this research was that I wanted to reflect on the outcomes of the LSE PGCertHE. The course has grown year on year, with around 100 participants at any one time. It is also an unusual course in that it is voluntary and our participants primarily work as GTAs during their PhD study. The LSE funds the course for two reasons. The first is to improve the quality of participants’ teaching. That the majority of undergraduate class teaching is delivered by GTAs, rather than full time faculty, is a potential reputational risk to the LSE, although overall student responses to institutional surveys do not tend to single this group out. The LSE PGCertHE is regarded institutionally as part of the reason for this situation. Secondly, the LSE funds the programme in order to offer GTAs a valuable element of the ‘PhD package’ – a qualification to go with their teaching experience. This research is an attempt to explore the impact of this PGCertHE on participants, by investigating the development of five of its graduates over their first two years of teaching.

Establishing the impact of a PGCertHE course and separating this out from other influences is challenging (Postareff, et al., 2007). There are many interacting variables and context and circumstance are profoundly influential (Norton et al., 2005). By conducting a case study with five graduates of the LSE PGCertHE, I felt I could place their development within the contexts in which they learned to teach. I believed I would be able to discover their narrative of becoming an academic teacher. This narrative is wrapped up in their disciplines, life histories and the particularities of their departments, their students and our institution. These narratives are also intertwined
with the courses they taught on, and the particular features of the LSE PGCertHE
course they took. These courses are unique environments and were experienced
uniquely by each participant in this study. This is why I chose a small scale case study
approach, to see how these five graduates made sense of themselves as teachers over
time and how this was mediated through their completion of the LSE PGCertHE.

1.3 Locating the research study in its professional context

The area under investigation here is the professionalisation of teaching in higher
education. However, there are important ways in which this study takes a particular
angle on this wider area. In the UK context, professionalisation of teaching in HE has
largely been government-led through agenda-setting reports such as those by Lords
Dearing in 1997 and Browne in 2010. These reports have set expectations that quasi-
regulatory bodies such as the Higher Education Academy (HEA) (and the ILTHE before
it) have followed, creating frameworks for compliance across the sector on
professional development for academic teaching. UK PGCertHEs are accredited by the
HEA and explicitly linked to the UK Professional Standards Framework and the
Professional Recognition scheme of Fellowship to the HEA.¹

This study relates to one of the groups within this wider discourse of
professionalisation that is often invisible. These groups involve those who teach in UK
higher education, but who are not on career or tenure tracks and so do not tend to be
covered by the professionalisation processes (Park, 2004). Instead, members of these
groups may be on fixed-term research contracts, or be hourly paid guest teachers. Or,
as is the case with this study, they may be part of a growing, but still similarly

¹ http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/UKPSF
marginalised group, that of PhD students employed as graduate teaching assistants. These groups tend to be missed by CPD schemes, professional development programmes and even staff inductions (Prieto & Meyers, 1999). Yet much teaching is done by members of these groups and at the LSE, the majority of undergraduate class teaching provision is GTA-led. This is unusual and, for the majority, the LSE GTA experience asks a great deal of these novice or early career academic teachers.

This study is within the area of professionalization of teaching and learning, but with a marginalised group, since the members of this group are not generally able to access a PGCertHE. There are voluntary GTA programmes at other institutions, for instance the University of Kent has a larger course than the LSE. However, no other UK institution enables GTAs to complete the full PGCertHE over two years of study. An enquiry to the HEA confirmed that all other GTA programmes in the country are capped at the one-year Associate level, generally in recognition of the limited opportunities to teach that GTAs are able to access. GTAs at LSE, on the other hand, teach scheduled classes across the academic year, mark formatively assessed coursework, edit Moodle sites, may second mark end of year exam scripts and in some cases, may deliver a guest lecture on their PhD research area. So in investigating the outcomes of this very particular PGCertHE, through a small group of graduates who completed the programme in the summer of 2010, this study investigates the outcomes of training those for whom training is often unavailable. The study also considers the impact of offering this group longer term development opportunities, an element that has been identified as particularly important to the impact of teacher development programmes in higher education (Postareff, et al., 2007).
1.4 Locating the study within its institutional context

The LSE PGCertHE course is a two year, 60 credit certificate, accredited by the UK Higher Education Academy. As mentioned, unusually for such a course, the majority of participants are graduate teaching assistants teaching at the School while completing their doctoral studies. The majority of participants take the course on a voluntary basis, rather than as part of a probationary requirement. The course design involves participants completing practical assignments. In the first year these are modules on small group teaching, supporting student learning and evaluating teaching. During the second year, assignments are written for modules on assessing student work, lecturing and course design. Coursework portfolios are built up over the two years with the total word count of these texts coming to around 12-15,000 words over the six assignments and reflective writing tasks pre-service and at the end of each year.

The practical coursework assignments require tutors to offer a rationale for their teaching choices and this must be supported with illustrative documentary evidence of their teaching practice. This involves documents such as session plans, class handouts, teaching observation reports, course proposals, MS Power Point slide shows, student feedback and end of term reports. Participants’ rationales explain their demonstrated teaching practice and place their teaching choices within personal, institutional, disciplinary and pedagogic contexts. Participants also produce three pieces of reflective writing. For the tutors in this study, the first of these was pre-service (or in their first week of teaching) and then they wrote retrospective reflections at the end of their first and second years of teaching. Analysing these coursework texts is similar to the time series interviews conducted in other studies (Pickering,
However, the analysis here is with naturally occurring data from these tutors’ participation on the LSE PGCertHE.

1.5 Identifying the research question for the study

Given the impetus for this research, three themes emerged which guided the identification of a research question. The first theme informing this research was of change over time. I was interested in how these GTAs’ writing changed on the different years of the programme and what this might mean about their understanding of teaching and learning. This links to the second theme informing the research, which was the impact (or contribution) of a teacher development programme on the process of learning to teach as experienced by these novice social science GTAs. This impact was expected to intertwine with a range of other factors such as disciplinary background, life history, teaching circumstances, students and other key relationships, such as with course convenors.

A third theme guiding the identification of a research question relates to the data for this study. Theme 1 relates to change over time and I felt I had noticed evidence of this change in the writing about teaching and learning produced by participants in the different years of the course. This change also relates to theme 2, since any impact of the LSE PGCertHE, might reasonably be expected to be evident in the way this writing changed. Since themes 1 and 2 were embedded within changing discursive practices in texts written over time, the data for this study necessarily became the PGCertHE graduates’ portfolio of texts submitted over their first two years of teaching for the different assignments and reflective tasks of the LSE PGCertHE course. However, this data also influenced the pursuit of a research question. An appropriate question
would need to relate to the changing linguistic and indexical choices found in the writing of the texts, choices which relate to changing presentation of self (Davies & Harre, 1990). A key interest of this study was then how the same GTA wrote differently about the teaching and learning in which they were involved, over the course of their first two years in service.

This emphasis on presentation of self and change over time appeared to fit within the broad and developing research area of academic identity, and in particular the formation and negotiation of this kind of professional identity. This framework of identity formation influenced the choice of question through recommending the associated research method of discourse analysis. I investigated different forms of discourse analysis and chose the method developed within the Discursive Psychological tradition because this approach specialises in language use for social ends (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998; Potter & Wetherell, 1987). What analysis of this kind can offer in a longitudinal study is a means of tracing the formation of identity through the claims made and language and reference used by an individual across time. The research question this study investigated was then:

'How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?'

As is common with the case study method, this research study is small scale and is cautious about offering generalisable claims (as part of chapter 6). This caution is a feature of much qualitative research, and is present in the area of academic identities more particularly.
'The context for any research that seeks to explore academic identities is always local, in that while the particular position of an institutional site(s) can be read across national and global hierarchies, they also operate at the micro level of difference' (Clegg, 2005; 332).

This more micro-level will involve the interaction of personal factors (Austin, 2010) and the particular ways of ‘thinking and practising’ within departments (Deem & Lucas, 2007; Knight & Trowler, 2000). Other influences found to impact on teaching identity formation include the discipline itself (Neumann & Becher, 2002; Nevgi, Postareff, & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2004) and how developing as a researcher may influence changing explanations of teaching that discipline (Nettles & Millett, 2006). Given these multiple and interacting influences on identity formation, I argue that small scale qualitative studies have a role to play in investigating personal meaning making and the individual realisation of social roles and identities. This research approach accepts that each person’s experience of identity formation will be unique because of:

‘... the inevitable negotiation between the workplace’s norms and practices and the individual’s subjectivities and identities’ (Billett, 2001, p. 114).

Another aspect worth raising at the beginning relates to the analysis of naturally occurring data, in this case PGCertHE coursework artefacts. A valid concern with this approach is that the context within which these texts were written influenced what was written in them. There are two ways I respond to this concern. The first is that this is an investigation of the impact of a PGCertHE course. The influence these texts had on how, and even whether, these tutors wrote reflective and coursework texts is
therefore germane. It would be unfortunate if there was no influence at all. However, a wider and more theoretical point is also argued in this thesis. This is that identity is relational, that is it exists in the interactions that constitute and enact identity positions (Davies & Harre, 1990). As such, interactive context always influences what is said and written (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006). In the Discursive Psychological tradition, identity is investigated for its role in social relations, in particular the interpersonal positioning that language use achieves and the linguistic and ideational repertoires associated with particular positions that mediate this positioning (Edley, 2001). This method, and its theoretical underpinnings, is presented in chapter 3.

1.6 The contribution the study seeks to make

This study addresses a research question that has received considerable scholarly attention, but with a group of academic teachers, GTAs, who have received relatively little. The majority of studies into the formation of academic identities have focused on career track lecturing staff, not the GTA cohort. Partly this is because it is unusual for GTAs to get the extent of teaching available at the LSE. However, this appears to be changing in UK academia as academic roles become increasingly fragmented or contract and post-doctoral positions become more mainstream (L. Archer, 2008a). Research into the development over time of those teaching as part of their doctoral experience has been conducted in the US, within the more structured model of Teaching Assistantships (Wulff, Austin, Nyquist, & Sprague, 2004). This research was done in very different teaching settings to the LSE and other UK HEIs, however, the longitudinal approach taken seems extremely valuable in investigating the process of identity formation. This study takes a genuinely longitudinal approach and therefore seeks to contribute to the research area of academic identities by offering this
relatively rare perspective. It is in this context that the study also seeks to contribute to researching the impact of PGCertHE courses, though with due caution for how generalisable the findings can be in such a diverse sector.

The findings of this research contribute in two ways. Firstly, this thesis introduces a form of discourse analysis, and a psychological perspective, to the research area of academic identity (McLean, 2012). The findings demonstrate how challenge and anxiety at fulfilling identity positions associated with the role of class tutor drove changing understandings of teaching and learning in these GTAs’ experiences of learning to teach. This finding adds to claims that teacher development work in higher education should make use of ‘fault lines’ (Rowland, 2002) and this may also shed light on why PGCertHE courses have (often unfairly) been criticised for being generic and failing to reflect disciplinary and departmental realities (Fanghanel, 2004).

Secondly, the study demonstrates how greater complexity in understandings of teaching developed over time through the negotiation of teaching dilemmas and in response to input from the LSE PGCertHE. Second year writing by these PGCertHE participants differs from their first year writing because it is infused with wider frames of reference that are integrated into narratives of struggling with and overcoming challenges that make and mediate identity claims. This finding ties into notions of academic identity as a trajectory of personal experiences (McAlpine & Lucas, 2011). This case study demonstrates how each of these tutors’ ‘awareness’ expanded over time (Äkerlind, 2003). This demonstration informs the observation that longer courses have greater impacts on those who participate (Knight, 2006; Postareff, et al., 2007). I argue that the production of narratives of self can be structured through input and iterative coursework writing on a PGCertHE course.
These findings contribute to theory and practice in higher education because firstly reflective writing and practical assignments are staples of PGCertHE and Postgraduate Certificates in Academic Practice (PGCAP) courses. Reflective practice, and the model of the reflective practitioner (Schön, 1984), has become synonymous with this form of teacher development. This study demonstrates how this repeated writing of texts that require novice tutors to discuss their teaching and learning and present themselves as a particular kind of academic teacher, develops that thinking and presentation of self over time. This is a contribution to confirming the practice of such writing itself, but also suggests how this kind of writing can be implemented, with emphasis placed on challenge and the integration of input across different modules. A further observation on this kind of writing is that in the case of these tutors, it seems to have been a form of peripheral participation developing the linguistic and indexical performances of membership of the communities of practice academic teachers inhabit (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Over time, it seems that these tutors ‘wrote’ themselves into being disciplinary teachers, as opposed to students of their disciplines.
Chapter 2 – Literature review

2.1 Introduction – how tutors form identities as academic teachers

This study investigated the question:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

There has been much recent interest in the notion of identity as a means of capturing the multifaceted nature of development as an academic, and as part of this, as a teacher in higher education. Looking across recent studies of academic identity formation, a common thread is underpinning from sociological theory. As a result, an answer to the research question from across these studies is that a professional identity is formed through the interaction of individual agency and social structures. Individual agency has been researched in a number of ways, including self-efficacy, expectations and ambitions, personal meaning making and life stories (Deem & Lucas, 2007; McAlpine & Lucas, 2011; Remmik, Karm, Haamer, & Lepp, 2011; Robertson & Bond, 2005). Educational structures, and their influence on individual agency, have been investigated in terms of the discipline (Neumann & Becher, 2002), department (Knight & Trowler, 2000), institutional policies (L. Archer, 2008a; Smith, 2010), teaching arrangements and cultures and the impacts of development courses, such as the LSE PGCertHE (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Hanbury, et al., 2008; Postareff, et al., 2007). Section 2.2 outlines how these studies contribute to an understanding of identity formation in academic teaching staff. This section also critiques the relative absence of longitudinal studies of this process.
There are two other literatures on teacher development in higher education which also contribute to understanding identity formation, though neither uses this term explicitly. These research areas are older than that of academic identities research. The first offers the longitudinal focus often absent in academic identities research. This literature is from North America and has resulted in models of developmental stages through which teaching assistants have been found to pass (Boice, 1992; Kugel, 1993; Sprague & Nyquist, 1991; Staton & Darling, 1989; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Wulff, et al., 2004). A reading of these studies offers a somewhat different answer to the research question. This is that teaching assistants form identities as academic teachers by passing through different stages (Nyquist & Wulff, 1996). These stages are identity positions in all but name, since this research investigates identity category attributes such as teaching assistants’ attitudes, discourse and positioning of self (Edley, 2001). Section 2.3 outlines this research literature, critiquing the conformity of progression and empirical basis for these models.

The third relevant research area into teacher development in higher education is broadly contemporary to the US developmental stage models. This is research into conceptions of teaching (CoTs) developed in Commonwealth universities during the 1990s (Kember, 1997). This approach investigates how tutors conceive of their role as academic teachers, and how this affects their actual teaching practice. The findings of these investigations into CoTs have been nested hierarchies of conceptions on a continuum from teacher-centred, information transmission-focussed understandings of the teaching role across to more student-centred, conceptual change-focussed conceptions (Dall'Alba, 1991; Martin & Balla, 1991; Prosser, Trigwell, & Taylor, 1994; Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992). Reading these studies, and in particular more recent
relational CoTs studies (Åkerlind, 2003, 2007; Carnell, 2007; González, 2011), provides a different answer to my research question. This would be that an ‘expanding awareness’ comes with increasing experience of teaching, and some academic teachers can be seen to build on earlier, less complex, teacher-centric conceptions of teaching and include these within more complex, more student-centric conceptions of teaching and learning. This is then reflected in their teaching choices and practice, and this can be seen to influence how their students themselves approach their study (Trigwell, Prosser, & Waterhouse, 1999). Section 2.4 outlines this research, critiquing as it does this the links that can be established between conceptions and actual practice. This said, if identity is the personal enactment of a social role (Burke & Stets, 2009), then the conceptions of that role which an individual holds (and how these develop over time) should be taken seriously as a component of identity formation.

**2.2 Investigating identity formation – influence and choice**

**2.2.1 Definitions of identity**

A logical starting point in a study on identity formation is defining the concept ‘identity’ and outlining the processes associated with its ‘formation’. A first observation on the concept of ‘identity’ is that it is both an individual and a social phenomenon (Burke & Stets, 2009). The individual aspect reflects the exercise of personal agency. In chapter 3, I introduce Discursive Psychological theory on identity (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). This theory underpins the research methods chosen for this longitudinal investigation. This psychological perspective focusses on personal agency in the form of individual meaning making and the presentation of self (Edley, 2001). This perspective complements definitions current in the academic identities.
literature, which tend to reflect sociological theory (McLean, 2012). This socio-cultural and social realist background has provided academic identities studies with definitions of identity that stress its shared, communal properties. In these studies therefore, personal agency is investigated within the contexts and constraints of influential social structures (L. Archer, 2008a; Becher & Trowler, 1989; Clegg & McAuley, 2005; Fanghanel, 2007; Knight, 2002; Smith, 2010). Whether researching identity from a psychological or sociological perspective, the dual elements of identity are seen to be distinguishable but inseparable:

‘The concept of identity serves as a pivot between the social and the individual’ (Love & Wenger, 1998, p. 13).

This interaction between individual and social elements of identity is because:

‘Identity is built around social engagement and is constantly being renegotiated as individuals move through different forms of participation. However, the process of learning and identity construction is not simply the outcome of participation in the opportunities provided by existing structural arrangements, it is also shaped by the way individuals exercise their agency in the workplace’ (Jawitz, 2009, p. 243).

This approach is common across studies in this area of research (Billett, 2001; Clegg, 2005; Knight & Trowler, 2000; Rainbird, Fuller, & Munro, 2004). Thus different authors have stressed the situated nature of identity formation within communities of practice. As Jawitz argues, this provides individuals with the context within which to enact social
roles. Communities of practice are therefore enabling. Communities of practice are also restrictive however, in that they require and reward certain kinds of behaviours (Henkel, 2000).

Professional identities are ‘formed’ through how an individual enacts their role in their working context. Focusing more narrowly on teaching identities, influences on identity formation identified in Kahn (2009) include structural and cultural factors, and highlight the importance of the context in which an academic learns and adapts to their teaching role. This then involves the programme they teach on, their department and discipline, their workload and teaching responsibilities (L. Archer, 2008a; Becher & Trowler, 1989; Clegg & McAuley, 2005; Fanghanel, 2007; Knight, 2002; Smith, 2010). However, the individual’s understanding of departmental expectations and their reflexive deliberation on their practice will also be influential (Clegg, 2008; McAlpine & Weston, 2000; Remmik & Karm, 2009; Rice, Sorcinelli, & Austin, 2000). This reflection drives the progressive specification of actions as appropriate or not, and desirable or not. In the social realist tradition underpinning much of this literature, this deliberation offers an account for decision making and development (M. S. Archer, 2000, 2003, 2007).

It is also the case that identities can be seen to overlap with each other. In this study, identities as academic teachers are seen as a part of these tutors’ wider identities as aspiring academics. Academic identities are themselves subsumed within wider identity claims:

‘... in so far as individuals conceptualise themselves as having an identity as an academic, this multiple and shifting term exists.'
alongside other aspects of how people understand their personhood and ways of being in the world’ (Clegg, 2005, p. 329).

In this thesis, teaching identities are then seen as part of a wider academic identity, with teaching constitutive of this professional identity, but also influenced by other facets of broader professional and social identities (Lamote & Engels, 2010).

As intimated in the preceding quotes, the formation of academic identities also has a temporal element in two ways. The first is that the construction of identity through lived experience is seen as ongoing. This is because the negotiation of identity positions occurs in different circumstances and changes over time. Thus the interpretation of professional identity can be viewed as a form of ‘argument’ (Remmik, et al., 2011) that an individual uses to justify, explain, and provide meaning to their activity, situations, and values while representing the profession. Thus:

‘Professional identity is an on-going process of interpretation and reinterpretation of experiences’ (2011, p. 189).

This theme of constant change is also common across studies of academic identity.

‘Identity is understood not as a fixed property, but as part of the lived complexity of a person’s project and their ways of being in those sites which are constituted as being part of the academic’ (Clegg, 2005, p. 329).

While change is constant, it is also possible to identify coherence in identity claims over time. Just as Remmik et al. (2011) liken the negotiation of professional identity to
an 'argument', so a similar analogy is that identities are narratives. In line with narratives more generally, Gergen (1994) outlines how this entails a coherent biographical element to identity. McAlpine & Amundsen (2011) refer to this as 'identity trajectory'. They argue that:

'The trajectory emerges through and is embodied in cumulative day-to-day experiences of varied and complex intentions, actions and interactions with others...that may include setbacks as well as unexpected detours and opportunities. The notion of an academic identity-trajectory underscores the extent to which individuals tend to link past-present-future experiences in some fashion, whether imagining forward or looking back on a journey that is not necessarily, or perhaps rarely, straightforward' (2011, p. 129).

In summary, definitions of academic identity in this literature, identify four key elements. Firstly, a professional identity of this sort involves the individual interpretation and enactment of social roles and positions. Secondly, professional identity is formed through the lived experience of interacting in these roles or positions (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Golde & Dore, 2001). Thirdly, these tutors' professional identities were framed within wider identities and interactions within research contexts, as well as with family and friendship groups. A fourth theme in these definitions is temporal. Firstly, this sense of time encompasses the notion of constant change. This is that identities are not stable and fixed, but are rather flexible and change with circumstance and company. Over time, nonetheless, identity entails an element of biography and this frequently involves a coherent sense of progress over time as learning and reflection link past, present and future (Acker & Armenti, 2004).
2.2.2 Structure and agency in the formation of identities as an academic teacher

Reading studies in the academic identities literature would suggest a particular answer to the research question:

‘How did tutors develop identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

This answer is that these studies have identified a range of influences that combine to provide the resources and circumstances in which professional identities are shaped. These influences include personal factors, as well as disciplinary and institutional contexts. Within the investigation of wider academic identities, teaching identities have also been investigated with reference to teaching experiences and conditions, and the impact of being trained to teach.

2.2.2.1 The influence of personal factors

One reason that personal factors are crucial is that they influence interpretation and meaning making and this is variable across individuals (Deem & Lucas, 2005; Robertson & Bond, 2005). Remmik et al. (2011, pp. 194-195) argue that a

‘... number of factors influence novice lecturers’ identity development, such as their interest in teaching, the balance between their different roles, the amount of perceived insecurity, their readiness to ask for help, and their recognition of academic isolation’.
Added to this list are the expectations early career academics bring to their new roles. Rice et al (2000, p. 6) found a sense of excitement about academic work in their interviews with PhD candidates. They cite respondents looking for

‘... the opportunity to stretch my mind ...’

or to experience

‘... the boundlessness in how I construct the work, [in which] I am my own boss and set my own agenda and hours – both intellectually and practically.’

Another area of expectation may be passion for the research area (Austin, 2002; Rice, 1996) and a sense of idealism about what they can accomplish (Austin, Sorcinelli, & McDaniels, 2007; Boice, 1992; Trowler, 2005). These expectations have also been linked to values held by aspiring and early career faculty (Fitzmaurice, 2008).

These studies have found that these expectations are often unmet. The reality of academic work involves new concerns and challenges created by lack of clarity about institutional and faculty expectations. Aspiring and early career faculty experience time pressure and a lack of collegiality (Austin & Rice, 1998; Olsen & Near, 1994; Rice, et al., 2000; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Austin, in a later study, cites junior faculty reporting ‘competition, loneliness and isolation’ (2010, p. 29) as a result of this experience of dissonance between expectations and reality.

This dissonance of reality from expectations appears to impact academics’ confidence in their institutions and may create professional identities that are defensive and
deficit driven. Studies have pointed to the consequences of dislocation between expectations and institutional realities in terms of loss of trust, guilt and insecurity (Butterwick & Dawson, 2005; Harris, 2005; Morley, 2003). However, these negative effects are balanced in the literature with new subject positions emerging from these pressures (L. Archer, 2008a; Eveline, 2005; Morley, 2003). One response to pressures such as league table performance is to reframe priorities, emphasising personal rather than institutional narratives. For instance, Clegg writes that:

‘The imaginary ‘othering’ of more traditional academic spaces is fascinating because rather than, as might be expected given the lower unit of resources and relative position in league tables, a sense of inferiority, many respondents argued that these more elite spaces were less likely to be capable of sustaining their personal project’

(Clegg, 2008, p. 343).

Another personal factor that intertwines with the fulfilment of expectations is self-efficacy. The extent to which a new lecturer believes themselves able to manage their new role will predictably affect their experience of doing so (Pintrich, 2004). Taking on new responsibilities is clearly a challenging time, perhaps made more so by the high proportion of new academic staff who take on new roles while also moving house and even country (Musselin, 2004). As a result, challenges to optimism appear common. For instance, Remmik et al. report that in their study

‘...novice lecturers are insecure about whether they can handle the responsibilities and challenges they face. Failures are invariably interpreted as signs of their own incompetence’ (2011, p. 195).
This choice of interpretation, placing the self at the centre of a perceived failure, will then impact on the decisions these faculty make and the kind of teacher they come to describe themselves as. An example is the following quote from a study by Ruth & Naidoo (2012, p. 115). In this quote, an early career academic demonstrates the process of identity formation through creating a self-narrative of progress and principle in overcoming challenges.

‘But you can start to have doubts about your Self when there is all this lack of support around you. It seems to be only you for it does not seem to affect others. Have you asked them? Do they care? If they don’t why should you care? Stuff it. I assure you that will happen only for a short time before your Values start to kick in.’

2.2.2.2 The influence of disciplinary background

In developing a professional identity as an academic, the personal factors outlined in the previous section then interact with wider structures, such as the research discipline an early career academic works within. There is considerable diversity in disciplinary traditions (Collini, 2003) and between disciplinary contexts and cultures (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Biglan, 1973; Entwistle, 2003). Lindblom-Ylänne et al. (2006) offer support for the influence of disciplinary ways of thinking and the effect of the discipline on teaching, learning and doing research, as do Smeby (1996), McCune & Hounsell (2005) and Neumann et al. (2002). Similarly, Henkel (2000, p. 22) argues that the discipline is the central place where:

‘... academics construct their identities, their values, the knowledge base of their work, their modes of working and their self-esteem’.
Considering the expectations of what an academic career entails that were discussed in the previous section, it seems reasonable to position the discipline as the place where 'a sense of academic identity flourishes' (Korgan, 2000, p. 209).

Research into disciplinary effects on teaching identities focusses on the nature of the discipline itself and how teaching traditions have developed in line with this. Becher (1989) built on Biglan's (1973) six-fold classification and identified four categories of discipline; 'pure hard', 'pure soft', 'applied hard' and 'applied soft'. This was done on the basis of cultural and epistemological differences. According to Neumann et al. (2002), in 'pure hard' disciplines such as physics, knowledge tends to be cumulative in nature. Teaching content is linear, straightforward and relatively uncontroversial. Instructional methods are thus mainly mass lectures and laboratory or problem-based seminars. The focus of student learning is on fact retention and on the ability to solve logically structured problems. Thus, Martin et al. (2000) found congruence between tutors who saw the knowledge of their discipline as relatively fixed being more likely to adopt teacher-centred teaching approaches.

A further influence of disciplinary culture on identity is the perceptions disciplinary insiders have of their discipline and themselves. According to Ylijoki (2000), the core of each discipline can be conceptualised as a moral order which defines the basic beliefs, values and norms of the local culture. Utilising Becher's (1989) four categories, Ylijoki (2000) found clear differences in ways that social identities are constructed in different disciplines. Identifying the culture of her social psychology and sociology grouping most relevant to this study, Ylijoki found narratives of the 'lone scholar', the difficulty and complexity of the research task and the importance of 'pure' scholarly motivation. In the face of the apparent life-long challenge of disciplinary study for this
group, it seems understandable that tutors would more easily feel concern for their competence and work/life balance. These shared perceptions then contrast with those Neumann et al. (2002) identified among natural scientists whose reported self-efficacy was high. Lindblom-Ylänne et al. (2006, p. 295) suggest that:

'...it may follow that teachers from the Faculty of Sciences feel themselves more certain as teachers than teachers from other faculties, because of the linear and 'straightforward' teaching content.'

Academics from different disciplinary backgrounds may also gain quite different kinds of experience. For instance, in a large scale quantitative study of aspiring faculty in the US, Nettles and Millett (2006) found that just under half of social science doctoral students produced conference research papers, which is fewer than their counterparts in engineering, humanities, maths and science. Having articles and presentations accepted in peer reviewed journals is part of the initiation into disciplinary communities. Success or failure in this area is likely to have consequences on an individual's sense of themselves as an academic, and in turn as an academic teacher.

2.2.2.3 The influence of institutional context

In addition to the discipline within which an academic develops their professional identity, the institution in which they work will also have an influence. This has been an area of great interest in UK research into academic identities, with studies investigating the impact of neo-liberal culture and institutional prescriptions (L. Archer, 2008a), probationary experiences (Smith, 2010) and the changing nature of academic work (L. Archer, 2008b; Barnett, 2005; Clegg, 2008; Henkel, 2000). As Nicholls argues:
‘... new lecturers are making links very early in their careers between university expectations, academic worth, research, teaching, and the role of development’ (2005, p. 621).

As outlined in the discussion of frustrated expectations in section 2.2.2.1, research into institutional impacts on academic identity formation points to a range of negative impacts. For instance, Deem & Brehony (2005) and Clegg and McAuley (2005) have highlighted the negative influences of managerialist practices, while Naidoo & Jamieson (2005) identify discourse related to consumerism as a challenge to traditional academic practices and positions.

This sense of changing circumstances in higher education is also present in the US, where the rise in non-tenure track positions relates to flexibility in employment practices (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007; Leslie, 2005). This in turn increases the fear and anxiety about the tenure decisions that get made (Rice, et al., 2000). While conditions may be seen as increasingly less favourable, Austin notes that aspiring and early career academics are sensitive to the messages they receive:

‘They observe that administrators may articulate the importance of teaching as part of the institution’s mission, but that decisions about promotion and tenure of faculty members often relate to research productivity’ (2010, p. 32).

This issue of the competing importance of teaching relative to research is identified widely. Barnett (2000a, 2000b, 2003, 2005) has analysed the increasing dislocation between teaching and research, which influences how teaching identities are
negotiated and sustained. An example of this kind of constrained agency in choosing how to approach teaching comes from Ruth & Naidoo (2012, p. 114), who quote an interviewee discussing the impact of institutional context.

‘Eureka! Now I know it’s not just my age, but the crappy support at Massey. It is very stressful and I get tired. It is tiresome and one is always whining! So after a while, one stops! But maybe we should all continue to do so and then maybe we will have some Managerial action. Why do we want to shoulder all of the responsibility all the time?’

One aspect of this self-narrative that is interesting is the tutor’s claim to be succeeding despite, rather than because of, their institutional circumstances and management. This claim is similar to the quote from Clegg (2008) in section 2.2.2.1. Both reflect the constrained agency involved in identity formation.

2.2.2.4 The influence of departmental circumstances

The most immediate and far-reaching aspects of institutional influence are the culture, practices and personalities of the department within which an academic teaches (Knight, 2002). This is highlighted by the greater power the department is seen to hold over approaches to teaching compared to the input from PGCertHE courses (Knight & Trowler, 2000). In fact, the impact of PGCertHE courses has been seen as dependent on the extent to which their input is congruent with departmental expectations and practice (Fanghanel, 2004; Trowler & Cooper, 2002). As an example of the influence of departmental expectations on teaching, Prosser & Trigwell (1997) identified congruence between the approaches to teaching taken by individuals and the norms of
their department. In this study, those who adopted student-focussed approaches (the ‘CCSF’ category as identified using the Attitudes to Teaching Inventory (ATI)) were more likely to report that they felt teaching was valued in their department and that they were given control over what to teach. In contrast, Gibbs & Coffey (2004) found that respondents teaching in departments that they felt did not value teaching reported being under pressure to conform to teacher-oriented, lecturing style teaching modes.

Interestingly, Prosser & Trigwell (1997) found that links between scores on the ATI and on their Perceptions of the Teaching Environment Inventory were more marked with established staff, suggesting that this is not simply a ‘newcomer phenomenon’. In fact, Norton et al. (2005) argue that this may mean that contextual factors represent a greater influence on teaching decisions with experienced staff. This finding seems to reflect the ongoing negotiation of identity mentioned in section 2.2.1, and might also be interpreted as reflecting a process of socialisation and acculturation, with a significant role played by advice giving among colleagues (Sadler, 2008).

Substantive differences between departmental cultures also influence identity formation. In the US, Nettles and Millett (2006) reported that social science doctoral students had the lowest perceptions of the quality of their relationships with academic staff compared to other disciplinary backgrounds. Perhaps in compensation, peer support networks were rated very highly by this group. Nettles & Millett also reported strong disciplinary influence on expectations, with 50% of social science doctoral students completing their doctorate, compared to 75% in engineering, 45% in humanities and 72% in maths and science. These outcomes interact with the
perceptions and cultures within departments, which provide context for how academics develop their professional identities.

2.2.2.5 The influence of teaching experiences

As discussed, professional identity is taken here to be the outcome of the personal enactment of shared social roles or positions (Burke & Stets, 2009). As such, lived experience is an essential element of the formation of identity (Billig et al., 1988). With a teaching identity, the lived experience of teaching influences the kind of academic teacher that an individual becomes (Lawler, 2008). Initially, novice lecturers may not define themselves as teachers when they start teaching (Laksov, Mann, & Dahlgren, 2008). In fact, Walker, Gleaves and Grey (2006) found that a key element in lecturers’ everyday practice was how they balanced teaching and research. Societal perceptions of teaching are also important (Coldron & Smith, 1999). However, a common theme in studies of learning to teach in higher education is the experience of being unprepared for the role of lecturer or seminar tutor. For instance, Remmik et al. (2011, p. 192) quote one of their interviewees (Social Science R32) as saying:

‘I am the one that was just pushed into the auditorium and told ‘go and do it’. I had no experience and I had to draw on everything from my prior learner experience.’

Unsurprisingly, Menges (1999) demonstrates that this minimal preparation for teaching results in stress for new academics. This is exacerbated because:
‘While research usually involves engagement with an academic community, teaching has been characterised as an individual private affair’ (Jawitz, 2009, p. 242).

This combination of stress and coping in isolation is a theme in academic teaching identity narratives and research (Adams & Rytmeister, 2000; Remmik & Karm, 2009). However, this needn’t necessarily be the case. Austin & McDaniels (2006) found that teaching assistants also do not often have systematic preparation for many aspects of teaching, however Walker et al. (2006, p. 69) reported that 90% of the history doctoral students they interviewed self-reported ‘high levels of proficiency in the ability to design and teach a course’. Such an outcome surely reflects a range of causes, however in part, this result may reflect the differing expectations on GTAs and new lecturers. This distinction is then also evident in the different levels of training offered to both groups (Prieto & Meyers, 1999).

However, whether prepared or not, aspiring and early career faculty have to interact with their students and this appears a critical relationship in the establishment of teaching identities (Pickering, 2006; Sadler, 2008). Natural feedback has been found to be an element in this:

‘Student responses in lectures and seminars were interpreted as indicating the appropriacy of teaching. This was gauged by eye-contact, facial expression and most crucially the degree to which students were available outside of class time, or whether they talked in lectures, arrived late, or failed to attend’ (Pickering, 2006, p. 328).
In the literature, this teaching experience leads to the formation of a key element of a teaching identity, which is the development of practical wisdom about teaching.

This has been referred to as *experiential knowledge* (McAlpine & Weston, 2000) or *practice-based scholarship* (Trigwell & Shale, 2004) or *pedagogical content knowledge* (Shulman, 1987). A similar approach is the development of *craft knowledge*, which Van Driel et al. (1997) argue reflects the integration of teaching knowledge, conceptions, beliefs and values, all of which are seen as principally derived from practical work. Approaches to teaching seem influenced by this developing pragmatic knowledge and related environmental factors which ‘impact upon teaching approach in a high proportion of participants’ (Sadler, 2008, p. 215). The development of practical wisdom seems inevitably experiential and contextualised. This suggests that identities are also contextually bound and indexical, with different realisations evident in different circumstances.

Referring back to discussion of personal factors in section 2.2.2.1, another factor in developing ‘craft knowledge’ as an element of teaching identity formation is how the tutor makes sense of their interactional experiences. McAlpine & Weston (2000) found that tutors have higher or lower levels of tolerance for discrepancies between their intentions and teaching realities. They argue that rather than being a fixed quality, this tolerance is influenced by whether teaching experience is novel or routine, whether classroom variables can be controlled by the tutor and how familiar decision-making strategies are. This tolerance also seems likely to relate to the degree of self-efficacy a tutor feels about themselves as a teacher, their content knowledge and their control of the teaching situation.
2.2.2.6 The influence of training and teacher development courses

The experience of receiving training in teaching is also likely to influence the formation of a teaching identity. As discussed in section 2.2.2.4, this may not be a happy process (Fanghanel, 2004). Pedagogical training may fail to benefit academic staff if the input of centrally organised training and development programmes is not congruent with disciplinary (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004) or departmental norms and practices (Knight & Trowler, 2000; Trowler & Cooper, 2002). Indeed, dissonant experiences may lead to the unintended outcomes of a rejection of the teaching approaches proposed on such courses and the adoption of methods and attitudes seen to be more closely associated with the discipline (Fanghanel, 2004).

However, apart from the uptake of course input into teaching strategies and techniques (Kahn, 2009), there are two ways training has been found to influence the development of academic teachers’ identities. The first is that attendance on such programmes may lead to informal learning (Butcher & Stoncel, 2012; Knight & Trowler, 2000) and the creation of communities of practice (Sadler, 2008).

‘Pedagogical courses, the main goal of which is developing teaching skills, can also be regarded as communities when they enable interaction between colleagues. The courses provide opportunities for university lecturers to contemplate and discuss their teaching with colleagues and help reduce academic isolation’ (Remmik, et al., 2011, p. 188/189).
Such an outcome appears linked to the earlier discussion in section 2.2.2.1 of personal expectations (Rice, et al., 2000) and of the importance of reflexivity and interpretation in identity formation (Acker & Armenti, 2004; Deem & Lucas, 2005).

As discussed in section 2.2, identity formation involves participation in communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1998), where certain behaviours are more appropriate than others. This suggests that the opportunity to represent oneself as a particular kind of teacher among peers will be constitutive of a teaching identity (Henkel, 2000). This is true of both face to face meetings on such courses, as well as teaching observation and the completion of reflective writing and coursework assignments. Writing for the portfolios that tend to be used to assess PGCertHE courses is an example of extended reflection, and uses Schön’s (1984) concept of reflective practice:

‘Sound reasoning requires both a process of thinking about what they are doing and an adequate base of facts, principles and experiences from which to reason. Teachers must learn to use their knowledge base to provide the grounds for choices and actions’ (Shulman, 1987, p. 13).

Portfolio writing, where this is taken seriously, would seem to formalise this reasoning process, requiring the synthesis of principles and experience (Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2004; McAlpine & Weston, 2000) and the development of practice based scholarship (Trigwell & Shale, 2004).

Perhaps as a result, a second positive influence found to be associated with longer term pedagogical training is increased awareness and self-efficacy (Butcher & Stoncel,
2012; Postareff, et al., 2007; Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, & Nevgi, 2008). In terms of awareness, a number of studies using pre- and post-testing using the ATI have presented results showing more ‘complex’, student-centred conceptions of teaching were present among those who had completed such development courses (Hanbury, et al., 2008; Lindblom-Ylänne, et al., 2006; Postareff, et al., 2007). However, it should be noted that separating out the impact of training and development programmes from other influences remains fraught (Norton, et al., 2005). As Gibbs & Coffey argue:

'We are still not in a position to demonstrate that it was the training itself that resulted in positive changes, merely that institutions that had training also had teachers that improved' (2004, p. 99).

2.2.2.7 Summary

Findings from research investigating the formation of academic identities points to this as a contextualised, contingent and perpetually incomplete process. Personal characteristics and perspectives interact with disciplinary and institutional settings, as well as with interactions with students, colleagues and others (Clegg, 2005; Jawitz, 2009; Remmik, et al., 2011). A central element in these interactions for novice academic teachers are the expectations and beliefs they hold about teaching and how these interact with their experiences once teaching begins (Sadler, 2008). Investigating such a process seems to require longitudinal methods since formation of identities takes place and changes over time. Such an approach is rare in the academic identities literature, but use of a longitudinal design would offer insight into the relationship between participation on a teacher development course and the ‘positive changes’ found to be associated with this (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004).
2.3 A longitudinal approach to identity formation – developmental stage models

Reading studies in the developmental stage literature suggests a somewhat different answer to the research question:

"How did tutors develop identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?"

This US literature is focussed explicitly on a more developmental model of teacher change (Boice, 1992; Kugel, 1993; Nyquist et al., 1999; Sprague & Nyquist, 1991; Staton & Darling, 1989; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Wulff, et al., 2004). These models suggest novice teaching assistants (TAs) change their understandings of teaching and pass through predictable stages in terms of what they focus on and how they relate to those around them. The next two sections outline these models and section 2.3.3 then evaluates this approach to teacher development.

2.3.1 Nyquist’s developmental stage model

A good example of this approach, and a model that is central to this developmental tradition, is the work of Nyquist (Nyquist, et al., 1999; Nyquist & Wulff, 1996; Sprague & Nyquist, 1989, 1991; Wulff, et al., 2004). His model suggests that teaching assistants pass through three stages; senior learner, colleague-in-training and junior colleague.

This is summarised in Table 1. There are four observable dimensions through which Nyquist & Wulff’s (1996) three different stages can be identified. As is similar to studies relating to academic identity, these are concerns, discourse and attitudes to authority and students.
Concerns Discourse Attitudes to Attitudes to
Survival and Oversimplification Apprentice-like
Oversimplification of concepts and trusting
Apprentice-like
Apprentuce-like Empathy and
Empathy and sympathy,
Empathy and sympathy,
sympathy, association with
association with challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Senior Learner</th>
<th>Survival and focus on own legitimacy as an academic teacher</th>
<th>Oversimplification of concepts</th>
<th>Apprentice-like and trusting</th>
<th>Empathy and sympathy, association with challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colleague-in-training</td>
<td>Focus on teaching techniques and tasks</td>
<td>Conceptual over elaboration</td>
<td>Critical and involves rejection and emotion</td>
<td>Critical of motivation leading to rejection and emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Colleague</td>
<td>Focus on student learning</td>
<td>Judicious simplification</td>
<td>Accommodation and a more professional footing</td>
<td>Accommodation and a more professional footing / distance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Nyquist and Wulff's developmental stage model (1996)

In terms of concerns, Nyquist & Wulff agree with general consensus in this literature that tutors' first thoughts are of themselves and survival (Boice, 1992; Grow, 1991; Staton & Darling, 1989). The suggested reason for this is anxiety as teaching assistants may still view themselves as students (senior learners) rather than teachers. With experience, and the reality of surviving, concerns then move to the methods and techniques used to teach and the tutor moves into the colleague-in-training stage. This interest in methods is explained with reference to teaching assistants' concerns.
about the challenges of teaching. As TAs teach and experience students not learning, or not behaving as they would wish, they focus on how to teach them better. When this yields only relatively poor returns though, TAs are seen as moving into the final junior colleague stage, in which the tutor’s focus moves to the impact their teaching has on their students (Sprague & Nyquist, 1991).

The second dimension identifying a teaching assistant’s developmental stage is his or her discourse. Sprague & Nyquist (1989) suggest that a key element to identify is the complexity of explanations given. Initially, tutors were found to speak relatively simply, potentially at the risk of over-simplification. As the tutor’s own research develops, Nyquist identifies greater complexity in their explanations. However, this may lead to less successful communication with their students. As their research develops further, tutors are then seen as emerging from this colleague-in-training phase and into being able to pitch their language to communicate well without oversimplifying (a process that appears linked to developing what Shulman (1987) described as pedagogical content knowledge). When this more judicious simplification is observable, a tutor is seen as being in the junior colleague stage.

The third and fourth of Nyquist’s dimensions are attitudes to authority and to students (1996). With both dimensions, a process of rejection and then accommodation is evident. For instance, with attitude to authority, Nyquist suggests a process of dependence on supervisors, then distance (rejection even) and finally accommodation and collegiality. A similar path is suggested for tutors’ relations with their students. At the senior learner stage, Nyquist characterises these relations as close, with tutors taking their students’ needs very seriously. This then turns to distance as tutors feel this commitment is not reciprocated. The colleague-in-training response is therefore
to follow a utilitarian approach to teaching responsibilities. With experience, this view of students becomes less emotive as tutors separate their own efforts from students' behaviour, attitudes and accomplishments. In this last stage, junior colleagues are able to teach with commitment, but without undue expectations of themselves and others.

2.3.2 Accounting for progression between stages

A shared feature of these developmental stage accounts is that they explain progress from one stage to the next as driven by challenge and anxiety. As an in-depth illustration of this, Kugel (1993) mirrors Nyquist's three stages, describing them as 'focus on self' (senior learner), then 'focus on subject' (colleague-in-training) and finally 'focus on students' (junior colleague).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE 1 Emphasis on teaching</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1 - Focus on self</td>
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<tr>
<td>↑ Stage 2 - Focus on subject</td>
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<td>↑ Stage 3 - Focus on students</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE 2 Emphasis on learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 5 - Student as independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4 - Student as Active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3 - Student as receptive</td>
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</tbody>
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Figure 1: Reproduction of Figure 1 (Kugel, 1993; 315)

Kugel argues that the move from one stage to the next is driven by a shift in anxiety. Thus the move from 'focus on self' to 'focus on subject' is because anxiety initially
centres on a tutor’s success at performing well in the classroom. With experience and success, their anxiety moves from their own legitimacy to their command of the content.

‘After professors have developed good ways to present their material, they may continue to worry about their mastery of the material they are presenting [...] As other worries fade, these worries take on greater prominence and, as a result, many professors shift the central focus of their concern from how to what they are teaching...’ (1993, p. 318).

According to Kugel, some don’t feel the need to make this shift. The success of their teaching strategy may in itself be enough to satisfy them that their command of the discipline is sufficient.

In Kugel’s model, the transition towards the third stage of a ‘focus on students’ has a similar narrative of shifting concerns. In line with Sprague & Nyquist (1991), he sees faculty as noticing that despite the accuracy and currency of the content they are delivering, student achievement is not what they had hoped. Their response to this sense of underwhelm is to shift focus from content to student acquisition of content. Initially, during the ‘student as receptive’ stage (see Figure 1), Kugel argues that focus may well be on the strategic aspects of successful information transmission. This inevitably though leads to acceptance that communication is a two way process and that what students do is critical. Finkel and Monk’s (1983) conceptualise this as the ‘dissolution of the Atlas complex’, where tutors start to see themselves as involved in students’ learning, but not carrying the whole educational process on their shoulders.
This realisation leads a tutor to move beyond considerations about the best paraphrasing of theory and towards what encourages and enables student comprehension and recall.

‘There is something poignant about this stage of our college professors’ development. They began their teaching careers convinced that everything depended on their ability to prepare and present material. Now, here they are some years later, trying to help their students learn the material without their help’ (1993, p. 325).

This more interactive approach is, as Kugel points out, potentially fraught. Many students react poorly to being asked, rather than told, the answer (Grow, 1991; Perry Jr, 1999). This reaction may discourage further development as a tutor feels forced back into providing information rather than fostering knowledge. Walker describes just such a situation:

‘My initial attempts to focus my teaching on these issue and the related learning outcomes met with less success that I would have liked. I experienced indifference, even hostility, to my attempts to broaden the learning enquiry and encourage reflection on learning itself’ (Entwistle & Walker, 2000, p. 348).

Another potential difficulty is that tutors may not have the ‘working’ or craft strategies to run a more interactive approach to teaching successfully, as found in McLean & Bullard (2000). As a result, Kugel’s model takes regression back down through the stages into account, as well as simply not progressing along the path he identifies.
2.3.3 Critiques of developmental stage models

The real issue with the developmental stage models is that they are observational and lack empirical support. The largest study in this literature was longitudinal, with open ended interviews twice a year with aspiring faculty at two universities (Wulff, et al., 2004). However, this study failed to achieve clear cut findings. Given the importance of context discussed in section 2.2 on academic identities, this seems understandable, especially given the very different institutions of the two research sites. However, outside of this literature, there is some corroboration for the observational claims made by Kugel (1993) and Nyquist & Wulff (1996). In developmental psychological models, a commonly identified feature is that:

‘... the centre of attention moves from the individual to the persons in interaction; the focus on the influence of one person over the other is substituted by looking for the interdependence, reciprocity and synergism between or among the various participants in the situation’ (Rosetti-Ferreira, Amorim, & Silva, 2007, p. 279).

This kind of developmental perspective has also been identified in a wide range of higher education contexts. Firstly, there are the relational understandings of conceptions of teaching as developing from less to more complex, and from teacher to student-focussed positions (Åkerlind, 2003; Ashwin, 2006; González, 2011). Kreber (2005) also describes three comparable levels of teaching competence. These are excellent teaching, expert teaching and scholarship and these are relational and progressive (building on each other). A classic example is Fuller (1969), who refers to novice tutors experiencing an early stage of development characterised by concern for
adequacy, subject matter and control of the class. Similarly, Martin et al. (2003) found novice tutors less aware of their context than more experienced colleagues, suggesting this was because these less experienced staff were attending to other, more personal concerns. Also, Sadler’s (2008, p. 222) case study of Alice, a young psychology lecturer, found that:

‘Alice’s (initial) perception of the relationship with students was that, as a technician and having only graduated a year earlier, she felt that she was almost a student herself.’

This then changed with experience.

This notion of development towards a focus on students and the complex project of their learning is also echoed elsewhere. For instance, Trigwell and Shale (2004, p. 532) discuss the higher levels of teacher competence in the following way:

‘It is the quality of awareness that is evoked in collaborative meaning-making with students that defines the quality of a teacher’s response to the teaching situation. It is this evoked awareness of the dynamic, reciprocal, fluid engagement with students and related action that we must seek to capture if we are to truly represent student-focused teaching in an analysis of the scholarship of teaching.’

This notion of pedagogic resonance appears related to ‘awareness of teachable moments’, Entwistle and Walker’s (2000) final ‘stage’ of a journey of learning to teach or Carnell’s conception of teaching as co-constructed (2007). A finding also enabled by Sadler’s longitudinal study was that:
'As time progressed, the teachers from the current investigation seemed to hold greater awareness of what it was they were trying to achieve' (2008, p. 218).

One reason for the limited empirical evidence to support this developmental approach, may be the paucity of longitudinal studies such as Sadler's that investigate the development of academics' contextualised thinking about their teaching over time.

2.4 Investigating teaching beliefs as a component of identity formation

2.4.1 How conceptions of teaching influence identity formation

The third relevant teacher development literature for this study is research into conceptions of teaching (CoTs). These studies suggest a somewhat different answer to the research question:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

This answer is that different academic tutors hold different conceptions of teaching (CoTs) and that these underpin their differing approaches to teaching. Newer studies (Åkerlind, 2007; González, 2011), and those related to training (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Ho, et al., 2001), argue that if tutors’ conceptions of teaching change over time, either through experience or through participation on developmental programmes, these tutors’ approaches to teaching will also shift.

The CoTs literature developed out of conceptions of learning studies from the 1980s (Kember, 1997) and seeks to identify how tutors understand their teaching. This is
seen to influence how they would then teach and also how their students are likely to approach their study (Marton & Booth, 1997; Ramsden, 1988; Trigwell, et al., 1999). Through principally phenomenographic methods, early conceptions of teaching studies (Dall’Alba, 1991; Martin & Balla, 1991; Prosser, et al., 1994; Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992) established a range or hierarchy of understandings of teaching. At one end of this range are relatively straightforward, teacher-centred understandings that principally focus on the tutor successfully transmitting course information to students. At the opposite end are student-centred, conceptual change understandings of teaching that focus on facilitating student learning and reflect awareness of the complexity of teaching and learning.

A question left open by the earlier studies, with the exception of Martin & Ramsden (1992), was whether and how these conceptions relate and whether teachers change their conceptions over time and with experience. A few researchers have identified certain conceptions as transitional (Van Driel, et al., 1997) and more recent work has investigated whether these hierarchies of CoTs can be seen to be relational (Åkerlind, 2003; González, 2011). These studies are most relevant to this research study.

2.4.2 Change in conceptions of teaching

The basic distinction between teacher and student-focused categories runs through the conceptions of teaching literature (Åkerlind, 2003). However, even in the early taxonomies of conceptions, a strict dichotomy was not universal. Hybrid categories were identified in a number of studies, described as ‘transitional’ (Van Driel, et al., 1997) or ‘in the middle’ (Kember, 1997). Predictably, categories in this middle area have features identified with either end of the spectrum. Two-way interaction is
therefore a common feature of these intermediately complex categories.

Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), for instance, identified a ‘facilitating learning’ category, in which the more complex understanding of knowledge as an interpretation of reality explained why two-way interaction was seen as required in teaching by those they assigned to this conceptual category.

Similarly, Dall’Alba (1991) identified middle ground understandings of teaching as seeking to develop ‘becoming able’ (category E) and ‘exploring understanding from different perspectives’ (category F). Martin and Balla’s (1991) level 2 categories were identified from how teachers focussed on making learning happen. In this level of categories, teachers still saw themselves as responsible for motivating and guiding student learning, however the learning itself was the intended outcome, rather than simply information transmission. This chimes with Fox’s (1983) ‘shaping theory of teaching’, which seems similar to Dall’Alba’s ‘developing expertise’ category (1991) and to Martin and Balla’s (1991) category in which teachers described the need for active learning so students would relate theory to practice. Samuelowicz and Bain’s (2001) similar ‘helping students develop expertise’ category is seen as learning / student-centred, as the teachers who described this conception were involved in helping students to develop their own ways of thinking, rather than just deepening their students’ understanding of the input their teacher was giving them. Either way, again a theme of transition, or possibly of contextualised focus depending on teaching situation and student needs is identifiable in these categories. However, since this research has rarely been followed up with longitudinal studies, the existence of stages or transitions between categories remains unclear.
2.4.3 Critiques and development of the conceptions of teaching literature

The initial studies into conceptions of teaching have been extensively critiqued and this has prompted revision and development of this literature. This criticism has included questions of definitional vagueness (Kember, 1997) and of the methods used in the phenomenographic studies (Meyer & Eley, 2006). A further critique is the de-contextualised nature of CoTs hierarchies (Norton, et al., 2005). This sets the original studies apart from research into academic identity formation, which highlights the significance of context and interaction. As Sadler (2008, p. 219) therefore argues, de-contextualised conceptions of teaching:

‘... cannot fully capture the more idiosyncratic aspects of teaching and developing as a teacher.’

The stability of the positions in the nested hierarchies of CoTs studies, and the assumption of the directionality of conceptions leading to behaviour has increasingly been questioned therefore (Åkerlind, 2003), with growing interest in how the positions relate (González, 2011) and whether they genuinely drive subsequent teaching behaviour (Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002). Within teacher development research, a number of studies with findings pointing to a less causal relationship have appeared (Eley, 2006; Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Norton, et al., 2005). As an example of this variability, and of the importance of context, Sadler (2008, p. 204) found that:

‘... individuals reported taking quite teacher-centred approaches in a particular setting if they perceived their content knowledge, and therefore confidence, was low.’
2.4.4 The importance of context to conceiving of teaching

In investigating how writing about teaching and learning would change over time, it is worth remembering that teacher development is, in part at least, a question of the social construction of a core element of an individual’s academic identity (Clegg, 2005). From a psychological perspective, identity formation is a discursive process, in which:

‘Among the products of discursive practices are the very persons who engage in them’ (Davies & Harre, 1990, p. 283).

It makes sense therefore that learning to teach is not simply a question of internal consideration leading directly to teaching behaviour. Instead, learning to teach is responsive to context and interactions. In fact, beliefs or conceptions of teaching are to a great extent inherited, adapted and prompted within this context, rather than primary and ‘pure’ (Lindblom-Yläne, et al., 2006; Norton, et al., 2005; Remmik, et al., 2011). This social constructivist lens would suggest that teaching behaviour results from individual actions and interactions that are mediated by social structures, such as teaching context and circumstances (Fanghanel, 2007). Decision-making and teaching practice will thus vary depending on context (Eley, 2006). In recent years, the acceptance of this view has prompted the identification of more contextual dimensions of variation across categories of conceptions of teaching (Åkerlind, 2003; Parpala & Lindblom-Yläne, 2007; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997). Developing the notion of discursive co-construction mentioned in section 2.2.2.1, Carnell (2007) suggests a new category in which knowledge is co-constructed between teacher and students in a way in which roles become blurred.
Also, and in line with more discursive understandings of identity (as discussed in section 3.3), more recent CoTs studies speak to inconsistency and dissonance. For instance, Parpala & Lindblom-Ylänne (2007, p. 367) state that:

‘... teachers who emphasised knowledge transmission were simultaneously talking about the importance of interaction.’

That tutors might act dissonantly to their stated conceptions of teaching has been discussed since the early 1990s (Martin & Ramsden, 1992; Murray & Macdonald, 1997; Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992). There seem two important aspects to this. These are firstly between levels of thinking about teaching, and secondly the relationship between thinking about, as opposed to delivering, teaching. The first aspect is the distinction between Argyris & Schôn’s (1974) espoused theories of action and theories in use, or ‘strategic’ conceptions as identified by Trigwell et al. (1994). The former relate to a tutor’s meta-understanding of the purposes of teaching and appear related to his or her disciplinary ‘ways of thinking and practising’ (Entwistle, 2003). This offers perspectives on the pedagogy of the discipline (Martin & Lueckennenhausen, 2005). The latter relate more to the contextualised decision making identified by Eley (2006) and these theories in use are often tacit (Kane, et al., 2002). Such theories in use identified by Sadler (2008, p. 218) had tutors act in line with more pragmatic aims such as ‘getting through the session’ and ‘keeping students occupied’.

The second aspect of dissonance lies in the distinction between intentions and ability to deliver teaching. McLean & Bullard (2000) found that novice teachers often held ‘ideal’ student-centred, learning-oriented conceptions, but didn’t know how to implement these or their teaching circumstances inclined them against adopting such
an approach. Over time, one can imagine a process of the development of the pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) to deliver teaching in line with intentions, and context. Such a process is found in the argument that different positions in the conceptions of teaching hierarchies are relational. In this argument, ‘less complex’ teacher-centred categories are seen as incorporated into more complex, plural and student-centred conceptions over time (Ashwin, 2006; Sadler, 2008).

This incorporation has been associated with ‘expanding awareness’ (Åkerlind, 2003) and appears to explain the dissonance between conceptions of teaching and teaching behaviour, since tutors with more complex conceptions have choices in how they approach their teaching and are thus more likely to respond to contextual cues (Martin, et al., 2003). This process of expanding awareness appears to be unidirectional, in that teachers with student-centred conceptions have been found to also hold teacher-centred conceptions, but not vice versa (Åkerlind, 2003). Trigwell & Prosser (1996) reported that the research participant who held the ‘most complex’ conceptions of teaching appeared to hold all four of the categories they had identified. Coffey and Gibbs (2002) also found that teachers who adopted a student-focussed approach reported using a wider variety of teaching strategies. Comparably, Entwistle & Walker’s narrative account of Walker’s development as a teacher:

‘... illustrated how more advanced conceptions can emerge out of earlier ones through every day experiences with students’ (2000, p. 352).
2.5 Summary

This chapter has contrasted how the three most relevant research literatures into teacher development in higher education would answer the research question. This question is longitudinal, and asks:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

Academic identities studies would answer this question by arguing that professional identities of this sort are formed through the individual enactment of a social role (Jawitz, 2009). Teaching identity formation therefore is a process of negotiating the many demands of this teaching role, in line with personal preferences and values, while participating in communities of practice at the course, departmental, disciplinary and PGCertHE levels (Remmik, et al., 2011). This literature has few longitudinal studies of the process of identity formation (Sadler, 2008). The design of this study is an attempt to contribute this kind of analysis.

Looking at the developmental stage models reviewed in section 2.3, another aspect can be added to the insights from the academic identities studies. This is that certain experiences of working as a graduate teaching assistant are shared. These include teaching for the first time, working with students, developing research expertise while teaching. That all GTAs negotiate these shared experiences suggests that it might be possible to identify commonalities, stages even, in the formation of their professional identities. Research into developmental stages has thus far taken place only with TAs in US colleges. An investigation of these models in a new setting would contribute to
this literature. Also, an investigation that offers a new analytical approach, would offer further empirical exploration to a research area that has principally relied on observational studies.

Reviewing the literature on conceptions of teaching (CoTs), adds further to building a possible answer to the research question. This is that ‘expanding awareness’ (Åkerlind, 2003), in the form of changing and increasingly complex conceptions of teaching, would underpin shifting identity positioning. Over time, increasing competence and the development of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) would offer tutors a repertoire for enacting their role as academic teachers in different contexts. A study that contributes a longitudinal investigation of this ‘expanding awareness’ would offer the kinds of insights called for by González (2011). In particular, it would be possible to explore whether and how less complex conceptions of teaching might combine into more complex understandings.

This study seeks to contribute to research into teacher development in higher education by offering a longitudinal investigation of teacher change. I characterise this change as identity formation, however the findings of such a longitudinal study also contribute to developmental stage and conceptions of teaching research areas. Of particular interest to this researcher, a longitudinal study of identity formation among GTAs participating on a teacher development course offers insight into the impacts of such development work. While a number of studies have found positive impacts of participation, through pre- and post-testing and mixed methods (Stes, et al., 2010), a longitudinal case study would allow focus on the process through which such courses can make such an impact. In setting out to investigate tutors’ changed writing in their LSE PGCertHE coursework, change over time was the central theme. This influenced
the search for a research method that would allow a genuinely longitudinal study on
the basis of these ‘time series’ coursework texts. The design of this research study is
introduced in chapter 3.
Chapter 3 - Research design

3.1 Investigating tutors’ identity formation as academic teachers

The starting point for this research was my observations of the changes in development of novice academic teachers on the LSE PGCertHE. First and second year writing by the same tutors seemed to be qualitatively different. My hypothesis is that this difference can be explained by the formation of these tutors’ identities as academic teachers. A key question this chapter addresses is the choice of method for analysing the texts that provided the data for the study. The first section of the chapter justifies the choice of a case study approach. Section 3.2 also explains the choice to use discourse analysis from the Discursive Psychological tradition in this research study (Edley, 2001; Wetherell, 2001).

The investigation of how the texts change across years can be understood as the study of identity as tutors negotiated this in interaction. This negotiation involves self-presentation (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998), where the adoption of a given identity position achieves social goals in relation to, and in concert with, others (Goffman, 1990). The Discursive Psychological tradition is itself briefly presented in section 3.3 within the wider context of narrative psychological research. This tradition provided the analytical categories used to code the texts (outlined in section 3.4). Finally, thematic analysis was used to analyse these coded items and investigate the question of how and why tutors presented themselves as academic
teachers differently at different times. Section 3.5 explains why discourse and thematic analyses were combined.

**3.2 Choice of research method: Justification for taking a case study approach**

This research project is a case study utilising the work of five tutors who took the same course at the same institution. The use of case studies is sufficiently contested that adopting this approach requires justification. As applied to psychological research, Mitchell (2011) defines case studies as detailed investigations of social phenomena that are believed to demonstrate more general theoretical principles, such as identity formation in this case. The case-bound nature of this method is a strength and a weakness, with the richness of the data traded off against comparability and, thus, external validity (Campbell, Stanley, & Gage, 1963). The potential danger then is of case studies being unable to ‘transcend storytelling’ (Miles, 1979).

The dates of publication of these concerns reflect changing understandings of the contribution case studies can make. External validity is not just available through comparability of findings, but also through the role case studies can play in theory confirmation (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000). In fact, comparability and replicability of findings:

‘... only becomes an issue when one assumes social phenomena to be stable’ (Gervais & Henrich, 2010, p. 98).
In education, where interactional outcomes are self-evidently context dependent and contingent, a theory-confirming approach to case studies is relatively common. Comparable examples would be Ho et al.'s analysis of changing approaches to teaching during a Hong Kong-based teacher training programme (2001) or Kahn’s study of outcomes among University of Liverpool PGCertHE graduates (2009). Similarly, portfolios have provided the data for case studies into institutional practice (Buckridge, 2008) and teacher development (McLean & Bullard, 2000). This research project thus attempts to offer illuminatory insight into teacher development in the spirit of studies such as Kugel (1993) and Entwistle & Walker (2000) with the new element of an etic approach to discourse analysis. This new ‘methodological element’ places this study in Kreber’s fourth conception of the scholarship of teaching and learning (Kreber, 2005). The term etic used here refers to bringing an analytical framework (Wetherell & Edley, 1999) to the analysis of the texts. As such, the theory being explored in this study is psychological, but applied in an educational setting. I argue that this approach offers a complementary form of analysis to existing research into academic identity formation, which has predominantly drawn on socio-cultural and realist social theory (McLean, 2012).

In choosing a method of analysis for this study, the starting point was the data (coursework writing) that seemed to change over time. This data made discourse analysis the logical method. It is the case that I could have interviewed participants asking them why they had written certain things. However, this would have produced a quite different kind of data within a quite different interactional context. Given the initial observation of changes in writing, it seemed preferable to
study identity formation using the naturally occurring data available. However, bearing the researcher’s position in mind, it also seemed appropriate to choose an *etic* method of discourse analysis that explicitly considers the interactive context within which these texts were written. This realisation immediately narrowed the available methods of discourse analysis. The pioneering discursive method for analysing positioning in communication is conversation analysis, based on the work of Schegloff (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006). However, apart from principally being used with spoken interaction, conversation analysis explicitly avoids reference to context (Speer, 2001). This similarly ruled out ethnomethodology as a possible method.

The two obvious *etic* choices are Critical Discourse Analysis and the kind of discourse analysis used in Discursive Psychology. There are different forms of the former, whether tied more closely to Fairclough’s (1992) original methods or developed, for instance by van Dijk (1993). However, a key interest in this overall approach is power, reflecting the social theory on which much of this work is based (Glynos, Howarth, Norval, & Speed, 2009). Discourse in much of this research is therefore investigated at the political and societal level following Foucauldian notions of constraining social forces. This level of analysis seems inappropriate for the personal realisation of a teaching identity through discursive practices. In contrast, this is very much the interest of Discursive Psychology, as section 3.3 discusses.
3.3 A Discursive Psychological approach to identity

This tradition focusses on the discursive constitution of identity. This interest in discourse contrasts with more cognitive definitions of identity that relate to an internal, ‘essential’ and stable self. Instead, Discursive Psychology views identity as discursive and dynamic. This distinction reflects the wider ‘crisis in psychology’ (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002) in the 1970s and 1980s and the ‘turn to discourse’ evident across psychology over the last three decades (Marková, 2003).

‘Essentialist’ definitions speak to an internal, cognitive self, which uses language to achieve the purposes of internal thought processes. This approach builds on the enlightenment sense of a rational Cartesian self, a ‘cogito ergo sum’ ethos, where the individual is seen as:

‘... self-sufficient subject of action endowed with instrumental rationality’ (Gill, 2000, p. 54).

The main Discursive Psychological critique of ‘essentialist’ notions of identity is that they underestimate the influence of the social on the individual (Harré, 1998). In this tradition, identities are understood as social resources that are both inherited or imposed (Howarth, 2002), as well as chosen and utilised (Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

This notion of the discursive (rather than ‘essential’) constitution of identity is also found in the academic identities literature, discussed in section 2.2. In fact, there is considerable common ground between definitions of identity currently used in
academic identities research literature and those of Discursive Psychology. Studies in both literatures view identity as co-constructed (Lawler, 2008). That identity is negotiated in everyday interaction and habit is also a shared view (L. Archer, 2008a, 2008b). In addition, both literatures understand the formation of identity as relating to the relationship between structure and agency. As discussed in section 2.2.2, many studies have investigated how early career academics' surroundings influence their sense of self. This involves discourse at the level of social convention, such as within disciplinary 'tribes' (Becher & Trowler, 2001), and at the levels of institutional and personal interactions, an example being Fanghanel's (2007) 'filters' on educational practice. From a discursive perspective, a teaching identity, within a wider academic identity, is not a monolithic, unchanging state, but rather a flexible, multifaceted resource for meaning making and self-realisation, whether conscious or not (Clegg, 2005). Identity positioning is also seen as a way to facilitate the management of social relations through the sympathetic presentation of self as an occupant of a valued identity (Jawitz, 2009).

While Discursive Psychology shares these observations with realist social and socio-cultural theory, the focus of study in Discursive Psychology rests more on the realisation of the self, using culturally available resources, rather than on how social institutions mediate and constrain individual agency. In offering an account of this self-realisation, discursive psychological approaches are tied to the notion of the 'dialogical self' (Salgado & Gonçalves, 2007). This concept reflects a view of identity as achieved through talking and acting ourselves into being occupants of particular identity positions (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). This understanding is that thought
is not an internal, secret cognitive process, but rather the process of speaking to ourselves (Wetherell, 2001). Since we speak to ourselves using the words we have learned from and with others, our conversations and interactions shape our psychological development (Valsiner, 2002). Dialogicality is central to the analysis of the texts in this study. As portfolio writing is a kind of interaction about teaching and learning between a class teacher and a PGCertHE course team, this interaction is seen as constitutive of a teaching identity (Davies & Harre, 1990).

This is because dialogical relationships occur whenever there is communicative interchange. In human relations there is always an other whom we address (Mead, 1910). As a result:

‘... the person is always in a process of a new becoming, in a living act of addressing other people’ (Salgado & Gonçalves, 2007, p. 611).

This psychological argument relates to the Bakhtinian concept of simultaneity (1981), which holds that ‘to be is to communicate’. In other words:

‘... each person is created in and through the communicational activity of addressivity’ (Salgado & Gonçalves, 2007, p. 608).

This notion links to the flexible and ongoing nature of identity discussed in section 2.2.1. Seen from this perspective, the writing done by the tutors in this study was thus constitutive of their teaching identities, since in communicating the kind of teacher they were, they were enacting their teaching identities.
3.3.1 Biographical narratives as resources in identity formation

As discussed in section 2.2.1, identity has a temporal quality in two ways. This refers to the ongoing creation of self, but also to the biographical element of identity – the building over time of a coherent narrative of self. In this research, a shared feature of the coursework writing is the consistent use of biographical self-narratives and, in this research and from a Discursive Psychological perspective, self-narratives are investigated for the claims they make to identity positions. As Rosenwald & Ochberg argue:

‘How individuals recount their histories – what they emphasize and omit, their stance as protagonists or victims, the relationship the story establishes between teller and audience – all shape what individuals can claim of their own lives. Personal stories are not merely a way of telling someone (or oneself) about one’s life; they are the means by which identities may be fashioned’ (1992, p. 1).

This analysis of narratives to study identities reflects the view that:

‘When we talk, we have open to us multiple possibilities for characterizing ourselves and events ... Discourse is a designed activity. It involves work’ (Yates, Taylor, & Wetherell, 2001, p. 17).

As a result, narrative analysis is a widely used research method in different psychological traditions, such as its use in cognitive psychology to investigate scripts (Shank & Abelson, 1994) and story schema (Mandler, 1984).
Discursive Psychology has perhaps made most use of narrative analysis though. This tradition derives from the work of Potter & Wetherell (1987), who re-worked a range of previous research involving discourse, building on ethnomethodology and the interpretation of Wittgenstein’s later philosophy (Coulter, 1983; Heritage, 1984), as well as discursive analysis of the sociology of science (Gilbert & Mulkay, 1984). They also included in their approach speech act theory (Austin, 1975) and semiology (Barthes, 1972). This approach has then been built upon, notably by Billig (1997) who introduced Bakhtinian understandings of the dialogical self.

The methods of this area of psychology have developed through the inclusion of conversation analytical methods by researchers such as Antaki & Widdicombe (1998), Edwards & Potter (1992) and Widdicombe & Wooffitt (1995). A further thread has been the integration of Foucauldian themes of power and discourse (Burman & Parker, 1993; Parker, 1992; Wetherell & Potter, 1992). In the US, parallel developments, generally under the heading of ‘narrative psychology’, have placed greater weight on autobiographical methods, for instance in collecting life histories (M. M. Gergen & Gergen, 1993; Josselson & Lieblich, 1993) and storytelling (Bruner, 1987; Gee, 1991, 1992). This research study follows this broad discursive or narrative tradition, identifying key elements of narratives that perform rhetorical social functions in terms of identity claims and these kinds of claims are presented in section 3.4.
3.4 Discourse analysis in the Discursive Psychological tradition

To investigate the self-narratives and identity claims made in the texts, the discourse analysis used in this study utilises three analytical categories used by Edley (2001). These are ideological dilemmas, identity (or subject) positioning and interpretative repertoires:

3.4.1 Ideological dilemmas

The first of the analytical categories used was the notion of ideological dilemmas. Dilemmatic self-narratives involve tellers of stories in presenting themselves as deciding between mutually exclusive and thus defining choices (Billig, et al., 1988). Such a dilemma forces an individual to present their choice of action and thus to reject other options. The result is a narrative that makes a claim for their continued group memberships or identity positioning. The discussion of how dilemmas are negotiated can be seen as a form of experiential social learning and Billig et al. (1988) associate this process with the development of 'lived ideologies'. These are seen as common-sense understandings of life that are presented and considered normal in a group or culture, and that are thus identifiable with particular identities.

While this research explicitly identified ideological dilemmas in these tutors’ biographical self-narratives, other research into the formation of academic identities implicitly focuses on this concept (Adams & Rytmeister, 2000; Remmik, et al., 2011; Rowland, 2002). As an example, Kahn (2009) identifies an ideological dilemma in quoting from the interview transcript of participant P:
‘Well if I see, for example, unresponsive students, or if I see that I try to teach something in a certain way and it doesn’t work and students come back and say “I didn’t really get that”. That is something that prompts me into seeing whether I can adopt an alternative strategy. Like you know setting a little work task or working in small groups, rather than working in an open tutorial or something of that sort. Then I try to see other strategies. What is there available? What are the alternative things that can be done?’

This quote is a short dilemmatic self-narrative and this narrative achieves rhetorical or social goals for the teller. For instance, in presenting a range of teaching techniques the tutor was able to call on, the tutor was also claiming the identity position of a resourceful and flexible teacher. There is a moral element also to this presentation of self in that the tutor was also making a claim to care about his or her students’ progress. There is none of the blaming students associated with teacher-centred conceptions of teaching positions (Kember, 1997). This short self-narrative is also strikingly dialogical. In this short quote, participant P directly addresses the researcher, while also relating interaction with students and finally an internal conversation with him or herself. In academic identities studies, the identification of ideological dilemmas appears redolent of how the development of aspiring academics’ identity trajectories have been related to their interactions (McAlpine & Turner, 2012), as discussed in section 2.2.1.
3.4.2 Identity or 'subject' positioning

As tutors wrote their assignments, they represented themselves as particular kinds of teachers by adopting different identity (or 'subject') positions.

'A subject position incorporates both a conceptual repertoire and a location for persons within the structure of rights for those that use that repertoire. Once having taken up a particular position as one's own, a person inevitably sees the world from the vantage point of that position and in terms of the particular images, metaphors, story lines and concepts which are made relevant within the particular discursive practice within which they are positioned' (Davies & Harre, 1990, p. 262).

In addition to presenting ourselves as the holders of identity positions, any individual who relates to another human being is inevitably positioned through interpellation (Althusser, 1976):

'We are subjects in that we function in the practical rituals of the most elementary everyday life (the handshake, the fact of calling you by your name, the fact of knowing, even if I do not know what it is, that you have a name of your own, which means that you are recognized as a unique subject etc.)' (Wetherell, 2001, p. 149).

While positions make us 'subjects', individuals also retain some ability to position themselves as holders of particular identities (Butler, 1997). In this research,
discourse analysis was used to observe how the tutors positioned themselves in terms of others, and dealt with being positioned by others.

Whether conscious or not, positioning aims to establish a favourable description of an individual for that individual and others to relate to. However, this inevitably contrasts them with others. Thus much positioning is also achieved through ‘othering’, which involves an individual representing themself in terms of what he or she is not (Frith, 1998):

‘Historical case studies of the representation of women (de Beauvoir, 1949/1989) and the Orient (Said, 1978) have clearly demonstrated how the representation of the other is deeply entwined with the representation of self’ (Gillespie, 2007, p. 580).

In this study, as mentioned, tutors consistently positioned themselves in relation to their students and colleagues, much as participant P does (2009). This would seem to support McAlpine & Amundsen (2011, p. 137) who found that:

‘...the experiences and perceptions reported in our research here affirmed that negotiating with others to achieve personal intentions is critical.’

3.4.3 Interpretative repertoires

In their definition of a subject position quoted in the previous section, Davies and Harre (1990) associate such a position with a given ‘conceptual repertoire’. This
idea stems from the work of Gilbert & Mulkay (1984), who argue that an
interpretative repertoire relates to identity in that this term refers to the linguistic
and conceptual resources associated with particular identities. This is powerful if it
is the case that language mediates our reality (Hammond, 1996). Repertoires might
do this as they are:

‘... basically a lexicon or register of terms and metaphors drawn
upon to characterise and evaluate actions and events from a given

While this will be demonstrated in more detail in chapter 4, the identification of
interpretative repertoires is revealing because these become habits of thought and
expression (Edley, 2001). Observing these over time offers a way of charting a
phenomenon such as the developing complexity in a teaching identity. As a new
interpretative repertoire is used, a shift is evident in how individuals reason about
their own actions, as well as the affordances of their teaching situation.

As with ideological dilemmas, research into academic identities has researched
interpretative repertoires, though not using the term as an explicitly psychological
concept. Remmik et al., for instance found that:

‘A community of practice is not merely a community of interest.
Members of a community of practice develop a shared repertoire
of resources: experiences, stories, tools and ways of addressing
recurring problems’ (2011, p. 188).
In another example of research that involves ‘interpretative repertoires’, Åkerlind (2007) investigates constraints on teachers’ potential for development in terms of their conceptions of and approaches to teaching. Her argument is that those with more limited conceptions and a more restricted range of approaches will focus on certain aspects of improving their teaching, such as developing their substantive knowledge and gaining more teaching experience. Those with ‘increasing breadth of awareness of the different aspects’ of teaching (2007, p. 25) will include review of their practices within an inclusive and more complex understanding of teaching. Thus their development as teachers will be seen within aims such as ‘become a more effective teacher’ or ‘more effective in facilitating students’ learning’.

Åkerlind argues that such aims will lead these tutors to experiment with different teaching methods and strategies, reflect on outcomes and to seek feedback from their students. These different conceptions and approaches were identified through phenomenographic analysis into variation in tutors’ descriptions of their development as teachers. This variation is an example of how different tutors make use of different interpretative repertoires to describe their teaching aims, conceptions and approaches.

3.5 Combining discourse and thematic analyses

Research within the Discursive Psychological tradition has focussed on how psychological phenomena can be shown to be discursively constituted. This anti-essentialist agenda is present in the seminal studies, such as Derek Edward’s identification of the construction of emotions in interactions (1992). It is also present in the many studies that are filling out this tradition. A good example
would be Augoustinos et al.‘s (2007) analysis of the construction of guilt in Australian Prime Minister Pat Howard’s refusal to apologise to Aboriginal Australians (in Hepburn & Wiggins, 2007). What these studies do is identify how interactants, whether in written or oral communication, manage their relatedness and negotiate psychological concepts such as identity. What these studies do not do is explore why they do this. Instead, and with great reason, motivation is assumed to be the self-serving bias identified in many different forms in different psychological traditions (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006).

This study is interested in how identities as academic teachers were formed, but also what the drivers of this formation were. This is because a central enquiry is the impact, or influence, of participating on the LSE PGCertHE on these tutors’ experiences of learning to teach. The difficulty with the discourse analysis as used by Edley (2001) or other discursive psychologists is that it doesn’t attempt to capture this motivational aspect. As a result, these analytical categories provided the basis for the coding frame, the results of which were analysed using a ‘theoretical’ thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This coding frame provided the basis for identifying specific discursive practices associated with ‘identity work’ (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). I then conducted a thematic analysis with these items.

Using a ‘theoretical’ approach to thematic analysis contrasts with the more ‘inductive’ traditions of much of this method (Attride-Stirling, 2001). I decided to take this approach for two reasons. Firstly, I am interested in identity formation and have a discursive definition of this concept, from which I chose discursive
practices that are associated with forming and negotiating identities. This provides the basis for conducting an analysis of the discourse in these texts that focusses on identity. It would be disingenuous to suggest that themes ‘emerged’ unaffected by this coding frame. The second reason for choosing an etic approach is that the coursework texts themselves have guidelines and requirements that influenced what the tutors wrote about. Looking for themes to ‘emerge’ from the data would not take this influence into account. Instead, it was necessary to find a way to explicitly consider the influence of the coursework assignment design, since the impact of this design is central to this investigation. The research process followed is presented in detail in section 4.6.

3.6 Summary

In this study, I chose a case study approach by selecting the coursework writing of five graduates of the LSE PGCertHE. In choosing this approach, this study provides a contextualised investigation, in which the meaning-making of these tutors, their personal theories of teaching and learning, are at the core of the study. This generates a different basis for conclusions on teacher development than larger studies using survey methods (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Hanbury, et al., 2008). This basis is that such a study can be theory confirming (Bauer & Gaskell, 2000) by taking an in-depth, longitudinal approach to researching how these tutors negotiated their identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service. The intention was to see whether the findings complement research studies into teacher development that are not longitudinal, or that rely on different methods, such as interviews and questionnaires. This case study approach consciously trades a small
number of participants off against the richness of the investigation through utilising new analytical methods to this research area (McLean, 2012). These methods effectively turn these graduates’ coursework into the equivalent of 25 time series interviews conducted across a two-year period. However, unlike interviews, the data is naturally-occurring. This means this investigation researches tutors’ actual identity positioning work in one of the contexts in which they formed their identities as academic teachers.
Chapter 4 - Research process

4.1 Research design

As discussed in chapter 1, the starting point for this research was the observation that the same tutors wrote quite differently about teaching in their first and second year coursework writing on the LSE PGCertHE. Chapter 3 introduced the discourse analysis used in this study (Edley, 2001). This method provided analytical categories for the coding frame. This coding frame captured particular discursive practices and behaviours within the tutors’ writing that were used, consciously and not, to present the tutors as particular kinds of academic teacher. These discursive practices entailed both explicit and implicit identity positioning cues. Initial coding was followed by thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) that investigated how tutors’ self-presentation as academic teachers changed over their first two years in service. This chapter presents the research process followed, discussing data gathering first (section 4.2), and introducing the research participants (section 4.3). This is followed by discussion of ethical considerations (sections 4.3 and 4.4). The chapter concludes by presenting the research process in stages (sections 4.6 and 4.7).

4.2 Data gathering and selection

The LSE PGCertHE course is a two year, 60 credit certificate, accredited by the UK Higher Education Academy. As mentioned in section 1.4, the majority of course participants are graduate teaching assistants teaching at the School while
completing their doctoral studies. These participants take the course on a voluntary basis, rather than as part of a probationary requirement. At any one time, the course has around one hundred participants, studying part-time, normally over two years. The course design involves participants completing practical assignments. In the first year these are modules on small group teaching, student learning and evaluating teaching. During the second year, assignments are written for modules on assessing student work, lecturing and course design. Portfolios are built up over the two years with the total word count of coursework coming to around 12-15,000 words over the six assignments and reflective writing tasks.

The practical coursework assignments ask participants to provide a rationale for their teaching decisions and to support their rationale with illustrative documentary evidence of their teaching practice. This involves documents such as session plans, class hand outs, teaching observation reports, course proposals, MS Power Point slide shows and feedback and reports given to students. Participants' rationales also place their teaching decisions within personal, institutional, disciplinary and pedagogic contexts. Participants also produce three pieces of reflective writing called Teaching Profiles 1, 2 and 3. For the tutors in this study, the first of these was written pre-service (or in their first week of teaching). The second and third texts are reviews of tutors’ first and second years of teaching.

4.2.1 Selecting texts to include in the study

The discourse analysis used here was done with texts selected from within all the kinds of artefact found in the portfolios, thus offering (or enabling) a longitudinal
analysis of changing identity positioning across these two years. Analysis for the texts presented here includes tutors’ first, pre-service and pre-PGCertHE reflective writing Teaching Profile 1 (TP1), which these tutors wrote in October 2008. Also included in the analysis was a coursework assignment written at the end of each of these tutors’ first four teaching terms. The chronology of these texts was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When the assignment was written</th>
<th>The assignment type</th>
<th>Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>October 2008</td>
<td>TP1 – reflective writing task</td>
<td>2,000 – 2,500 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 2008</td>
<td>Module 1 – small group teaching</td>
<td>2,000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 2009</td>
<td>Module 2 – student learning</td>
<td>2,000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 2009</td>
<td>Module 4 – assessing student work</td>
<td>2,000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 2010</td>
<td>Module 5 – course design</td>
<td>2,000 words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Overview of texts included in the study

The first Teaching Profile text (TP1) was written pre-service as an entry requirement for the course. The text comprised six sections, the first an outline of teaching experience so far, then a section each for the five modules of the course at that time. For these module sections, participants were asked to write 400-500 words.

To guide participants in completing these texts, they were provided with an MS
This document is intended to help you complete TP1. Please write 400–500 word long sections for each of the 5 modules outlining your thinking and opinions about teaching and why you hold them. Each section has prompt questions to get you thinking, however the intention is not that this is a Q/A, you are free to answer them or not as you wish. Please delete these questions after you have written each section.

As an example of the prompt questions, those for the first section were as follows:

What is the purpose of higher education in your discipline?

What is the purpose of the classes you (will) teach?

How (will) do you try to achieve this?

What kind of teacher are (will) you be? Why?

What are your impressions of teaching in a British academic institution?

What examples of good / bad teaching have you experienced?
What would you like to work on and improve during the programme?

The module assignments differed from the reflective TP tasks. These assignments had module specific guidance on completing the task and were accompanied by supporting appendices of documentary evidence of teaching practice. These included artefacts such as teaching observation reports (module 1), class plans (modules 1 & 3), feedback given to students (module 4), profiles of students in one class (module 2), course design outlines (module 5) and teaching survey results (module 3). In each assignment rationale, participants were asked to reflect on these appendices and outline their decision making and learning as they taught and in response to different experiences and forms of feedback.

The two first year modules analysed in this study were modules 1 and 2. For module 1, there were three sections. In the first, the tutors were asked to place their approach to class teaching within teaching traditions in their discipline. Section 2 evaluated their first term of teaching, and in section 3, tutors discussed what they had learned from this. Their consideration of their term’s teaching was required to refer explicitly to weekly class plans, teaching materials and teaching log entries that were to be included in the appendix. Module 2 on student learning required the tutors to make profiles of all the students in one class based on their backgrounds, performance across two terms and the guidance they had offered them in their end of Lent term report. The rationale document then asked tutors to identify issues these students had faced in studying during that year, offer an explanation of these issues with reference to learning theory, as well as suggestions
for how students could best be supported in overcoming these issues. In designing
the LSE PGCertHE in 2004, module 1 was intended to offer novice tutors input on
class teaching to meet their immediate needs. Module 2 was intended to
encourage tutors to look beyond themselves and start to consider their students
more.

The second year modules analysed for this study are modules 4 and 5. For module
4 on assessing student learning, the tutors were asked to firstly review the
assessment regime on the course they were teaching on, and then critique their
own approach to marking and giving feedback on the formative work of their
students. This critique required explicit reference to tutors’ actual feedback to
anonymised students presented in the appendix. Module 5 on course design
required the tutors to make two course outlines. The first outline was a redesign of
the course they were teaching on and the second was a proposal for a course based
on their PhD study. The rationale was to explain their decision making in designing
these courses. Input on course design focussed on the principle of ‘constructive
alignment’ (Biggs, 1996) and course outlines were expected to demonstrate the
competent application of this approach. When designing the LSE PGCertHE in 2004,
module 4 was intended to introduce principles of assessment where tutors already
had a year’s experience of marking and have them reflect on their own practice.
Module 5 on course design was intended to encourage the tutors to bring together
their learning on the programme as they constructed course outlines.

Tutors wrote two other marked coursework assignments while on the LSE PGCertHE
and I have not included these in the analysis. The first was module 3 on evaluating
teaching, which these tutors handed in at the same time as module 2 in April 2009. I didn’t use this module assignment for two reasons. The first was that I wanted to choose one module assignment for the end of each of these tutors’ first four teaching terms, so there would be consistency. I changed module 3 for the 2011-12 academic year, so in the context of this research, choosing module 2 was more valuable to give feedback on the impact the course can be seen to have had. The second reason for choosing module 2 is that the assignment is a deliberate attempt to shift tutors’ focus onto their students’ learning. This research was able to investigate whether this actually happened.

The second assignment that I have not included is the second part of module 1 on lecturing. This assignment was completed by the tutors in this study during their second year, but it was handed in at different times by different tutors, since this was optional. As mentioned, I selected texts to offer a longitudinal perspective on these tutors’ writing, and since the lecturing module was not done at the same time by all the tutors, I have not included it in the analysis.

4.2.2 Selection of research participants

This study analysed the writing of five tutors once they had graduated from the PGCertHE course at the LSE. Given the intention to use discourse analysis, one criterion for selection was that tutors were native or bi-lingual speakers of English. Also, since the study intended to investigate the formation and development over time of teaching identities, a second criterion for selection was that tutors had to have been doing their first teaching as they started the course. Finally, a third
criterion was that tutors should all have been teaching qualitative social science disciplines, since this disciplinary area is relatively under-represented within the academic identities literature. To gain access to the portfolios analysed in this study, all graduates of the PGCertHE in June 2010 were emailed with a request for access to their portfolios. The total number of graduates in 2010 was 38 and 24 responded to agree to contribute their portfolios. Using the three selection criteria five portfolios were chosen.

4.3 Research participants

This section introduces the five participants in this study.

4.3.1 Len

The tutor I have called ‘Len’ was in the second year of a PhD with the Department of International Relations when he started both teaching and the LSE PGCertHE in October 2008. Len taught one small, Friday morning class on a large third year undergraduate course covering issues of sovereignty, different rights-based frameworks and contrasting notions of justice. Len had no prior teaching experience, but his undergraduate study had been at LSE and his early writing reflects this familiarity with the academic and departmental culture. During the 2009-10 academic year, Len’s second year in-service, he taught on the same third year undergraduate course, but also on two MSc half-unit courses. Half-unit courses at LSE last for one term (ten weeks) and are assessed in the summer term, either by exam or long essay. In Michaelmas term 2009, Len taught on a course introducing international political theory, and in Lent term 2010 he taught on a half
unit covering the international political theory of humanitarian intervention.

Teaching at MSc-level was (and remains) unusual for a GTA at LSE and occurred due to Len being asked to replace a member of faculty at short notice. This teaching situation was quite different to teaching his third year undergraduate students.

4.3.2 Kate

The tutor I have called ‘Kate’ was also in the second year of a PhD with the International Relations Department when she began teaching and started the LSE PGCertHE in October 2008. In her first and second years, she taught on a specialist third year option on International Security. The course was convened by the theorist on whose critical research the course itself was based. In the Lent term of Kate’s second year of teaching, from January–March 2010, Kate also taught on the pilot for what was a new LSE course, an introduction to social scientific thinking and research methods that was to become compulsory for all first year undergraduates from Lent term 2011. Kate’s own undergraduate study had been in Canada, with her Masters degree taken in Austria. As her personal background is South American, Kate can be seen as a citizen of the academic world.

4.3.3 Don

The tutor I have called ‘Don’ spent both years on the PGCertHE teaching on a second year, undergraduate course on Political Sociology. This course is a compulsory part of the students’ degree programme within the Sociology department, but it is also a popular ‘outside option’ for students from other departments. Don’s own undergraduate study was in his native Australia and he
took an MSc in Politics at LSE in 2006-7. This course included the MSc version of the second year course Don taught on, with the same convenor and very similar structures in place. This offered a degree of familiarity that Don discussed in his early writing. Don moved into the department’s PhD programme from the MSc in 2007 and his first teaching year, 2008–9, was his second year as a PhD candidate.

4.3.4 Lauren

The tutor I have called ‘Lauren’ was a PhD candidate at the LSE, but she taught as a GTA at another university in the South East of England. She began teaching in the autumn of 2008, teaching two groups on a first year half-unit undergraduate Philosophy course on aesthetics, truth and meaning. In the Lent term of 2009, she then taught two groups on a broader introductory course also for first year undergraduates. During the academic year 2009–10, Lauren taught two groups of second and third year students on a course covering normative ethics. This course presented different challenges for Lauren as it was higher level than the first year courses and the substantive content was somewhat removed from her PhD study. Lauren was a mature student when taking her PhD and had a working background in HR prior to embarking on her PhD. She is a British national whose undergraduate study was at an Oxbridge college.

4.3.5 Mike

The tutor I have called ‘Mike’ taught on two different courses during his two years on the LSE PGCertHE. In both 2008-9 and 2009–10, Mike taught a second year undergraduate course on the principles of Social Policy. This is a compulsory core
course for students from within the department, and is taken as an ‘outside option’ by second and third year undergraduates from other departments. Very unusually for a graduate teaching assistant at the LSE, Mike also taught an MSc seminar group in both years for a full unit course on NGOs and development. This opportunity arose through over-recruitment on the course and Mike agreed to teach one weekly, 90 minute seminar group of 15 students. Mike had completed the same MSc course two years before after arriving at LSE from Finland to take an MSc. He had then applied for and been accepted for doctoral study in the department.

4.4 Ethical considerations

This research study was conducted in accordance with the 2012 research ethics code of The London School of Economics and Political Science. This is the researcher’s home institution and the site of the research itself. Ethical considerations for this study relate most clearly to the researcher’s position as participants’ former course director. An important ethical consideration was therefore the power relations stemming from the researcher’s double position. Wolf (1996, p. 2) has identified three interrelated dimensions of power relations affecting the position of the researcher. These are:

1) power differences stemming from different positionalities of the researcher and researched [...];

2) power exerted during the research process, such as defining the research relationship, unequal exchange, and exploitation;
3) power exerted during the post fieldwork period – writing and representing’.

Timing appears to have alleviated the first of these concerns. By the time participants in the study were asked whether they would agree to contribute their portfolios, they were graduates of the programme. As a result, when they agreed to take part, there were no clear incentives or constraints affecting the decision. They could, as some did, simply not reply to the general email asking for access to their portfolios. In 2010, there was no ongoing formal relationship between the researcher and the participants.

When asked why potential participants were happy to have their work included in this study, three main reasons emerged. The first, as might be expected from participants who are researchers in their own right, is that participating in the study would lead to new findings:

‘I am glad to give permission to Neil McLean to use my coursework for his research, because this will allow him to expand the knowledge of how theory and practice relate in teacher training experiences within the UK Higher Education System’ (potential participant 5).

Developing this theme further, was a sense of the benefit that might therefore accrue:
‘I think that Neil’s research into new tutors’ decision-making processes in their seminar teaching will be a valuable contribution to the field of UK Higher Education, and in particular the results should shed light on my own thinking and decision-making processes to the extent that his work can benefit my own growth in UK HE, as well as those of my peers both at LSE and other HE institutions. It is this sense of an expected shared reflexivity that I am happy to contribute my own work to Neil’s research’ (potential participant 3).

Finally, a sense of shared experience in gaining access to research participants became evident:

‘I found it very hard to get data for my PhD, as such, I am more than happy to help other PhD students to overcome this difficult stage of their research’ (potential participant 8).

Timing also appears to be key to the second power dimension identified by Wolf (1996). Since the study came about after they had completed their coursework, it does not seem possible that interest in analysing their work affected how tutors set about writing it. While the influence of the PGCertHE tasks on their writing required considerable consideration, as did the researcher’s role as audience, there is no sense that this research affected their participation on the programme, for the simple reason that there was no study while they were on the course. Also, since the research method chosen has solely involved documentary and discourse
analysis, rather than face to face communication, the related complexities of interviewing or observation have been avoided. It is the case that in conducting this analysis, the participants have not been involved and thus the research process has been dominated by the researcher.

The third dimension identified by Wolf (1996) also warrants attention. In line with assurances offered when graduates were invited to take part in the research in 2010, participants of the study have been anonymised so that they will not be identified through publication. This has been done through the use of pseudonyms, the altering of detail such as course codes and the omission of the names of course convenors. It is also the case that none of these participants are still graduate teaching assistants at the School and so are not teaching on these courses for these convenors and departments. Following Clegg (2005), some contextual detail has thus been sacrificed in order to preserve anonymity, but gender has been indicated, since gender is a key personal factor that has been identified as influential in other studies (Morley, 2003). As Clegg notes:

‘...discourses available for identity talk are themselves restricted and highly gendered’ (2005, p. 334).

4.5 The researcher’s position in this research

An important methodological consideration is the researcher’s participation in these tutors’ first two years of teaching. This casts the researcher in the role of participant in the process being researched, as well as in data gathering. The researcher’s opinions about teaching, and the student-centred input of the
PGCertHE course were, and remain, obvious to participants and this clearly contributed to the context in which these texts were written. However, two points are worth making here. Firstly, a discursive definition of identity acknowledges the inevitability and importance of interactive context (Wetherell, 2001). If identity is a relational concept that serves social goals, its performative aspect will be present regardless of the research method used (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002). In fact, as a second point, personal influence on the part of the researcher is inevitable in the co-construction of identities in the research process. Interviewers, for instance, interact with the participants in their research and power relations and impression management apply in such circumstances also (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006).

What appears key is that with a well indicated method, the researcher’s knowledge of the tutors and their institutional environment during their first two years in-service becomes an advantage. As discussed in section 3.4, such a method requires an etic form of discourse analysis, that is one that explicitly views the texts as situated within a particular context (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002) and applies an analytical framework that explicitly accounts for this context (Edley, 2001). In adopting the method outlined in the next section, evidence for findings was sought in the discursive practices and linguistic behaviours of the writing, within the context in which these texts were written. I argue that this means I have researched these tutors’ identity positioning as they performed this, rather than my own impressions about their development as academic teachers.
4.6 Data analysis as a process

This study sought to investigate the research question:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

The data for this study was the coursework writing these tutors produced across their first two years of learning to teach. The question then became how to investigate identity formation in these texts. As discussed in section 3.5, the research study combines discourse analytical categories for studying identity, with thematic analysis. The analytical categories were derived from discourse analytical approaches within the Discursive Psychological tradition (Edley, 2001). The thematic analysis adapted Braun & Clarke’s staged method of using thematic analysis in psychological research (2006). Table 3 on the next page provides an overview of the stages of this research process. The sections that follow Table 3 discuss each stage in turn.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1 – design the coding frame</th>
<th>Actions taken for explicit positioning</th>
<th>Actions taken for implicit positioning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection of discursive practices associated with explicit identity positioning. These were direct labelling of self, ‘othering’ and direct address.</td>
<td>Review of discursive practices associated with implicit identity positioning, and selection of causal reasoning statements. These statements are easily identifiable and directly related to investigating these tutors’ thinking as academic teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2 – initial coding</td>
<td>Coding direct labelling with an ‘L’ and a number for different identity positions claimed by labelling or direct address, and an ‘O’ plus a number for groups or individuals ‘othered’. Also noted were the frames of reference used by tutors when claiming identity positions / ‘othering’. This coding was done on paper with the assignment texts.</td>
<td>Coding causal or explanatory statements with an ‘E’ and a number for different statements. The numbers of statements varied between text types and tutors, with more statements in later texts. In total, this initial coding yielded 829 explanatory statements about aspects of teaching and learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3 – thematic analysis, step 1</td>
<td>Thematic analysis of frames of reference, collecting lists of basic themes for each identity position, for each tutor, in each assignment text and deducing organising themes. This was done in one note book, building a compendium of the basic and organising themes linked to identity positions claimed by each tutor in each text.</td>
<td>Thematic analysis of the explanatory statements about teaching and learning, where statements were grouped by assignment section. Organising themes for each assignment section were deduced for each tutor in each assignment. This was done in one note book, building a compendium of statements reflecting the interpretative repertoire for teaching and learning used by each tutor in each text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4 – thematic analysis, step 2</td>
<td>Thematic analysis of organising themes for the different identity positions, but combining themes for all tutors by text type. This ensured that the effect of assignment guidelines was explicitly considered during the thematic analysis. Also, tutors’ writing was contrasted in context and at set time intervals.</td>
<td>Thematic analysis of organising themes for reasoning statements for all the tutors, grouped by assignment sections, and then assignments more globally. This ensured that the effect of assignment guidelines was explicitly considered during the thematic analysis. Also, tutors’ writing was contrasted in context and at set time intervals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 5 – identifying illustrative quotes</td>
<td>When working on stage 3 of the analysis, I made marginal comments highlighting what might make a good quote. I returned to these later where a particular statement seemed a good illustration of a shared organising theme identified in stage 4.</td>
<td>When working on stage 3 of the analysis, I made marginal comments highlighting what might make a good quote. I returned to these later where a particular statement seemed a good illustration of a shared organising theme identified in stage 4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.1 Stage 1 – designing the coding frame

The first step in designing this research study was to decide how identity could be investigated. Following Discursive Psychological research practice (Edley, 2001), I have analysed the texts for specific linguistic structures through which the authors made claims about their identities as academic teachers. These structures involve both explicit and implicit cues that do ‘identity work’ (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). Table 4 outlines these linguistic structures with explanations of the key terms underneath.

Table 4: Explicit and implicit identity positioning cues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discursive features</th>
<th>Direct positioning claims (explicit)</th>
<th>Interpretative repertoire (implicit)</th>
<th>Ideological dilemmas (mixed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct labelling of self</td>
<td>Direct labelling of self</td>
<td>Explanatory / causal reasoning statements about teaching and learning</td>
<td>Espoused problems / challenges / choices (I have taken this to be an implicit cue)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Othering’</td>
<td>‘Othering’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct address</td>
<td>Direct address</td>
<td></td>
<td>Espoused solutions (analysed for what positioning work this does in terms of direct claims and the interpretative repertoires used)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I selected linguistic structures for the coding frame by following three criteria. Firstly, the structures used in claim making needed to be distinct from each other. Thus while implicit and explicit cues may occur together in the same sentence, ‘direct labelling of self’ through proper nouns or personal pronoun use is clearly distinguishable from the use of causative conjunctions that generate causal statements. The second criterion for the structures used was that they be easily identifiable in the texts and as explicit as possible. How this was done is outlined in the following sections, which introduce each structure. Finally, structures were chosen where they self-evidently relate to the analytical categories discussed in section 3.4.

4.6.1.1 Explicit identity positioning

As Table 4 shows, identity positioning was investigated in three ways. ‘Direct labelling of self’ involves statements claiming to be a particular kind of person, or the holder of particular roles, abilities, preferences or background. Examples are statements such as ‘As a class teacher, I...’ or ‘On the course, we...’ which is a claim to membership of the course team. Labelling is also done through possessive statements such as ‘In my module 3 assignment, I...’ which is a claim to be a participant on the LSE PGCertHE.

‘Othering’ involves statements that show the identity position a writer holds by displaying what or who the writer is not. An example would be a tutor writing about ‘I notice that students tend to ...’ which is a claim to not be a student any more.
Direct address is where a person speaks or writes from within a particular role. In this study, this includes statements such as ‘In this section I will introduce...’, a statement which enacts the role of a PGCertHE participant completing their coursework and addressing the assignment requirements.

4.6.1.2 Interpretative repertoires (implicit identity moves)

Interpretative repertoires were investigated by identifying explanatory/causal reasoning about aspects of teaching and learning. These statements do ‘identity work’ since certain kinds of argument are commonly associated with being a particular kind of academic teacher. Change over time was identified through changes in reasoning about aspects of teaching and learning. For instance, early causal statements on teaching in these texts tend to link student learning to tutors’ control of the class environment and process. Later writing tends to offer more complex and conjunctural causal statements, in which students’ efforts, as well as course design and teaching decisions, influence outcomes.

4.6.1.3 Ideological dilemmas (mixed identity moves)

Ideological dilemmas are choices or challenges a writer chooses to discuss. The choice of dilemma and the response or resolution the writer suggests or reports tells the reader about the kind of tutor they present themselves as being. Dilemmas tend to be related within narratives writers tell about themselves and their teaching circumstances and these stories were analysed in two ways.

Firstly, what a writer chose to raise as an issue involved reasoning about aspects of teaching and learning (an implicit cue). Secondly, the stated response to the
challenge or choice tended to lead to labelling or ‘othering’, or causal statements that made a claim to being a particular kind of academic teacher. Dilemmas were thus coded in terms of implicit and explicit cues.

4.6.2 Stage 2 – initial coding

4.6.2.1 Analysing explicit identity positioning

When I began the analysis, I intended to list references to self and count them, in the manner of content analysis. I wanted to do this in order to contrast frequency of use and therefore see what conclusions could be drawn about the relative importance of identity positions. In practice, this was not possible. The first reason for this relates to pronoun use. Pronouns are indexical, that is they refer back (anaphoric reference), or forward (cataphoric reference) to one explicitly stated proper noun. An example is that a tutor might write ‘As class teacher, I...’ and then in the following sentences use ‘I’ three more times. One question is whether this counts as one reference to self, or four. While it may be possible to make a judgement with this limited case, reference backwards (anaphora) can be extensive, with reference spanning paragraphs.

A second problem is that reference to self in the texts was generally part of narratives of self. Questions of how important an identity position might be deemed to be are then carried in the story-telling, rather than simply in the number of references to a particular role or position. This inclined me more towards thematic than content analysis. Finally, tutor’s responses to assignment writing differed stylistically, and this made counting self-referential statements potentially
misleading. For instance, Mike's first two assignments were written in indirect, academic writing style, and contained relatively few self-references. Kate, on the other hand used first person from the beginning. This undermines the validity of any direct contrast between the two tutors' positioning that is based solely on the number of pronouns and labels used.

Therefore in coding for explicit positioning, I listed the different labels tutors used for themselves. I also captured the groups or individuals they 'othered' in statements that showed difference. In addition, I listed 'frames of reference' that accompanied these labelling statements. I use the term 'frame of reference' to show that what I captured was what the tutor was writing about when labelling themselves and others. These frames reflect noun phrases and are distinct from how tutors reasoned about aspects of teaching and learning through the use of causal statements. These causal statements were the basis for investigating implicit positioning, as discussed in the next section. Appendix item 1 provides an illustrative example of this initial coding.

4.6.2.2 Analysing implicit positioning cues

Analysis of implicit cues was done through firstly identifying causal statements. In doing this, I had to decide whether to code only for explicit causal statements containing a causative conjunction (because / therefore / as a result etc.) and a main and subordinate clause joined by this conjunction. When reading the texts, this structure is common, but much identity work is also done through implicit causal statements, where the context provides what would be in the subordinate clause. Sometimes this was done through a narrative ending in a conclusion which
makes a causal claim. At other times, the subordinate clause was elided because it had been stated previously, or was considered obvious. I decided that I would include implicit causal statements if I could easily summarise the causal claim by providing (or paraphrasing) the subordinate clause. I therefore coded and listed the causal claims made in these texts, rather than copying direct quotes into a software package such as Nvivo. I believe this was more in keeping with an accurate representation of the arguments and explanations these tutors were making about different aspects of teaching and learning.

The reference to Nvivo is a contrast to my own analysis, which was paper based. I chose to work on paper, and built a literal coding 'book', for two reasons. The first was personal preference. I habitually work with texts on paper and am comfortable reading and analysing a text in this format. Also, once I had started working with these texts, I found that coding required a view across the paragraphs of the texts. Reading them on paper, and annotating the texts in this way, allowed me to follow the argumentation and narratives the tutors were making across sentences and sections. I found this easier to do on paper, and more difficult on a screen. The second reason for my paper-based analysis is convenience. As a part-time EdD researcher with a full time job, being able to carry my research with me allowed me to take any opportunity to seize time and conduct analysis. This is an argument for convenience, but it was an essential element in being able to balance the different demands of research, work and family.
4.6.3 Stage 3 – thematic analysis step 1

The third stage of the research was to conduct thematic analysis of the coded items from Stage 2.

4.6.3.1 Initial thematic analysis with explicit identity positioning

The first step in this analysis of explicit identity positioning cues was that I decided to view the identity positions explicitly claimed by tutors in their writing as global themes and to code for what basic themes tutors associated with each global theme. The second stage was then to identify organising themes from the basic themes. This is an inversion of normal practice in conducting thematic analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001). However, when I began grouping themes, it was clear that assignment requirements and criteria influenced what identity positions tutors claimed. This discovery is an example of the iterative nature of the thematic analysis I conducted. Grouping themes involved multiple attempts to ensure the discreteness of basic themes and the inclusiveness of organising themes. What emerged from these rounds of analysis was that different tutors made identity claims in their own ways, but commonalities were evident in the associations and conceptual resources they used. Grouping these basic themes within their textual contexts, and then identifying organising themes on this basis, allowed me to build thematic networks for each identity position as claimed in each text, and then contrast these across texts and between tutors.

The appendix to this thesis offers an illustrative example of this thematic analysis. This example is from Kate’s TP1 positioning as a ‘PGCertHE participant’ (item 3). In
coding her TP1 writing, I identified four frames of reference for the 'PGCertHE participant' label. These are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Frames of reference in Kate's TP1 writing relating to the 'PGCertHE participant' identity position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frames of reference</th>
<th>Detail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TP1 requirements / prompt questions</td>
<td>Explore aspects of teaching + learning, teaching aspirations to inspire like own role models, expectations of student motivation, plan to develop confidence and repertoire of teaching techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student learning</td>
<td>Independent thinking, deep / surface, Paolo Freire, own study experiences and preferences, teaching aspirations - becoming a professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality assurance / evaluating teaching</td>
<td>Student feedback, responsiveness to student and observation feedback, willingness to learn and develop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student approaches to study (as influenced by assessment)</td>
<td>Empowerment, encouragement — Freire, instrumentalism with exam focus, learning through participation and exploration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 presents four organising themes identified on the basis of these frames and the accompanying detail.
Change over time was then captured in the contrast with how frames of reference shifted with the same identity label in subsequent texts. For instance, as Figure 3 shows, Kate’s Module 1 text had five organising themes relating to the identity position of LSE ‘PGCertHE participant’.
How literature on small group teaching fits own experiences

Disciplinary teaching traditions

Critical pedagogy (Freire) as guiding teaching choices

Values of higher education teaching and learning

Addressing assignment criteria

PGCertHE participant

Figure 3: Organising themes in Kate’s module 1 writing relating to the ‘PGCertHE participant’ label.

4.6.3.2 *Initial thematic analysis with implicit identity positioning*

The first stage of the thematic analysis with the causal statements identified in each text was to group them according to topic. When I did this initially, it became clear that the assignment guidelines and requirements clearly had an important influence on what tutors were reasoning about in the different module assignments. As a result, it was not possible to simply group statements by topic and inductively build up organising and global themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Instead, I grouped causal statements by assignment section and then conducted thematic analysis of these groupings for each tutor in each assignment (see appendix item 4). This approach is demonstrated in Figures 9 -13 in the next chapter, and it has three advantages. Firstly, it explicitly considers the context of the writing, and as such this approach can be seen to be an example of ‘theoretical’ thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke,
2006). A second advantage is that this grouping created the basis to compare what tutors wrote at the same time, with the same instructions, across their first two years of learning to teach. This makes this analysis genuinely longitudinal, since it takes time series examples of tutors’ writing that are comparable through textual context and time of writing. The third advantage comes from this second point. This is that in explicitly accounting for the influence of the LSE PGCertHE coursework tasks, it is possible to assess the role these tasks played in these tutors’ development as teachers, as explored through identity formation.

4.6.4 Stage 4 – thematic analysis step 2

The fourth stage of this research was the second stage of the thematic analysis. This involved bringing together the thematic analysis for each tutor in each assignment. This was also an iterative process, and repeated rounds of analysis allowed me to establish organising themes for each assignment section and then more globally for each assignment that included the identity positioning of each tutor in the study. In practice, I did this analysis on paper in two stages. The first was a ‘trial’ grouping for explicit and then implicit cues by assignment, in which I simply combined stage 1 themes for each tutor. From this I was able to group these themes into organising themes that were evident across tutors. This level of analysis enabled me to track change over time in how these tutors enacted the identity positions that emerged in their direct labelling of self and ‘othering’. It also allowed me to capture changing reasoning about teaching and learning across the different assignments and contrast these changes across the five tutors.
4.7 Conclusion

The findings from analysing the text types is presented in the next chapter. This analysis sought to investigate the original observation the study set out to explore. This was that tutors’ writing about teaching and learning in their first and second years differed qualitatively and I was interested to explore what this difference is and what it might mean for development work with graduate teaching assistants at LSE. My starting hypothesis was that through gaining experience of teaching, these tutors themselves changed as academic teachers and that this was represented in their changed writing. I have associated this change with the formation of identities as academic teachers, a process that is closely related to the interactions tutors take part in while enacting the role of course tutor.

One such interaction is their writing for the LSE PGCertHE and so the task of exploring the difference in writing became the use of discourse analysis to investigate the identity work present and changing over time in this interaction between PGCertHE course participants and the course team marking this writing. Section 5.2 of the next chapter presents findings from the thematic analysis of the explicit identity positioning in these tutors’ writing between October 2008 and when they completed module 5 in April 2010. Then the findings of my thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues are explored in section 5.3. Then section 5.4 integrates the two kinds of positioning cue to offer an overview of how these tutors negotiated their identities as academic teachers during their first two years in-service.
Chapter 5 – Presentation of findings

5.1 Identity positioning cues used across tutors’ first two years in-service

As outlined in the previous chapter, this study sought to investigate the research question:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’

Of particular interest in answering this question is the effect on identity formation of participating in a long-term teacher development programme, the LSE PGCertHE, while teaching for the first time. In order to answer the research question, and as outlined in Chapter 4, I investigated the identity claims these tutors made in PGCertHE coursework writing across their first two years in-service. With this writing itself, I conducted two kinds of analysis. I researched explicit positioning cues for how these tutors identified themselves and whether this changed over time. The findings for this analysis are presented in section 5.2 of this chapter. In addition, I investigated implicit identity cues and how these tutors reasoned about teaching and learning, and whether this changed over time. Section 5.3 of this chapter presents these findings. Then in section 5.4, I integrate the findings from analysing explicit and implicit positioning cues, suggesting a pattern of shifting identity positioning that can be discerned across all five tutors.
To demonstrate these findings I make extensive use of illustrative quotes from the writing of these tutors. On one level, I take these quotes as accurate descriptions of actual teaching practice. These self-reported approaches to teaching were supported with teaching materials such as plans and hand outs in the assignment appendices. Also, as course director, I conducted teaching observations for each of these tutors twice and this and peer observation feedback is present in a number of tutors’ assignment writing. So, it seems unlikely that tutors simply invented their approaches to teaching and their understanding of learning in order to pass the LSE PGCertHE. However, there is also a clear rhetorical dimension to the self-reporting in these assignments, given the assessment context. It may well be the case that these tutors explained teaching and learning differently in different company.

Therefore, I have viewed the quotes cited in this chapter as ‘testimony’ (Lackey, 2008), that is as showing what these tutors chose to write about themselves as academic teachers in one particular interactional context. The self-reporting investigated here is thus seen as showing how these tutors presented themselves as academic teachers, and this focus on presentation of self relates closely to the social constructionist definition of ‘identity’ that I have followed in this study (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002). According to this definition, identity is realised in interaction with others, and with ourselves (Wetherell, 2001). So the study of identity will always focus on communication within a given interactional context (Gillespie, 2007). In the following sections therefore, the quotes are used to show how tutors labelled themselves and explained aspects of teaching and learning within the LSE PGCertHE interactional context. Although the context remains
constant, this labelling and reasoning shifted a great deal over the two years of the study. I understand this shift as reflecting a process of identity formation.

In viewing these tutors’ self-reporting as ‘testimony’, this study differs from others in the academic identities literature. Clegg and Stevenson critique the unreflexive use of research interviews in some studies in this area (2013), arguing that how respondents’ contributions are understood by researchers requires consideration. I have explicitly accounted for the assessment context of the LSE PGCertHE coursework and the impression management present in tutors’ writing. However, rhetoric is also evident, but often unrecognised, in interview transcripts. As an example of the ubiquity of purposive self-presentation, the quote below comes from an interview transcript from Åkerlind (2007; 30).

‘The [institutional standardized student surveys] I filled out ... you get a whole bunch of quantitative measures, right? You get it back, and it has little bar charts all over, an answer for each question. Which I got back and they were mostly pretty good. And that was great fun, in a way. But what they didn’t say is, you could improve by doing this, or these 10 people thought you were crap because. All I got was, most of these people think you are doing all right. I was not able to use that information to change the way I teach at all.

(Information sciences, male, Level A, interview 2)’

Looking at this short excerpt, the speaker positions himself for his audience in a number of ways. Firstly, the informality when discussing student feedback (often a challenging issue) signals confidence as a teacher, since he doesn’t need to take it
too seriously. He uses indirectness and modesty (‘many of these people think you’re doing all right’) to guard against being seen as boastful about good scores. Also, his stated concern that the feedback exercise wasn’t useful for his development is used to position him as interested in his development and teaching. It seems reasonable to assume that this positioning has something to do with being in conversation with an educational researcher. The use of the etic form of discourse analysis introduced in chapter 4 offers an explicit means to capture and account for this rhetorical use of language, since self-presentation is at the heart of identity when defined as a relational concept (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006).

5.2 Discursive and thematic analysis of explicit positioning cues

5.2.1 Overview of identity positions explicitly claimed in the texts

Section 4.6 introduced the basis for the coding frame used here to investigate explicit identity positioning in these texts. This coding frame used analytical categories of ideological dilemmas and positioning (Edley, 2001). These categories were operationalised through identifying linguistic cues that accomplish ‘identity work’ (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). Explicit identity cues were found through identifying ‘direct labelling of self’, ‘othering’ and ‘direct address’ (section 4.6.1.1). This section outlines the four identity positions that tutors claimed explicitly in this way. It also provides a summary of how each was identified. Table 6 summarises these four identity positions.
Section 5.2.2 then presents the distribution of these identity positions across the texts. Themes of change and continuity are discussed in section 5.2.2, which are then explored in detail in the following sections. Each identity position is presented in turn in sections 5.2.3–5.2.6 by placing each in the contexts in which it was claimed, as well as illustrating change over time where this was evident.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identity position</th>
<th>Discursive features and practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'academic insider'</td>
<td>This position was claimed through reference to self as a successful student and detailing tutors' study records and transitions between different levels of study and academic cultures. This involved phrases such as 'As a student, I...' or 'I am a learner, who...'. On the basis of their study experiences, all five tutors associated the senior student position with being a 'guide' to undergraduates, who they 'othered' as needing this guidance. This position was also claimed by making reference to current PhD study and references to their own scholarship and disciplinary knowledge as researchers. This involved phrases such as 'As a PhD student, I...' or 'In studying my discipline, it is...'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Graduate Teaching Assistant' ('GTA')</td>
<td>This position was principally claimed through labelling statements such as 'I am a GTA in the department of...' or 'As class teacher, I...'. Also common were possessives such as 'In my classes, I...'. 'Othering' from this position was of students, particularly the tutors' own students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSE 'PGCertHE participant'</td>
<td>This position was claimed through explicit labelling of self, such as 'As a PGCertHE participant, I...' or 'On the course I would like to...'. However, more commonly it was done through direct address from the position of course participant. This very often involved explicitly addressing the assignment criteria, such as signposting phrases like 'In this section I will...' or 'In reading about course design, I...'. and in later writing this frequently involved referencing educational research in phrases such as 'Following Nygaard et al., I have...'. Tutors 'othered' poor educational practice, either from colleagues or students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'young academic'</td>
<td>Four of the five tutors explicitly claimed this position and these four principally did this through claiming membership of a community of scholars. This involved phrases such as '... as specialist academics, we...' or use of 'we' when discussing how to teach the discipline or in institutional references. 'Othering' from this is position related to leaving the GTA role behind.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Overview of identity positions claimed explicitly by tutors in the study
5.2.2 Distribution of identity positions across texts

Table 7 shows the distribution and evolution of explicitly claimed identity positions. The discourse analysis I conducted showed which identity positions were claimed, when and by whom. This provided the basis for the thematic analysis of each identity position presented in sections 5.2.3–5.2.6. However, before presenting this in detail, two observations seem warranted on the basis of the summary in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Module 1</th>
<th>Module 2</th>
<th>Module 4</th>
<th>Module 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Len</strong></td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant / young academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kate</strong></td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant / young academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Don</strong></td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant / young academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lauren</strong></td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant / young academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mike</strong></td>
<td>Academic insider / GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
<td>GTA / PGCertHE participant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Distribution of the four identity positions explicitly claimed by tutors in their writing

5.2.2.1 Change in explicit identity positioning

An initial observation is that tutors' reference to self changed over time in three ways. The first is that as can be seen in the 'academic insider' positioning, tutors'
study experiences played an important role in their early writing and the pre-service expectations they discussed. Once tutors started teaching, this focus on study experiences was replaced over time with focus on teaching experiences. A second kind of change is that in the writing of four tutors, a new identity position emerged in writing about course design during Module 5. Finally, and this table masks this, a third change is that tutors’ enactment of the ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ roles changed over time. This change is presented in detail in sections 5.2.4 and 5.2.5. So one finding about the development of these tutors’ identities as academic teachers is change over time.

5.2.2.2 Continuity in identity positioning

A second observation is that change took place within coherent narratives of self as an academic teacher. This offered consistency, or a ‘trajectory’ of identity positioning (McAlpine & Lucas, 2011). What can be observed across these texts is that these tutors built a biography of themselves as a ‘GTA’ or ‘LSE PGCertHE participant’ and this story included previous views and positions held. As such, it linked tutors’ past to their present and their future (Acker & Armenti, 2004). This means that tutors’ experiences became integrated into more complex versions of their position or role. This partly reflects increasing overlap and integration of the multiple identity positions that tutors claimed in each text, as Table 7 shows. More than this though, within each identity position, change was incremental, not immediate. So in any one text, a tutor claiming the ‘GTA’ position did so while making a range of associations, some of which were new, others of which were established in their writing in previous texts. Change therefore involved certain
associations and category attributes being added to the enactment of an identity
position, while others dropped away over time.

An example of this, discussed in detail in section 5.2.4.1, is that tutors initially
tended to claim the ‘GTA’ position by referring to their disciplinary content
knowledge. Over time these claims to being a GTA focussed more on their teaching
experience, rather than content knowledge. However, some overlap remained
across texts. Tutors did not stop portraying themselves as one kind of ‘GTA’ and
begin characterising themselves as another kind. Instead change was incremental,
with elements of early claims reoccurring through later biographical narratives.
This incremental process is explored in detail in the following sections, which show
this shifting presentation of self as a ‘GTA’ (5.2.4) and ‘PGCertHE participant’ (5.2.5).
This building of a ‘narrative of self’ as an academic teacher is also a key process in
the change identified in implicit positioning cues presented in Section 5.3.

5.2.3 The ‘academic insider’ identity position

As demonstrated in Table 7 in section 5.2.2, the ‘academic insider’ identity position
was explicitly claimed in pre-service writing (TP1) and in some module 1 texts.
Figure 4 provides an overview of the thematic analysis of this identity position.
Based on this analysis, I chose the term ‘academic insider’ because this position is
more than simply a claim to being a successful student. Although success in study is
a central theme of this position, what is more important is what this success meant
for these tutors as they approached and began teaching. This success provided the
basis for legitimacy as new teachers of the discipline. This worked in three ways.
Firstly, reference to teaching role models and successful study experiences were used to justify tutors’ values about teaching and learning. Secondly, these values were used to justify the actual approach to teaching that tutors adopted in their first term of teaching. Thirdly, success as a student of the discipline was used to legitimise their right to be teachers through claims to disciplinary content knowledge.

Figure 4 is derived from the second stage of thematic analysis (section 4.6.4) which combined tutors’ individual identity positioning in TP1 and module 1 writing. In this analysis, thirteen shared basic themes were found. I have grouped these according to four organising themes of values, disciplinary knowledge, study preferences and role models. These organising themes are then discussed in detail in the section following Figure 4.
Figure 4: Organising themes for the 'academic insider' identity position

- Pluralism not dualism
- Positive atmosphere
- Onus on students
- Passion and enthusiasm
- Finding own position
- Learning by participating
- Knowledge accumulation
- Disciplinary knowledge
- Academic role models
- Inspiration from teachers
- Good teachers
- Poor teachers

Academic Insider

Values based on study experiences

Study preferences and habits guide teaching

Learning activities

Learning styles
5.2.3.1 Justifying values about teaching and learning on the basis of study experiences

In Discursive Psychology identity positions are understood to serve social purposes (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006). As mentioned in section 5.2.3, the ‘academic insider’ position identified here seems to have served the important social goal of offering legitimacy to these tutors’ identity claims to be academic teachers. Other research has identified the importance of legitimacy to new academic teachers (Remmik, et al., 2011; Ylijoki, 2000). In this research study, claiming the ‘academic insider’ identity position can be seen to have legitimised identity claims in three ways. The first of these is that tutors justified their beliefs and values about education on the basis of study experiences. In line with other research (Deem & Lucas, 2005), the presentation of values seems a key element in the personal meaning making that turns a social role into an identity. In particular, these claims about values related to having good role models:

‘When I think about examples of teaching I have been exposed to, there are several good and bad experiences that come to mind. I found myself appreciating those who seemed to put a fair amount of effort into preparation of their classes, who didn’t think that frantic note taking was a sign of learning but rather gave you a copy of their notes.’ (Mike)

‘The very best teacher I’ve experienced at LSE was both challenging and encouraging. She was extremely successful at drawing students out ... She never let students sit out a class
entirely but was careful to bring them into the conversation in a way that did not put them on the spot …’ (Len)

This presentation of values also applied to poor teaching that tutors ‘othered’:

‘The bad lectures I do not remember so well; they were probably very dense, so the subject matter was not clear or easy to follow and understand.’ (Lauren)

‘The bad teaching I have come across involves tutors who are out of touch with their students. Their lectures are dry (some even involved reading directly from completed lecture scripts) and do not allow for class discussion (some didn’t even look up from the aforementioned scripts).’ (Kate)

In addition to having appropriate role models, tutors also linked legitimacy claims to what worked well when they were students. For instance, claims about good teaching involving ‘passion and enthusiasm’ were illustrated through reference to study:

‘My principal motivation for becoming a tutor (and someday a university professor) is the prospect of instilling the type of passion in students that some of my professors have instilled in me.’ (Kate)

As another example, the themes ‘guidance’ and ‘onus on students’ was also justified on the basis of what worked well during Don’s undergraduate study:
'All the examples of good university teaching that come to mind right now are classes in which the onus was on students to do the work, to find their own way, but in which there was enough guidance and help available...’ (Don)

Other espoused values, such as ‘learning by participation’ and ‘students finding their own position’ were also justified through ‘othering’ poor study experiences. As an example, Len wrote:

‘...I have had bad teaching that pulled in two directions. One tendency was the teacher who stood in front of the class talking and did not create any possibility of discussion or interaction with each other. The other was a teacher who facilitated discussion, but let confident students dominate the conversation, without making enough effort to bring others in.’

This resort to study experiences to offer legitimacy for these tutors’ identities as academic teachers makes sense in the context of pre-service reflective writing. In the absence of actual teaching experience to refer to, study experience seems to have been the default option to justify assuming the role of academic teacher.

5.2.3.2 Justifying early approaches to teaching on the basis of study experiences

These tutors did not just use others as role models. They all also made identity claims based on themselves as good study role models. This seems another way of claiming legitimacy as an academic teacher who has never actually taught. Thus,
tutors' own learning preferences and habits were used to explain and justify prospective approaches to teaching:

‘I am also a very visual learner. Maps, graphs, even related comic strips that can spur discussion have a great effect in helping me to explore different avenues of thought as well as retain knowledge.’

(Kate)

In a similar vein, Mike wrote:

‘When I think of examples of good and bad teaching I have been exposed to, there are several good and bad experiences that come to mind ... the more structured their classes were, the more I felt they actually knew what they were talking about. This structure could have meant good flow between lecture and seminar, for example.’

This quote from Mike outlines a personal theory of teaching that relates to structure and the value of preparation. As an example of how such a theory related to actual teaching practice, two paragraphs later, this reference to Mike’s study experiences was then linked with discussion of Mike’s teaching approach, when adopting the identity position of GTA:

‘In my teaching at LSE so far, I have tried to use the beginning of the class / seminar to recap on the ideas of the lecture.’
The influence of study experiences on initial teaching approaches extended into two tutors’ writing at the end of their first term of teaching. As an example of this from module 1, Don wrote:

‘I have always found I learned most by writing essays and arguing with people; even though I enjoy lectures I find I retain far less of the information that way ... I have been concerned, since the start of term, to balance two needs in organising my seminars: that students spend most of their time actively discussing the course material rather than passively listening, and that those discussions are structured so that they focus on the relevant information and techniques.’

5.2.3.3 Study and disciplinary knowledge as a basis for legitimacy as an academic teacher

The third purpose served by explicitly adopting the position of ‘academic insider’ was to justify tutors’ position as academic teachers through reference to disciplinary content knowledge. This involved simple claims to content knowledge:

‘I think the course ... is quite well set up .... There are manifold entrance points to the literature. The readings are presented extremely helpfully with bibliographic notes about each topic that present and situate the literature and a suggested overall question for discussion.’ (Len)
But being an ‘academic insider’ was also used to justify being able to take on the teaching role:

‘...although there has been little explicit direction from the course convenor about what the seminar should do – I have adopted this approach by modelling what he did when I took the Masters version of this course two years ago.’ (Don)

Another example is this quote from Lauren:

‘I did my undergraduate degree in a more traditional university that focused upon lectures and tutorials based on weekly written work, so the concept of undergraduate seminars linked to lectures is somewhat new. However there are some similarities in that the students are individually responsible for deciding what and how much extra reading to do.’

The ‘academic insider’ identity position can be seen to serve the purpose of offering legitimacy to these novice tutors as academic teachers. The focus on study experiences seems natural given this was the frame of reference available to these tutors pre-service. As these tutors gained teaching experience, other frames of reference for establishing legitimacy opened up.
5.2.3.4 The disappearance of the ‘academic insider’ position reflected growing teaching experience

As discussed in section 5.2.2, tutors stopped referring to themselves as successful students quite quickly once they started teaching. What happened was that these tutors started justifying their values, teaching approaches and position as academic teachers on different evidence. This evidence came in part from the reading and course input that they wrote about as ‘PGCertHE participants’. Also, evidence to justify their position as GTAs increasingly came from experience of teaching rather than study situations. This finding is explored in sections 5.2.4 and 5.2.5.

5.2.4 The ‘GTA’ identity position

Adopting the identity position of a ‘GTA’ differs from doing so for the ‘academic insider’. As a professional identity, some category attributes of the ‘GTA’ identity are an unavoidable part of taking on the social role. The ‘academic insider’ role was more of a chosen presentation of self that used relevant personal history. While the ‘GTA’ identity position is therefore largely inherited or imposed as a social role or position, each tutor nonetheless enacted it differently. Thematic analysis of the explicit positioning cues used in each text revealed a process of change in how this enactment was done. This process, shown in Figure 5, involves moving from an ‘idealist’ starting perspective on teaching and learning, to a more ‘realist’ perspective and in later writing to a more ‘independent’ perspective.
5.2.4.1 'Idealism' and how tutors initially explicitly claimed the 'GTA' identity position in early texts

In analysing the explicit positioning cues that I came to label 'idealist', five themes emerged. As shown in Figure 5, these were 'disciplinary knowledge', 'trust in course structures', 'guide', 'students as a homogenous group' and 'student direction'. There are overlaps here with the 'academic insider' focus on 'disciplinary knowledge', 'trust' and 'guiding' students. However, rather than looking back to study experiences, explicit positioning cues as a 'GTA' focused on teaching
experiences. Key themes in these cues are firstly a relatively uncritical approach to teaching and learning, and secondly a focus on the tutor’s role in organising, or ‘directing’ students’ learning. With the first of these features, early claims about being a GTA relate to relatively trusting writing about teaching and learning found in TP1 and module 1. The following quotes are examples of this:

‘I think that the course structure is appropriate. It equips the students with some basic theoretical tools in the light of which they can then consider the questions raised in the second part of the course.’ (Lauren)

‘The advantages of the current assessment process are that it allows work to be marked fairly and reduces the possibility of cheating, favouritism and plagiarism…’ (Don)

As will be demonstrated in section 5.2.4.3, this trust was replaced in tutors’ later writing with increasing concerns about the challenges of teaching. As an example, in his year 2 writing, Don shifted from this acceptance of assessment practice to strongly phrased concerns about the validity of the assessment scheme on his course. This increasing criticality was not a lock-stepped process however. The ‘trust’ in these quotes is also evident in claims that extended beyond Module 1 in some tutors’ writing. An example is the following quote from Len’s module 2 assignment:
‘The exam will be the ultimate test of whether students have achieved the ability to think critically about the problems of (course code), rather than revert to a passive mode.’

While there was change throughout, it remained the case that different elements of positioning that I would identify as ‘idealist’ can be found across the texts, typically associated with lack of experience of a given element of teaching and learning. Proportionally though, lack of criticality appeared in fewer places as time went on.

It should also be said that this theme of trust was not true for all the tutors. Some concerns were raised in TP1 writing which returned later in the more ‘realist’ perspective of explicit positioning as a ‘GTA’ in modules 2, 4 and 5:

‘I find the concept of an in-class assignment rather strange; certainly I feel that 25 minutes is not long enough to answer a question in any detail.’ (Lauren)

‘I think the course structure has advantages. It makes a lot of sense to get through all the theoretical issue at the beginning of the year, and follow up with practical examples. The problem is to keep students with a more practical interest interested throughout the first year.’ (Mike)

5.2.4.2 ‘Directing’ student learning as a feature in ‘idealist’ claims to being a ‘GTA’

In addition to a general lack of criticality, the ‘idealist’ perspective, based as it is on claims to disciplinary knowledge, also relates strongly with tutors initially identifying
teaching with being a ‘guide’ and exerting ‘direction’ or (benign) control over student learning. The following three quotes demonstrate this:

‘The idea is to guide them not towards right of wrong answers but rather towards how to make a strong argument for a position, to feel comfortable defending that position, or adapting it as the case may be, when challenged.’ (Len)

‘In guiding students through the often complex topics in a discussion-oriented, problem-based environment, I will try to encourage independent thinking as well as the development of broader links.’ (Kate)

‘... it is important to keep the discussion focussed on the topic and the reading. Thus far, I have been doing this by regularly summarising the discussion and directing the discussion back on course with relevant questions.’ (Lauren)

A feature in this writing is how students tend to be treated as a relatively homogenous group. Appreciation of diversity among their students comes through in module 1 (small group teaching) and 2 (student learning) writing, because this diversity challenges the intention to ‘direct’ student learning. As discussed in the next section, this seems central to shifting identity positioning as a ‘GTA’.
5.2.4.3 ‘Realism’ and how tutors came to explicitly claim the ‘GTA’ identity position after a year of teaching

Over time, the lack of criticality of ‘idealistic’ identity positioning as a GTA gave way to statements that increasingly associated the GTA role with challenge. As shown in Figure 5, explicit positioning statements became increasingly organised around themes of ‘flaws of course structures’, ‘student motivation and knowledge’, ‘challenges of teaching and learning’ and the ‘limits of tutors’ control and responsibilities’. These latter two themes emerge first in module 1 writing, in which the ‘idealistic’ theme of ‘direction’ conflicts with the reality of students not preparing or behaving in the ways that pre-service expectations revolved around. This perceived failure of control was then increasingly explained in module 2 writing in terms of ‘flaws of course structures’ and ‘student motivation and knowledge’. These two themes are then central also to explicit positioning cues in module 4 writing.

A good example of this greater criticality in writing for module 2 on student learning is how course structures can be related to student difficulties. The following two quotes demonstrate this increasing criticality:

‘One reason why the students in my class may not automatically be linking theory and practice is the structure of the course that makes them seem mutually exclusive.’ (Kate)

‘I have no office hours, so it is difficult to provide specific individual guidance.’ (Lauren)
In module 4 writing on Assessing Student Work, this criticality tended to relate to colleagues’ poor practice or the creation of perverse incentives:

‘The only formal communication between academics and assistants with respect to assessment takes place at a single meeting just before the start of the school year; there is no follow up to ensure that formative marks are consistent across seminars or comparable with what is awarded for the summative assessment.’ (Don)

‘...it would be helpful if the written feedback was provided in a format that reflected the marking framework more closely.’ (Mike)

‘I conclude that when students’ final grades are based solely on a single final exam, the formative evaluations’ benefits are not fully recognised formally by instructors or institutions.’ (Kate)

In addition to criticality of course structures, increasing reference is made to the theme of the challenges of teaching and learning and thus the ‘limits of tutors’ control’:

‘... the way I understood theories and concepts was not necessarily shared by the students, even when discussing themes that were relatively universal (what is meant by Marxism, social democracy, ‘the state’ etc.) ... I quickly learned that there was very little that could be taken for granted when teaching.’ (Mike)
As awareness of the limits on directing students grew, tutors started to focus more on contributing to learning. As an example, Len wrote:

‘Finally, conscious of students’ differing levels of motivation and different goals, I tried to give feedback in a way that would best help them meet their objectives.’

This criticality seems a key feature of shifting positioning claims, since personal meaning making is central to identity itself (Deem & Lucas, 2005). These quotes show how these tutors were relating themselves to their teaching situations in very different ways to the ‘idealism’ of section 5.2.4.1. Also, if identities are relational (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002) and are realised in interaction (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006), then communicating more critically is a shift in a tutor’s identity as an academic teacher.

5.2.4.4 ‘Independence’ and how tutors explicitly claimed the ‘GTA’ identity position after 2 years of teaching

A further shift evident in the thematic analysis of tutors’ positioning as ‘GTAs’ was to move beyond the reaction of the ‘realist’ positioning, to more pro-active and self-confident ‘independent’ positioning. As shown in Figure 5, tutors’ explicit positioning cues integrated the ‘idealist’ theme of ‘disciplinary and institutional traditions’, with the ‘realist’ theme of the ‘complexity of teaching and learning outcomes’. However, these themes were couched in claims to be ‘implementing principled teaching’ and demonstrating ‘judgement on the basis of practical wisdom and success’.
By module 5, when tutors positioned themselves explicitly as ‘GTAs’, their independence from others such as course convenors and students was thus a marked feature. The following quote from Lauren captures this combination of themes. This short self-narrative shows how ‘complexity’ is present in terms of student diversity and the impact of the environmental features of the teaching situation. Lauren’s espoused response though claims experience over time, knowledge of a range of teaching techniques, judgement on curriculum coverage and the confidence to make her own decisions, apparently independently from the course convenor:

‘As with last year, it was challenging to keep the diverse range of students interested, making questions challenging enough to interest the more able students, yet not making them so challenging that the less able were alienated – especially at 4 & 5 on a Friday! The main changes that I made during this course, based on the previous year, were changing the scope of some of the tasks where the ground to be covered in the seminar had proved too wide to fit into the time available and I added some different tasks, such as discussion of case studies and quizzes, to add more variety.’ (Lauren)

This progression from ‘ideal’ to ‘realist’ and on to more confident ‘independent’ positioning is also a feature of these tutors’ explicit identity positioning as a participant in the LSE PGCertHE course. This seems a result of the requirement in PGCertHE coursework that participants apply educational theory to their own
teaching practice. This meant that the same shifts in enacting the ‘GTA’ identity position that have been outlined in this section, were happening in concert with how tutors explicitly realised their identities as ‘PGCertHE participants’. This related finding is presented in the next section.

5.2.5 The ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position

As with the ‘GTA’ identity position, adopting the ‘PGCertHE participant’ position involves inheriting key category attributes from the social role of course participant. For instance, part of the identity position is enacted through completing coursework assignments. At the same time, and as with the ‘GTA’ position, each of these tutors interacted as LSE ‘PGCertHE participants’ in different ways. Still, thematic analysis found parallels between the pattern of increasing criticality in how tutors claimed the ‘GTA’ identity position, and their explicit adoption of the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position. As will be discussed in some detail in Chapter 6, this alignment between ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ positioning seems to be the result of the LSE PGCertHE coursework assignments requiring participants to apply course input and reading to their teaching practice. As a result, the ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity positions interlink. Figure 6 provides an overview of this shifting positioning as a ‘PGCertHE participant’.
5.2.5.1 ‘Idealism’ and how tutors initially claimed the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position

Thematic analysis of the explicit positioning cues in pre-service and module 1 writing identified four organising themes associated with what I have termed the ‘idealist PGCertHE participant’ identity position. As demonstrated in Figure 6, these are ‘aspirations as teachers’, ‘trust in course input and reading’, ‘application of reading to enable successful student direction’ and ‘students as a homogenous group’. The first of these themes reflected that pre-service writing from the position of PGCertHE participant was principally aspirational:
‘My goal in this programme is to become a confident teacher. I am a confident person to begin with, and I want to translate this quality into my teaching.’ (Kate)

‘I would like to work on my confidence and on techniques for making things interesting; we’ve all had good and bad teachers and I would like to do as much as possible to be in the former category.’ (Lauren)

In this pre-service writing, there was no reference to educational literature or input. Instead, tutors justified beliefs and values about teaching and learning on their study experiences, as discussed in section 5.2.2.2. There was though one exception to this, Kate, who had taken an education module as part of her undergraduate degree. As a result, her early positioning as a ‘PGCertHE participant’ involved references to Paolo Freire’s critical pedagogy. This led her to incorporate phrases such as that she believed small group teaching should provide a:

‘... difference embracing space that promotes anti-oppression and inclusion.’

Writing in module 1 on small group teaching tended to fit into the ‘idealist’ perspective for two reasons. Firstly, the use of literature was generally uncritical. The following quotes are examples of how tutors tended to accept what they read as ‘truth’:
‘A leading current theorist, Stefano Guzzini, provides us with a tremendously useful categorisation of actually existing models of teaching IR ... My view of this excellent classification is that in an ideal world, a good exemplar of each of the four approaches would be present in an IR student’s course selection.’ (Len)

‘Duron et al. (2006) propose a five step approach that encourages critical thinking.’ (Kate)

‘Modern research suggests that traditional methods of teaching and learning ... are not the best way for students to become autonomous critical thinkers.’ (Lauren)

Secondly, claims made to being a ‘PGCertHE participant’ tended to relate to rather absolute solutions to teaching situations on the basis of reading. These solutions related to tutors’ ‘direction’ of student learning:

‘In week 8, I proposed ... to have one presentation only, to be followed by a discussant whose role it is to directly respond to the presentation and to bring up relevant questions to be used by the class for discussion. The new format was a success from the first week it was employed...Berkelman (1951:22) describes the utility of “hot-spots” in the classroom where a student is placed at the centre of a discussion and has to defend a position. Having a discussant ... in way operates to create such a “hot-spot”.’ (Kate)
‘I have started to introduce some more interpretative questions ...

to draw on Brookfield and Preskill’s idea that peer-to-peer

situations favour a challenging and stimulating encounter...’ (Len)

Finally, in this ‘idealistic’ version of the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position, tutors describe their students as an undifferentiated and homogenous group. For instance:

‘Yet without appropriate guidance, and with insufficient

preparation from fellow students ... these sessions can turn into
dull one-to-one discussion between presenter and teacher (Day,
1998).’ (Mike)

‘Part of the value of higher education is that the students can learn
directly from the ‘experts’, those who are creating new knowledge
through research. (This link has been recognised since the 19th
Century; cf Jenkins and Healey, 2004: 9).’ (Don)

5.2.5.2 ‘Realism’ and how tutors explicitly claimed the ‘PGCertHE participant’

identity position in later writing

Positioning as ‘PGCertHE participants’ changed with greater experience of integrating educational literature and course input into tutors’ writing about their teaching experiences. This coincided with the increased criticality discussed in section 5.2.4 on the ‘GTA’ identity position. As demonstrated in Figure 6, thematic analysis of explicit positioning cues that relate to what I have termed the ‘realist
PGCertHE participant’ identity position identified four organising themes. These are ‘educational research highlighting problems with course structures’, ‘principles and values of higher education teaching and dissonance with course practice’, ‘student diversity’ and ‘complexity of teaching and learning’. As with the ‘realist GTA’ themes, the failure to control student behaviour, and so ‘direct’ their learning, is explained through these themes.

For instance, in module 2 writing, criticality appeared as themes of ‘student diversity’ and ‘problems with course structures’ / ‘dissonance’ emerged in tutors’ identity positioning. The following quotes offer examples of this shift:

‘... the course content is strongly cognitivist in that it is almost exclusively made up of works which address the higher levels in Bloom’s taxonomy ... It emphasises analysis, evaluation and synthesis, whereas knowledge (i.e. empirical data on Western politics) is presented only insofar as it is required for these primary purposes...’ (Don)

‘The organisation of (course code) reflects an intentional diversity of content and presentation, which allows on the one hand a plurality of access points for the student into the material ... on the other a challenging plurality for students to engage with ... It is a course engaged in unsettling students’ pre-conceptions and thus drawing out the real-world applicability of IR (Duron, Limbach & Waugh, 2006: 160).’ (Len)
'We have come to appreciate the incredible diversity of the modern classroom, both in terms of student backgrounds as well as in learning styles.' (Mike)

In modules 2 and 4, tutors also started integrating educational reading with their disciplinary literatures. Kate, for instance, did this with Foucault:

'This directly confirms the Constructivist claims that people construct individual meaning by building on their own experiences (Carlile & Jordan, 2005: 19). Social Constructivist Foucault asserts that knowledge is intrinsically found in relationships, activities and skills of individual communities. "Knowing is inseparable from action and environment, and is also inseparable from issues of access and empowerment" (Carlile & Jordan, 2005: 23).'

In addition to this, in modules 2, 4 and 5, tutors’ writing about the reading they had been doing is less accepting of their course reading and more focussed on the ‘complexity of teaching and learning’:

'Studies suggest that this kind of approach is more likely to be chosen by male academics (Heron, Beedle et al. 2006); in this case, the convenor is indeed a man, although the choice of approach is hardly atypical and may simply reflect the fact that political studies as a field is even now dominated by men.' (Don)
'I have not yet received any feedback on the written guidance provided on the essays; it will be interesting to get this as research has found a discrepancy between the level of feedback that teachers think is sufficient and the level that students find useful (Brinkworth et al 2008).’ (Lauren)

5.2.5.3 ‘Independence’ and how tutors explicitly claimed the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position after 2 years of teaching

In common with these tutors' explicit positioning cues as ‘GTA’s, thematic analysis of themes in their positioning as ‘PGCertHE participants' identified a further shift in positioning towards what I have termed an ‘independent’ position. As demonstrated in Figure 6, I identified four organising themes by analysing these cues. These are ‘educational research reflecting complexity of teaching and learning outcomes’, ‘implementing principled teaching’, ‘judgement on the basis of both experience and reading / theory’ and ‘disciplinary and institutional traditions and realities’.

The focus on ‘complexity’ is also present in ‘realist and independent GTA’ positions. This realism in part stems from dissonance between ‘idealists’ expectations of teaching and learning compared to the lived reality. This dissonance initially has a reactive and critical character, but in writing after two years of teaching, a more pro-active character emerges as tutors make their own meanings and judgements. I have termed a key theme in this process ‘implementing principled teaching’ and this is evident in ‘GTA’ as well as ‘PGCertHE participant’ positions. One way this unfolded is that tutors' use of literature, as part of claiming the ‘PGCertHE
participant' identity position, shifted from including references to meet assessment criteria, to integrating educational concepts more seamlessly into claims about themselves as course participants and academic teachers. Two examples of this are:

‘Looking ahead, I think I will be much more diligent in analysing and trying to anticipate deficits in constructive alignment and factoring these into my teaching from the first class or seminar of the year...’ (Len)

‘The first three weeks of this course were challenging as they were designed by a new lecturer who, I felt, tried to cover too much material for a first year introductory course, alienating some of the students.’ (Lauren)

As with the quote from Lauren in section 5.2.4.4, themes of ‘judgement’ and the ability to manage ‘complexity’ emerge in narratives of self as a pedagogically informed academic teacher (McAlpine & Lucas, 2011). The following quote from Kate is a good example of this biographical quality:

‘It has been my experience that when no learning outcomes are communicated, most students have a one-tracked preoccupation with the exam ... As teachers we know that there is no silver bullet to a first: indeed I have come to realise through my own teaching that we mostly teach within the range of upper second.’ (Kate)
This ‘independence’ also extends to the PGCertHE input itself. For instance, Don’s criticality of the notion of constructive alignment contrasts with his earlier acceptance of the reading he had done for module 1 and 2 assignments:

‘The challenge for courses like this is how to provide rigorous, valid and comparable proof that the desired outcomes have been attained, without simply encouraging students to adopt instrumentalist learning strategies ... Constructive alignment is a deeply ambivalent strategy in this regard.’ (Don)

This identity position as an ‘independent PGCertHE participant’ appears in tutors’ later writing. It is explicitly claimed alongside the ‘independent GTA’ position, but also is contemporary to a new identity position, which I have termed ‘young academic’. This position is introduced in the next section.

5.2.6 The ‘young academic’ identity position

As Table 7 in section 5.2.2 demonstrates, a fourth identity position was explicitly claimed in the module 5 writing of four of the tutors in this study. I termed this identity position ‘young academic’ since central to this position is the claim to belong in academia as an academic. There are parallels with this identity position and the ‘academic insider’ position. The ‘young academic’ and ‘academic insider’ roles rely more on personal histories, rather than on the successful enactment of roles, tasks and responsibilities (as with the ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ positions). This is a difference of degree, but it means that these two identity positions revolve around belonging, where the ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’
positions relate more to competence. What is new about the ‘young academic’ position, is that tutors claimed to belong to academia as academics, rather than as the successful students of the ‘academic insider’ positioning. As Figure 7 on the next page shows, this involves organising themes of ‘disciplinary communities’ and ‘pedagogic content knowledge’.
Figure 7: Organising themes for the 'young academic' identity position.
5.2.6.1 The ‘young academic’ position and belonging as an academic

The term ‘young academic’ seems warranted because it involves tutors claiming to belong to academia as academics. This was done in different ways. For example, in the following quote, Len made this claim through discussion of teaching the discipline:

‘... to match the delivery of education to our aspirations, we need to consider above all, if we are really interested in quality, how we design the fabric of the educational experience students receive. That is, we need to revisit the design of degree courses and programmes on the basis of Nygaard et al.’s pointers as to what an academic education is actually supposed to be providing in a discipline, rather than what we as specialist academics, are interested in.’ (Len)

This position was also claimed with reference to academic employment, such as Don’s aspirations back in his native Australia:

‘The two courses ... have also been designed to be appealing to Australian universities, where I intend to teach’ (Don)

Another approach was to discuss academic life from the position of an insider. An example of this is the following quote from Kate:

‘As teachers, we must acknowledge our role in generating knowledge and fostering skills. Finding the time to reflect on our
days, the interactions we may have had in the classroom and the
opportunities we may have taken or missed to advance learning is
increasingly difficult in an academic organisational culture that
values measurable output over all other types of outcomes. If self-
reflexivity and critical self-reflection are essential to effective
practice, finding the appropriate time and methods for reflection
are equally important.’ (Kate)

This new position was also claimed through ‘othering’ identity positions previously held, in particular that of GTA:

‘It would also be worth considering a non-compulsory short essay
... However, this is not the norm at the University of Kent, so may
meet with resistance from both students and class teachers.’
(Lauren)

‘Although I do not intend to police student reading, it is fairly clear
that capacity to participate in and benefit from discussions will
vary with the amount of preparatory reading students do. The
main behaviourist element has already been discussed: the
seminar presentations will be a formal requirement and
(formatively) marked by the class teacher.’ (Don)

Despite the claim to belong to disciplinary communities, tutors’ positioning as ‘young academics’ is particular about how they belong. This writing involves
rejection of traditional or departmental approaches to teaching their disciplines in favour of ideas from more pedagogically interested (and competent) disciplinary academics. An example is the following quote from Don, which critiques the teacher-centric view of the course he had been teaching on:

‘(course code) is still constructed in the traditional manner, focussing on the knowledge which the course intends to impart and implicitly adopting the perspective of the academic whose task it is to do the imparting.’ (Don)

Another example of how these tutors presented themselves as more pedagogically informed academics than colleagues is the following quote from Len. In this quote, Len’s main critique of the course he had been teaching on is its pedagogic vagueness. Len’s own reference to Robert Mager shows he would not have designed the course in this way:

‘These outcomes serve as good examples for my area of International Relations. They are specific and measurable and correspond with Mager’s understanding of what makes a good learning outcome ... In contrast, the ‘aims and objectives’ of (course code), cited below, are less well defined, prioritising aims over outcomes:’ (Len)

Len then went on to explicitly contrast his course convenor, with a more appropriate role model for himself as an academic. This is a disciplinary academic
whose article on teaching in IR Len had read. This article offered a more pedagogically informed approach to teaching IR:

‘Erskine’s example is a model of clarity, differentiating between aims and outcomes:’

5.2.6.2 The ‘young academic’ position and pedagogic content knowledge

Another key theme associated with this identity position is ‘pedagogic content knowledge’ (Shulman, 1987). This is qualitatively different from other identity positions. The ‘GTA’ identity position involves fairly pragmatic discussion of teaching what is in the course. The ‘academic insider’ identity position was claimed by asserting the tutor’s competence over relevant research literature. However, the ‘young academic’ identity position is claimed through asserting competence as a disciplinary teacher. An example of this is Lauren’s argument for the relative importance of curricular topics:

‘I think that although the current ordering of the topics is appropriate, the weighting of time attributed to each topic should be rebalanced. I suggest 3 weeks on consequentialism, 4 weeks on deontology and 3 weeks on virtue ethics. This would allow the students to study virtue ethics in more detail than the current structure allows.’ (Lauren)

Similarly, Kate claimed perspective across disciplinary literature and the judicious placement of her course proposal within this:
'The theory explored in the proposed course situates the course within many of the main areas of enquiry in the discipline of IR. The nature of international relations, power, the nature of international systems ... are all addressed. Similarly the main debates of IR (Realism vs Liberalism vs Critical Theory) are also addressed when exploring different positions on anarchy and hierarchy.' (Kate)

5.2.7 Summary of the findings relating to analysis of explicit positioning cues

The underlying motivation of this research study was to assess the influence of the LSE PGCertHE programme on these tutors' development as academic teachers. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6. However, there are observations worth raising that specifically relate to how tutors explicitly claimed identity positions, and how this changed over time. The first observation is that the distinction between the ‘PGCertHE participant’ and ‘GTA’ identity positions should not be overstated. The two identity positions have clear differences. The former relates to a context of educational literature, workshops and training interventions and being part of a cohort of relatively like-minded aspiring academics. The ‘GTA’ identity position had as its main context the course these tutors were teaching on and the convenor and students of this course. However, the point of LSE PGCertHE coursework is to require participants to apply their learning on the course to their teaching experience and practices. As a result, the ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ identities informed each other and this explains why both positions can be seen to move from ‘idealist’ to ‘realist’ to ‘independent’ perspectives. It was the
combination of critical course tasks and pre-service expectations about teaching and learning not being met that informed this changed positioning over time.

The influence of the PGCertHE coursework requirements and guidelines on these tutors’ identity positioning can be identified in three ways. Firstly, the identity positions adopted are ‘interpolated’ by taking the course at all (Butler, 1997). One cannot be a ‘PGCertHE participant’ without taking the PGCertHE. But also, one cannot enrol on the LSE PGCertHE without engaging in teaching, normally as a GTA. So the course is itself a frame in which these identity positions are generated and required. This is the influence that the course exerts, and for GTAs who are denied longer term developmental opportunities, their identity positioning would not incorporate and integrate these different positions.

A second kind of influence is that the nature of the coursework is critical. It requires tutors to evaluate their own teaching, their students’ learning and the structures they work within on the basis of research and experience. This must have played a role in the shift to ‘realism’ evident in these shifting positioning claims. This is further explored in section 5.3, during which the ‘legacy effect’ that emerged from analysis of tutors’ reasoning in coursework writing is presented.

Finally, a third influence of the LSE PGCertHE is the ordering of the coursework assignments and modules. As the ways that identity claims were made became more complex over time, this seems to have been influenced by the building up over time of topics covered and returned to in the different assignments of the coursework. This is also explored further in section 5.3.
5.3 Thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues

5.3.1 How tutors implicitly negotiated identities as academic teachers

As discussed in section 4.6, in addition to identifying explicit identity positioning, implicit positioning cues were also studied. The first stage of this was to code for causal reasoning statements explaining different aspects of teaching and learning in each text for each tutor. As outlined in section 4.6.1.2, this was done by identifying causal conjunctions and main and subordinate clauses. Table 8 shows the number of statements found.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TP1</th>
<th>Module 1 on class teaching</th>
<th>Module 2 on student learning</th>
<th>Module 4 on assessment</th>
<th>Module 5 on course design</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Len</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kate</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lauren</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Distribution of causal reasoning statements about aspects of teaching and learning

These causal statements were then analysed by module assignment with explicit consideration of the assignment guidelines which framed their use, much as an
interview frame would do for a more traditional interview-based approach. Extending this analogy slightly, what this approach offered is that these texts are essentially equivalent to conducting 25 time series interviews across a two year period. However, what is interesting about this data is that writing these texts was an integral part of the process through which these tutors formed their identities as academic teachers. This would not have been the case if participants had been interviewed, as the data collected would not reflect part of their routine activities in their first two years as HE teachers. This observation is not a criticism of interviewing. Rather it is a comment on the value (and validity) of using naturally occurring data in researching identity formation (McLean & Bullard, 2000).

The use of thematic analysis with these 829 causal statements across five texts identified how causal reasoning about teaching and learning was done in each text by each tutor. This enabled a comparison between tutors, but also between texts. This latter comparison led to identifying a 'legacy effect' that emerged between texts. In this effect, reasoning about teaching and learning in early texts became integrated into that of later texts, generating increasingly complex reasoning statements. This effect is presented in detail in sections 5.3.2-5.3.6. This effect is relevant to identity formation because, as discussed in section 3.4.3, ‘interpretative repertoires’ are:

‘... basically a lexicon or register of terms and metaphors drawn upon to characterise and evaluate actions and events from a given position’ (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 138).
This means that change in ‘interpretative repertoires’ entails change in identity positioning.

5.3.2 Overview of investigating implicit identity cues – a ‘legacy’ effect

The key finding from the thematic analysis of the causal statements is that each tutor’s interpretative repertoire for explaining teaching and learning became increasingly complex over time. This is demonstrated in Figure 8 in this section. In part, this increasing complexity seems to reflect greater teaching experience and appears a consequence of socialisation in the role of graduate teaching assistant. However, a pattern that emerged in my analysis, and that appears influential to identity formation, was a ‘legacy effect’ created by completing the coursework assignments for the LSE PGCertHE course.

This effect worked in the following manner. Tutors encountered new ideas on class teaching in module 1 that built on and reframed their pre-service expectations. This new input mingled with the experience of teaching and dissonance between pre-service expectations and the realities of their lived experience of teaching. Then in module 2 on student learning, tutors wrote about new input on learning theory and student diversity, but they also referred back to module 1 ideas when discussing how to support their students’ learning. Tutors did this even though this was not required for the module 2 assignment. In module 4 on assessment, tutors wrote about principles of assessment and feedback, but frequently justified the points they made with reference to learning theory and diversity (module 2). Also, in discussing how feedback can influence study, module 1 themes of ‘student
direction’ re-emerged. Finally, in module 5 on course design, themes from all the earlier modules are integrated into explanations of different aspects of teaching and learning, and in justifying decisions made about course outlines.

This is true of modules 1, 2 and 4, which are included in this study. It is also true that themes from module 3 on evaluating teaching, and module 1b on Lecturing are integrated into subsequent writing. In line with section 4.2, these themes are not included in this presentation as these module assignments were not selected as part of the data for this study.

The outcome of the ‘legacy effect’ is that tutors’ interpretative repertoires for teaching and learning are far more complex in module 5 than in early writing. This complexity can be explained through a process of accretion of themes from earlier modules. Sections 5.3.3- 5.3.7 demonstrate in detail how this seems to have occurred, and Figure 8 on the following page summarises this effect.
Figure 8: Overview of the 'legacy effect' of LSE PGCertHE coursework writing

- Teaching the discipline
- Managing Participation
- Planning and preparing
- Student behaviours
- Student direction

Module 1
organising themes

Module 2
organising themes

- Student diversity
- Motivation and student behaviours
- Learning theory
- Course structures
- Student direction

Module 5
organising themes

Module 4
organising themes

- Principles of course design
- The influence of course design and delivery
- Pedagogic content knowledge
- Learning theory and student motivation
- Institutional and educational realities

- Principles of assessment and feedback
- The influence of assessment methods and practice
- Learning theory and student motivation
- Skills development / student direction

(N.B. the colour scheme is intended to highlight how themes from particular texts reappear in later writing.)
5.3.3 How tutors explained aspects of teaching and learning pre-service

Teaching Profile 1 (TP1) was a piece of reflective writing required for enrolment onto the LSE PGCertHE course. Tutors wrote this in October 2008. It was divided into six sections. The first of these was informational about teaching responsibilities for the coming year, then there were sections for the five modules. As outlined in section 4.2, for each of the module sections, there were prompt questions and participants were asked to write 4–500 words per section. This writing reflects how tutors explained teaching and learning before they had begun the LSE PGCertHE course. Figure 9 presents the module sections that relate to the texts selected for this analysis (section 4.2 offers a rationale for this selection).
Pre-service writing was understandably dominated by tutors’ discussion of their own plans and actions. Much of this related to expectations derived from their own study experiences (and the ‘academic insider’ position discussed in section 5.2.3). As this section demonstrated, study experiences related to tutors’ understanding of the role of an academic teacher, but also to their expectations of student learning. Because these expectations are based more on the teacher than their actual students, they...
tend to lack an appreciation of teaching and learning difficulties that appear in module assignment writing. The following quotes are examples of this:

‘The four essays are short enough, 1500 words, to force them to distil their knowledge to the essential points and to facilitate an analytical presentation of the argument.’ (Len)

‘I will try to lead discussions in a way that organises and highlights the key points of the subject ... I expect discussion to be fluid and unrestricted.’ (Kate)

‘Teaching at British universities, at large, seems to be a fairly unstructured and free enterprise. For the most part this is a good thing. The differences in how different classes are taught can be fairly substantial, which accommodates for a variety of learning styles.’ (Mike)

Some tutors had a week’s, and in Lauren’s case a fortnight’s, teaching experience when they wrote TP1. This appears to have influenced reasoning about the process of class teaching itself. Themes such as ‘guidance’, and ‘onus on students’ were later explored in more detail in module 1 writing on small group teaching. As an example, Lauren wrote:

‘All the students are required to have read a short piece for each seminar. This expectation was made clear to them by the course convenor ... and is stated in the course guide. I structure the class
around a series of questions related to the specific piece the students are supposed to have read to draw out the arguments and issues.’

These early teaching experiences make no reference to PGCertHE course input and reading, because the text was required for enrolment on the course. Also, at this stage, tutors’ teaching experience ran to one, and in one case two, classes. As a result, explanations of teaching and learning in module 1 are more developed and more complex.

5.3.4 How tutors’ module 1 writing had developed on from pre-service texts

As discussed in section 4.6.3, thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues explicitly considered the coursework assignment guidelines. This is because what was required in each section of each assignment clearly influenced the themes that ‘emerge’ in tutors’ writing. In order to report this influence transparently, the following sections begin with a figure that shows the organising themes I derived for each section of each assignment. These themes are derived from combining the writing of all the tutors for each assignment section. As such, I have been able to capture individual differences and commonality in how the tutors responded to assignment requirements. Before presenting these figures for each section, I start the section by introducing the assignment sections. I have covered this in section 4.2, but it is worth restating this, so that the organising themes appear in context. I then relate these themes to the global themes for the coursework assignments as a whole. These are the themes presented in Figure 8 in section 5.3.2.

The first module assignment included in this analysis is module 1 on small group teaching. In December 2008, module 1 was divided into three sections. The first was
on traditions of teaching in the disciplines these tutors taught. Participants were asked to place their own approach to their class teaching within this context. The second section asked participants to evaluate their first term’s teaching. The third section asked them to outline lessons they were taking forward into their second term’s teaching. PGCertHE input involved workshops and readings on planning and delivering small group teaching. The emphasis in this input was that classes would be participative, and that this might best be achieved by taking a task-based approach.

Figure 10 provides an overview of the organising themes derived for each of the assignment sections.

Figure 10: Organising themes in implicit identity positioning found in module 1
Five global themes for the whole module were derived from the more detailed analysis of the thirteen organising themes of the assignment sections shown in Figure 7. These global themes are ‘teaching the discipline’, ‘managing participation’, ‘planning and preparing’, ‘student behaviours’ and ‘student direction and control’. These global themes are contrasted with the global themes of the other module assignments in Figure 8 in section 5.3.2.

The first three of these global themes relate directly to the module input. In effect, section 1 and 2 of the assignment asked tutors to evaluate how they were approaching ‘teaching the discipline’, ‘managing participation’ and ‘planning and preparing’. For each of these themes, the experience of completing the module and its assignment seems to have led to clear differences in how tutors explained teaching as compared to how they described it in their TP1 writing. A good example of this is the discussion of the organising theme ‘role of the teacher’ in section 1.

In TP1, reasoning statements about the role of the teacher focussed on themes of ‘content knowledge’, ‘passion and enthusiasm’ and being a ‘guide’. This is also present in explaining teaching in module 1 writing. But what is added is how these beliefs and values can be operationalised, and how input on teaching has made a contribution to this. The following quotes illustrate this development:

‘I have been concerned, since the start of term, to balance two needs in organising seminars: that students spend most of their time actively discussing the course material rather than passively sitting listening, and that those discussions are structured ... To that end, I have from the outset favoured small group discussions ...’ (Don)
‘In line with Duron et al.’s (2006) second step in encouraging critical thinking, I have tried to develop questions and tasks that promote active discussion.’ (Kate)

‘My first experience of teaching has been with a small (often really very small) group of mostly quiet students at 9am, which certainly throws up challenges ... The GTA and PGCertHE workshops have been absolutely vital, summarising a move through knowledge to interpretation ... What I have tried to do is to start with an exercise that serves as both warm-up and knowledge fixing, usually a list of questions summarising key points in the lecture and reading.’ (Len)

‘Planning and preparing’ was not a theme present in TP1 writing. However, following input in workshops in particular, it is a prevalent theme in module 1 writing:

‘When confronted with teaching International Security, one of the first things I did was to approach the term in sections so as to be able to organize the content of the course and simplify concepts.’ (Kate)

‘Structured discussions where participants are required to express their own viewpoint, appreciate the differing viewpoints of classmates and provide impromptu responses while appearing eloquent and confident ... do not simply happen, and Day argues that good preparation can go a long way in ensuring a successful discussion (1998)’. (Mike)
‘Following reading week and the initial PGCertHE classes, my approach to the seminars in week 5 onwards was much more structured. I still created a list of relevant questions and answers for myself ... However, I also created a plan, complete with timings, scheduling tasks to students ... I also created a hand out for the students containing the tasks and key questions ...’ (Lauren)

The themes of ‘student behaviours’ and ‘student direction’ are related. This is because in these reasoning statements, claims to success as a teacher relate to students behaving as the tutor wanted. As examples of this, Don wrote:

‘I have got into the habit in the past weeks of moving around and listening to each group in turn, occasionally asking them a pointed question to get them back on track.’

Also:

‘I continued my technique of getting the students to write down what they thought before hearing the presentation, and to assess each other in light of the other.’

Similarly, Len wrote that:

‘... in recent weeks, when some students started to take it less seriously I have had to up the stakes by making each group report back on a question to class, which has worked reasonably well, and
has been especially useful when the basic knowledge has actually been quite hard ...

Also, Mike wrote about his use of gapped handouts to:

‘... trap them to apply the material from the readings to a relevant question.’

That not all students behaved as tutors would have liked, or as they expected, is a theme that carries into the module 2 assignment and their responses to PGCertHE course input on student learning. It is also a theme that relates back to the ‘realism’ that crept into these tutors’ explicit positioning as ‘GTAs’ and ‘PGCertHE participants’ discussed in section 5.2. Links between implicit and explicit identity positioning will be made in more detail in section 5.4.

5.3.5 How tutors’ module 2 writing integrated themes from module 1 writing

In April 2009, the module 2 assignment on student learning was divided into three sections, and involved a practical project based on tutors making profiles for all the students in one of their classes. The first section of the assignment asked tutors to outline issues that emerged from these profiles and that their students had faced during their first two terms of teaching. The second section asked participants to explain why these issues might have arisen, and to do this with reference to learning theory. The third section asked participants to say how these issues could be addressed. Input on the LSE PGCertHE involved readings on learning theory and areas such as motivation, and workshops on learning and student diversity. The unstated intention of this module was to encourage tutors to move their focus from their own
actions as teachers to their students' actions as learners. Figure 11 provides an overview of the organising themes derived for each of the assignment sections.

![Diagram](image_url)

**Figure 11: Organising themes in implicit identity positioning found in module 2**

Five global themes for the whole module were derived from the more detailed analysis of the nine organising themes of the assignment sections shown in Figure 11. These global themes are 'student diversity', 'motivation and student behaviours', 'learning theory', 'influence of course structures' and 'student direction' (see also Figure 8 in section 5.3.2). The first three of these organising themes relate directly to the course input. Having said this, tutors' discussion of diversity was not in line with the unstated intention of the module. Instead of appreciating diversity at the individual level, tutors' discussion of 'diversity' tended to focus on student 'types' and backgrounds.
This discussion then tended to relate to difficulties tutors faced in achieving their own teaching aims in the face of this diversity of ‘types’. This discussion of challenging behaviour was a key element in the global theme of ‘student direction’, which was also present in module 1 writing:

‘For example, Student 2 continuously showed a lack of interest in his written work. Although I tried to encourage him by offering him one-to-one extra help appointments and asking him engaging questions, it seemed as though it was not a matter of him needing guidance. Rather, his sole pre-occupation was the final mark he would receive via the final exam.’ (Kate)

In another example, Lauren wrote about tailoring her teaching approach to different kinds of students:

‘In this class, there is a diverse range of students who are likely to have a range of goals. For example, those who are taking this as a wild module are perhaps more interested in performance in the assessment than in mastery of the subject.’

The ‘influence of course structures’ global theme develops on from reasoning statements in module 1 writing about the impact of teaching decisions taken by course convenors. In module 1, this had principally related to the effect on the teacher of compulsory presentations and class discussions of reading assignments. In module 2, decisions made by the course convenor in structuring the course include this influence,
but also discuss impacts on students. An example of this is discussion of assumed knowledge, as the following quotes illustrate:

‘As an introductory course, it does not assume any knowledge, but there is a steep learning curve for non-philosophy students to become familiar with philosophical jargon and knowledge of broad philosophical positions.’ (Lauren)

‘The two most common iss for students in my seminar group are the amount of assumed empirical knowledge, and their lack of familiarity with the specific modes of political-sociological argument and explanation which this course requires.’ (Don)

The theme of ‘student direction’, carried forward from module 1, was central to tutors’ espoused approaches to resolving the student problems they raised:

‘I will focus, therefore, on instructing my students in the modes of analysis and argument which are commonly used in political sociology. My reasons for this are partly practical: mastery of these modes is essential if they are to succeed...But I also have more principled reasons for this focus on practice, above all it will allow me to continue to structure the seminars around student participation...’ (Don)

‘During class, I have offered as much guidance as possible. Where relevant to all students, for example essay structure, I have offered guidance to the whole class. When the class has been working in
small groups, I have circulated the groups offering the opportunity for
more directed guidance ...’ (Lauren)

However, there are many instances of values in module 1 writing now being integrated into learning-theory-informed thinking in module 2 writing. As an example, in module 1, Len wrote about using essay planning tasks in this way:

‘I can see that the danger of being content with the evidence of intellectual understanding, foregoing the next stage of teaching the craft of application ... which lies at the heart of formulating fully developed arguments. That is why I think the essay exercises ... which I would like to reproduce in different variants, are so important.’

In Len’s module 2 writing, this had become:

‘But for some students who had clearly done inadequate reading or still had lacunae resulting from a non-IR background, I encouraged them to use the exercise of essay planning to build up a picture of what they needed to revise further, which speaks to the constructivist approach ...’

5.3.6 How tutors’ module 4 writing integrated themes from modules 1 & 2

In December 2009, the module 4 assignment on assessing student learning was divided into three sections. The first asked participants to evaluate the assessment practices on the course they were teaching on. This evaluation was via assessment principles of validity, reliability and fairness. In the second section, they were asked to do the same
with their own marking of a class set of essays or problem sets. The third section asked participants to then assess their own feedback to students on these essays using principles of good feedback practice. Figure 12 provides an overview of the organising themes derived for each of the assignment sections.

Figure 12: Organising themes in implicit identity positioning found in module 4

Four global themes for the whole module were derived from the more detailed analysis of the twelve organising themes of the assignment sections shown in Figure 8. These global themes are 'principles of assessment and feedback', 'the influence of assessment methods and practice', 'learning theory and student motivation' and 'skills development / student direction' (these themes are presented in Figure 8 in section 5.3.2).
The first two themes relate directly to course input. Tutors came to workshops on principles of assessment, read about these and then were asked to apply them to their teaching experiences and contexts. However, in doing this, earlier themes are integrated into tutors’ discussion and understanding of assessment. This was not a requirement of the module, but still the influence of completing the module 2 assignment on student learning is very clear in tutors’ module 4 writing. As a good illustration of this shift, in his module 4 text Len wrote about the module 2 theme of student diversity in the following way:

‘I find the question of what my students are meant to learn more problematic than a year ago.’

Len had a straightforward option:

‘... one answer is that students need to learn that which forms the basis of the summative assessment.’

However, achieving even this was, after a year of teaching experience, then presented as problematic:

‘I have been surprised by the MSc students, in that some are already functioning at PhD level in academic terms, while others, perhaps coming from a different system or after many years away from education, have needs that I did not experience to the same extent in my third year undergraduate group last year.’
Similarly, the module 2 global theme of ‘motivation and student behaviours’ informs writing on the role of assessment. For instance Don wrote:

‘Students who are inclined to be, for want of a better term, instrumentally rational, are more likely to ask questions about the exact requirements of the course so they can minimise the amount of work they have to do in relation to the marks they want to achieve.

In my seminar this year, for instance, several students have asked if they are required to choose different topics for their seminar presentations and formative essays, with the implication that choosing the same topic allows them to read one set of books and produce two of the course requirements.’

Also evident as an influence is the integration of learning theory into espoused good practice on feedback. As a good illustration of this, Lauren wrote:

‘It is a continuing problem that I have no office hours, so it is difficult to provide specific individual guidance. It would be helpful to have an office hour so that I could encourage more students to engage in one-to-one help, as individual guidance, in my experience, appears to have a positive effect on essay marks. However, the extent to which students will seek and act on advice will depend on their goals, as evidenced by learning theory. Some students are focussed on a full understanding of the subject, hence likely to act on advice such as widening their reading to develop their arguments. Students with
performance-oriented goals, whose primary interest is to pass the exam, are less likely to act on such advice (Mattern, 2005: 27).’

It is also the case that the themes raised in module 1 and carried into module 2 reasoning about teaching and learning are also integrated here. A good example is ‘student direction’ where tutors wrote about responding to the module 4 organising theme of ‘skills deficits’:

‘It is therefore a great opportunity for the teacher to explain how the student can improve their work, and use the essay as the frame of reference for this advice ... Finally, during the class that follows the essay deadline, I spend a few minutes going through the general impression that I received from the marking. What was done well, what could be improved on.’ (Mike)

‘I would be more conscious of the particular language used in the marking scheme when writing essay feedback. I would also end on a positive note in order to emphasise the skills that the student has shown.’ (Kate)

5.3.7 How module 5 writing integrated themes from modules 1, 2 and 4

In April 2010, the module 5 assignment on course design had two sections. The first section asked participants to critique the design of the course they had been teaching on. They did this in terms of Biggs’ (1996) notion of constructive alignment. In the second section, tutors designed the outline for a course they could teach on the basis
of their PhD study. Tutors had to present this proposal in the context of an institution where they would like to work in the future. Input on course design from the LSE PGCertHE was a two-day course design workshop during which the assignment tasks were broken down and worked through collaboratively. The unstated intention of the assignment was to draw together learning from across the two years of the LSE PGCertHE. Figure 13 provides an overview of the organising themes derived for each of the assignment sections.

![Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 13: Organising themes in implicit identity positioning found in module 5**

Five global themes for the whole module were derived from the more detailed analysis of the eleven organising themes of the assignment sections, shown in Figure 13. As presented in Figure 8 in section 5.3.2, these global themes are 'principles of course
design’, ‘the influence of course structures and delivery’, ‘pedagogic content knowledge’, ‘learning theory and student motivation’ and ‘institutional and educational realities’.

The first two organising themes relate directly to the assignment input. Tutors attended a two day course design workshop. Before this they had pre-reading on constructive alignment and during the workshop they worked through applying principle to practice. The intention of the module is to bring together learning from across the PGCertHE and this is what happened in terms of themes from earlier modules informing reasoning about course design. A good example of this is the module 5 global theme of ‘learning theory and student motivation’, which reflected the use of learning theory in modules 2 and 4, and now module 5, to justify design choices. As an example of this, Mike wrote:

‘The variety of backgrounds means that there will always be significant variance in the initial understanding of the subject that students bring with them to the course. This in turn means that the way in which students ‘construct’ meaning out of what they are studying is likely to differ …’

Similarly, Don used constructive alignment principles to explicitly ensure that:

‘...deep learning is the best exam strategy.’

Assessment choices in course redesign and proposals were also very consistent with module 4 reasoning themes, in particular of the module 4 organising themes of ‘influence of assessment methods and practice’ and ‘principles of assessment’ (Figure
9). The following quotes demonstrate this link between module 4 themes and module 5 writing:

‘Exams challenge the necessary validity of assessment methods (i.e. whether an assessment tests what it wants to test), since exams tend to test “skills” outside of the ones practiced during term time ... Indeed, according to information I collected for Module 4 on student assessment, I found that most students perform better in their essays than they do on the final exam. This leads me to the conclusion that there may be better ways by which the assessment methods could prepare students to succeed in the course.’ (Kate)

‘My approach on both designed courses has been to have a diversity of assessment methods to maximise the validity of the course in terms of the students’ diverse skills and, crucially, to assess the learning outcomes thoroughly.’ (Len)

This link to module 4 also entailed citing references from that module:

‘Thirdly, the proposed assessment methods are fair because multiple assessment types avoid benefiting students with a preference for a particular kind of assessment. Race argues that “the greater the diversity in the methods of assessment, the fairer assessment is to students (2007: 1).”’ (Lauren)

Going beyond this focus of module 4 themes influencing module 5 writing, what also happens is the integration of earlier themes from multiple modules in the reasoning
statements. For instance Kate explained module 5 input on constructive alignment using the module 2 global theme of ‘learning theory’ and the module 1 global theme of ‘managing participation’ and combined this with her personal interest in Paolo Freire’s critical pedagogy:

‘Having clear outcomes is the first step in constructive alignment. In the revised (course code), students know that they are expected to learn the vocabulary used in the subject. According to Benjamin Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive levels (1984), merely learning vocabulary and what concepts mean constitute first (or at most second) class cognition. The verbs used in the learning outcomes are consciously higher-order actions that encourage deep learning. Importantly, clear outcomes also shift the responsibility and thus power from the teacher to the student, thus facilitating student-based learning (O’Neill and McMahon, 2005). The teacher’s role then becomes that of a facilitator and resource person.’ (Kate)

As a second example, Len chose to take a thematic approach to his new course, focussing on major IR issues to contextualise theory. In doing so he uses module 2 global themes of ‘motivation and student behaviours’ and ‘student direction’ and the module 1 organising theme of ‘disciplinary particularities’, which for Len involved discussion of ‘dualism versus pluralism’:

‘We need to be conscious that, unlike, say PhD students, they are not primarily interested in questions they have about the world leading to an endless stream of further questions ... For them, this kind of
question brings them to the course, and while there are in an
academic sense at least, no right or wrong answers, students need to
end the course with knowledge and skills they can activate and
operationalize in relation to such questions (hence the importance ...
of properly thought-out learning outcomes).’ (Len)

5.3.8 Summary of the findings relating to analysis of implicit positioning cues

In this section, I presented findings identified through investigating causal reasoning about teaching and learning in these texts as examples of implicit identity positioning. The key finding is increasing complexity in these tutors’ interpretative repertoires as academic teachers. This accords with studies into conceptions of teaching, which propose that less complex conceptions of teaching build forward into more complex accounts of teaching and learning (Åkerlind, 2003; González, 2011). In this study, this process has been demonstrated and the driver identified for this is the iterative nature of writing complementary module assignments, in which earlier learning is integrated into subsequent input and applied to evaluating teaching experiences. This increasing complexity in implicit positioning relates to tutors’ explicit identity positioning, for instance in tutors adopting different identity positions (‘young academic’), or enacting existing identity positions in new ways (‘independent GTA’). Section 5.4 integrates the findings from both section 5.2 and 5.3 to suggest how positioning shifted in broadly similar ways across the tutors in this study.

Before this integrated analysis, it is worth returning to my comment in the introduction to this chapter, which discussed how these tutors’ self-reporting should be treated. In common with discursive approaches to identity, I argued then that
identity is relational (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002), that it serves social goals and so all
interactions have rhetorical, as well as transmissive, goals (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006).
How tutors communicated as academic teachers is therefore seen here to be
constitutive of their identities as academic teachers, since these identities are formed
in interaction (Wetherell, 2001). That these tutors communicated about teaching and
learning in increasingly sophisticated ways as the course progressed is a reflection of
how their identities were shaped by participating in the LSE PGCertHE programme.
This thesis began by noting that for most graduate teaching assistants, longer term
development opportunities are often unavailable. This chapter has demonstrated the
contribution that longer term development opportunities can make to novice tutors’
identity formation.

5.4 Combining findings from investigating explicit and implicit identity
positioning

5.4.1 Providing a basis for comparing positioning cues

So far in Chapter 5, I have presented two main findings from my study. The first of
these was that the tutors in my study moved between identity positions over time
(Section 5.2). While I am not arguing for a ‘lockstepped’ progression, nor a
deterministic model, my thematic analysis does show how all five tutors shifted
identity positions, or realised identity positions differently over time, in broadly similar
ways. This is a shift from ‘idealist’ pre-service and early in-service writing to a more
‘realist’ perspective in response to teaching challenges and experiences. Then as
tutors taught for a second year another shift towards a more ‘independent’ and self-
confident disciplinary teacher position appears in their coursework writing.
The second finding, presented in section 5.3, is that how these tutors explained aspects of teaching and learning also changed over time. This change involved increasing complexity, as a range of elements and perspectives became integrated into their explanations of different aspects of teaching and learning. This shift relates to a ‘legacy effect’ in coursework writing through which tutors’ explanations of aspects of teaching and learning came to include more perspectives and input from the different LSE PGCertHE modules.

While these two findings were presented separately and reflect research into explicit and implicit positioning cues, they are of course not separate. In fact, how tutors explicitly identified themselves as academic teachers intertwines with their interpretative repertoires as represented by how they reasoned about aspects of teaching and learning (Edley, 2001). Table 9 at the end of this section provides an overview of this alignment between explicit and implicit cues. I have organised this contrast between implicit and explicit cues into a chronology that spans the two years. As demonstrated in section 5.2.2.2, these identity positioning shifts were incremental and involved overlaps between positioning cues used by the same tutors in each text. I have therefore broken the two years down into three broad sections.

The first is ‘beginning to teach’. I have included this section because this study has identified the influence of study experiences on expectations going into teaching, as well as the importance of these pre-service expectations on initial teaching practice. The texts involved in the ‘beginning to teach’ stage are TP1 and module 1. The second stage is ‘the experience of teaching’. This stage reflects findings that show how pre-service expectations were often in conflict with the lived experience of in-service realities. This had clear implications for identity positioning in texts written later in the
first year and early in the second year of teaching. Elements of positioning associated with ‘realism’ are present in all text types, but are dominant themes in modules 2 and 4. The third stage is labelled ‘becoming a more experienced teacher’. This label reflects later writing in the second year and themes of confidence and ‘independence’ in acting in the academic teacher role.

In sections 5.4.2–5.4.4 that follow Table 9, I then outline my answer to the research question:

‘How did tutors form identities as academic teachers over their first two years in-service?’
Table 9: Alignment of explicit and implicit identity cues in tutors' writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Explicit identity cues (labelling of self and 'othering')</th>
<th>Implicit identity cues (global themes in reasoning about aspects of teaching and learning – Figure 8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Beginning to teach**   | 'academic insider' and 'idealist' GTA / PGCertHE participant | • Teaching the discipline  
                           |                                                                                               | • Managing participation  
                           |                                                                                               | • Planning and preparing  
                           |                                                                                               | • Student behaviours  
                           |                                                                                               | • Student direction |
| **Early teaching experiences** | 'realist' GTA / PGCertHE participant | • Student diversity  
                           |                                                                                               | • Motivation and student behaviours  
                           |                                                                                               | • Learning theory  
                           |                                                                                               | • Course structures  
                           |                                                                                               | • Student direction  
                           |                                                                                               | • Principles of assessment and feedback  
                           |                                                                                               | • The influence of assessment methods and practice  
                           |                                                                                               | • Learning theory and student motivation  
                           |                                                                                               | • Skills development / student direction |
| **Becoming a more experienced academic teacher** | 'independent' GTA / PGCertHE participant & 'young academic' | • Principles of course design  
                           |                                                                                               | • The influence of course design and delivery  
                           |                                                                                               | • Pedagogic content knowledge  
                           |                                                                                               | • Learning theory and student motivation  
                           |                                                                                               | • Institutional and educational realities |
5.4.2 Beginning to teach

In this study, tutors' expectations about teaching were found to be heavily influenced by their study experiences. This was reflected by the focus on disciplinary knowledge and their study records in early writing (section 5.2.3). This focus provided a basis for values about and initial approaches to teaching and learning within disciplinary, but also tertiary, education. This focus on study also offered tutors legitimacy and fed into their adoption of the role of 'guide' (section 5.2.4.2).

Focus on study experiences, rather than teaching realities, also meant that tutors' pre-service expectations did not include many issues that became central to their explanations of teaching and learning once they gained experience (section 5.2.4.1). Pre-service writing emphasised the importance for teaching of tutor-centric factors such as 'passion and enthusiasm', 'content knowledge' and creating a 'positive atmosphere' (see Figure 4 in section 5.2.3). Rather than reflecting an understanding of the complexity that attends student diversity, a theme present in this early writing, but absent later, is trust in course structures (section 5.2.4.1). Tutors therefore focussed on their role as 'guiding' students in the context of efficient course design and the expected successful engagement of students (section 5.2.4.2). Once these tutors started teaching, they experienced dissonance between these pre-service expectations and their lived experiences of class teaching. This dissonance explains shifting identity positioning away from this 'ideal' starting point.

5.4.3 The experience of teaching

The impact of dissonance between pre-service expectations and in-service realities was very clear in this study. The emergence of the 'realist' enactment of the GTA role
involved discussion of difficulties in implementing teaching on the basis of initial values and expectations (section 5.2.4.3). New issues emerged in tutors' writing, in particular issues relating to student diversity and motivation. The (often negatively presented) impacts of course structures and design also emerged through the PGCertHE tasks of using ‘principles’ derived from educational reading to critique practice on tutors’ courses and in their classes (section 5.2.5.2).

This critique task appears to be an influence on these tutors’ writing and discussion of teaching. However, given that the task requires the combining of teaching experiences with educational reading, it also seems the case that it offered vocabulary for explaining why and how pre-service expectations of strong student engagement weren’t materialising. The result of this dissonance is that tutors’ identity positioning increasingly involved ‘othering’ departmental teaching staff and those students whose behaviours and choices did not accord with their pre-service expectations. With both groups, tutors made claims to greater commitment to (and knowledge and ability in) teaching and learning in the discipline (such as with the quotes in section 5.2.4.2).

A second feature of tutors’ first year explanations of aspects of teaching and learning is that they tended to privilege themselves and their own actions. However, challenges to tutors’ sense of control over students appear to have driven changing understandings of teaching and learning. In module 1 writing on small group teaching, a key theme was direction of students to cause them to learn. Focus therefore was on structuring classes, the use of tasks and design of materials and on interactional strategies, such as challenging students through Socratic questioning (section 5.3.4). Module 2 writing was intended to raise tutors’ awareness of student diversity and shift their focus away from themselves. In practice however, many issues tutors raised
related to teaching decisions on course structures or practices, and the majority of solutions offered related to the tutors’ own actions (section 5.3.5). This emphasis occurred alongside espoused commitment to student-centred approaches to teaching. Where there was a shift in module 2 writing, this was in recognising that the control sought in module 1 texts was not straightforward given awareness of new issues such as skills deficits, the unfamiliarity of academic study and variable motivation (sections 5.2.4.3 and 5.2.5.2).

5.4.4 Becoming a more experienced academic teacher

The tutors in this study gradually emerged from a ‘realist’ enactment of the GTA role towards identity positions associated with confidence and competence as disciplinary teachers. What I have identified as the ‘independent GTA / PGCertHE participant’ and ‘young academic’ identity positions involve claims that justify tutors’ own judgement, values and principles based on a mix of experience and theoretical underpinnings (sections 5.2.4.4 and 5.2.5.3). This justification often took the form of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) built up through reflection on traditions of disciplinary teaching, as well as practices and ways of doing (section 5.2.6). This content knowledge was explicitly aligned to tutors’ values as academic teachers (often the same values as in pre-service writing). This combination of knowledge and beliefs was then used to justify tutors making their own choices and claims to competence in encouraging student learning or in managing or designing teaching situations effectively (such as with the quotes in section 5.3.7).

A second feature of tutors’ second year explanations of aspects of teaching and learning was that they focussed far more on learning, rather than just teaching. This
shift appears a result of experiencing difficulties with implementing their 'ideal' versions of teaching and learning (sections 5.2.4 and 5.2.5). The key theme here was of tutors' awareness of the limits of their control over their students' learning. This seems to have encouraged tutors to focus on their students' learning environments, structures and actions (an example being the quote from Lauren in section 5.2.4.4). Tutors' explanations of aspects of teaching and learning that are present in later writing therefore include far more disciplinary pedagogical content knowledge (section 5.2.5.3). This develops the influence of disciplinary 'ways of thinking and doing' and awareness of an increasing range of students' experiences and approaches to learning (section 5.3.7). Tutors' own life experiences, moving as they were towards completion of PhDs, seem relevant to this disciplinary 'big picture'. The integration of learning theory and other elements of PGCertHE input into tutors' interpretative repertoires for teaching and learning also influences this focus on learning, rather than teaching (section 5.2.6).

A final observation worth making relates to the influence of LSE PGCertHE assignment writing itself. The second year PGCertHE assignments asked tutors to think at a more systemic level, about assessment and course design. These topics seem to have had an influence on tutors starting to think above the level of their classes and themselves. An interesting point though is that the first year module 2 on student learning was also intended to encourage tutors to think beyond their own actions as teachers. However, this was largely not the case in their writing (section 5.3.5). This suggests that initial focus on self and one's own actions is a relatively strong impulse for novice academic teachers. During a second year of teaching though, these tutors more readily explained learning in terms of learning, and placed students' actions within the context
of educational systems, rather than in terms of their own teaching (sections 5.3.6 and 5.3.7). This higher level of focus seems to relate to their growing confidence and experience as teachers.
Chapter 6 – Implications of the study

6.1 Tutors’ formation of identities as academic teachers

This chapter discusses the findings presented in chapter 5 in four ways. Firstly it places these findings in the context of existing research into teacher development in higher education. Secondly, I discuss the implications of these findings for the design and continued delivery of the LSE PGCertHE and then for teacher development work with graduate teaching assistants more generally. Finally, I discuss the dissemination of these findings and further research plans.

6.2 Statement of key findings and how this complements existing research

This section is organised around the chronology introduced in section 5.4. In this chronology, findings were presented in terms of how tutors began teaching, then what impact actual teaching experiences had on identity formation as academic teachers. Finally, the third stage outlines how these tutors’ identity positioning shifted as they gained more experience and encountered more ideas and input on the LSE PGCertHE.

6.2.1 Findings related to ‘beginning to teach’

In this study, I have presented two findings that relate to how these tutors began their teaching careers. The first is the importance they placed on study experiences as a frame of reference and the basis for their expectations about teaching. The second is how these expectations did not match up well to tutors’ lived experience of teaching.
The first finding has considerable support in other studies researching teacher development. This continuity between study and initial teaching experiences seems to relate to the notion of 'identity trajectory' (McAlpine & Lucas, 2011) and the consistency built into identity through a coherent 'backstory' of self. This link to a student past (or present) described in this study as the 'academic insider' identity position is also present in studies across the developmental stage literature (Boice, 1992; Kugel, 1993; Staton & Darling, 1989). This identity position is similar to the 'senior student' stage (Nyquist & Wulff, 1996), in particular through the metaphor of being a 'guide'. What is new in this study is identifying how tutors used reference to study experiences as a source of legitimacy for themselves as academic teachers (section 5.2.3).

The second finding of this study that relates to the 'beginning to teach' phase is that tutors' pre-service expectations did not include many issues that became central to their explanations of teaching and learning once they gained experience. In particular, tutors expected their courses to have benign effects on student learning. Also, they expected their students to be engaged and to behave in broadly similar ways to how they had studied when younger. Their own role as 'guide' was based on these two assumptions. This focus on 'guidance' and 'student direction' is similar to intermediate or transitional positions in CoTs hierarchies (Kember, 1997). For instance, tutors' focus has been found elsewhere to be on the teacher's role as 'building' knowledge (Fox, 1983). This building metaphor is present in pre-service writing in this study. As a good example, Kate's TP1 writing on her classes talks about:

'...bridge between ... forum ... build ... linkages ...support ...'
The common metaphor in this early writing of ‘guiding’ is also redolent of findings such as a ‘shaping theory of teaching’ (Dall’Alba, 1991) or ‘helping students develop expertise’ (Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001). There also seem to be parallels with student-directing positions also identified as transitional (Van Driel, et al., 1997). As findings in the next section show, this case study offers an illustration of how tutors moved to incorporate these ‘less complex’ conceptions of teaching into increasingly complex conceptions of learning as hinging on students’ agency. This shift was a response to the perceived failure of their expectation of serving as an academic ‘guide’. Such an illustration is rare in this literature and is the basis for calls to conduct longitudinal studies into teacher development (González, 2011).

6.2.2 Findings related to ‘the experience of teaching’

Section 5.4.3 presents two findings relating to tutors’ earlier experiences of teaching. The first is that the dissonance between pre-service expectations and the lived reality of teaching led to a shift in identity positioning. The second finding is that tutors’ main focus in their first year was on themselves and their own actions as teachers.

The impact of dissonance between pre-service expectations and in-service realities was very clear in this study. This impact of disappointed expectations is also found to be influential in other research into teacher and researcher development (Austin, 2010; Clegg, 2008; McAlpine & Lucas, 2011). This impact has been traced in terms of alienation at existing departmental arrangements (Butterwick & Dawson, 2005; Morley, 2003; Smith, 2010) and isolation (Remmik & Karm, 2009; Sadler, 2008). Further, the impact on identity of challenging interactions with students is also found in other developmental research (Entwistle & Walker, 2000; Kugel, 1993; Pickering,
Similarly, research into the wider doctoral experience has found unfulfilled expectations leading to ‘othering’ of supervisors and those associated with the institution or research process (Nettles & Millett, 2006; Rice, et al., 2000). This research offers a case study of the impact of this sense of disappointment. However, what is new is that this study demonstrates how the impact of this disappointment unfolded as a process of shifting identity positioning. Section 5.2, presents this movement in terms of the enactment and explicit positioning of the ‘idealist’ and ‘realist’ ‘GTA’ and ‘PGCertHE participant’ roles.

In the developmental stage literature, dissonance is also seen as a driver for moving between stages. There are similarities therefore between the ‘realist’ positioning of these tutors and the ‘colleague in training’ stage identified by TAs’ concerns and a critical attitude to authority (Nyquist & Wulff, 1996). What is different however from developmental stage models, such as Kugel’s explanation of moving beyond the ‘focus on self’ opening stage (1993), is that rather than looking to themselves and their own anxieties alone, the tutors in this study also responded to the perceived failure of educational provision around them. This may well reflect the influence of the LSE PGCertHE coursework tasks, which offered them input and asked them to think about these structures. The TAs in the US studies were not part of long-term developmental programmes. Either way, this study and those from the US, as well as other studies taking a longitudinal perspective on developing as an academic teacher (Parpala & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2007; Sadler, 2008), point to dissonance as a driver of a process of change. This case study provides a depiction of this process within the context of learning to teach in a research intensive UK HEI, while also participating on a PGCertHE course.
The second finding in this section is that tutors principally focussed on themselves in their earlier writing. This focus on self is also present in other research traditions. Limited range of awareness seems redolent of less complex positions in nested hierarchies of conceptions of teaching (González, 2011; Kember, 1997). Also, the concern for legitimacy that seems to influence this focus on self is a theme common to this study and a range of others (Entwistle & Walker, 2000; Fuller, 1969; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997).

What is interesting in this study’s findings of this process is the emerging notions of difficulty and dissonance between principles and practice. This seems associated with changed understandings of teaching and learning that affected how these tutors enacted their identities as academic teachers. Dissonance between how tutors describe teaching, and what they actually do in class, has been recognised for decades (and is discussed in section 2.3.4). The classic example is the difference between ‘espoused theories of action’ and ‘theories in use’ (Argyris & Schon, 1974). More recent studies have developed this distinction between ‘working’ and ‘ideal’ conceptions of teaching (Samuelowicz & Bain, 1992).

The interaction between what tutors would like to do, and what they feel able to do in their actual teaching, appears important to the changing explanations of teaching and learning found in this study and elsewhere (Norton, et al., 2005). This study appears to contribute to this notion through charting how ‘ideal’ versions of teaching and learning interacted with and became subsumed within more ‘realistic’ or ‘working’ versions. Over time, this more complex, ‘independent’ positioning predicated on pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) more successfully combined principle and pragmatism, as the next section discusses.
6.2.3 Findings related to ‘becoming a more experienced teacher’

Section 5.4.4 presents three overlapping findings from these tutors’ later identity positioning. The first of these was that tutors’ later identity claims were of ‘independence’ and competence. Second, I found that tutors’ later writing focussed more on learning, than on tutors’ own teaching. Finally, the third finding was the influence the LSE PGCertHE seems to have had on the first two findings of greater self-efficacy and focus on students.

Other studies investigating the impact of development courses also point to self-efficacy as a positive outcome (Butcher & Stoncel, 2012; Postareff, et al., 2007) and self-efficacy itself has been argued to be influential in identity formation (Remmik, et al., 2011; Ruth & Naidoo, 2012). The development of this kind of confidence across all tutors appears a key contribution to their formation of identities as academic teachers.

In this study, increasing self-efficacy relates to the development of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). There are parallels therefore with studies that also find the development over time of ‘experiential learning’ (McAlpine & Weston, 2000), and ‘craft knowledge’ (Van Driel, et al., 1997). In particular though, the writing in these tutors’ module 5 assignments (analysed in section 5.3.7) is similar to Trigwell & Shale’s (2004) notion of ‘practice-based scholarship’. This is because the integration of educational theory and teaching practice becomes increasingly seamless (section 5.2.5.3). In this study, this development has been traced over time through the ‘legacy effect’ evident from the thematic analysis conducted with successive text types (section 5.3).
Studies investigating the impacts of participation on developmental courses have also found that length of course is important (Postareff, et al., 2007, 2008). These courses entail iterative consideration of teaching and learning, while inputting new ideas and perspectives. The ‘legacy effect’ of coursework writing presented in section 5.3 offers a demonstration of how this extended process achieves the outcomes found in other (much larger) studies that used pre- and post-testing (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Hanbury, et al., 2008). The ‘independent’ identity positioning found in this longitudinal study is consistent with the shifts towards ‘conceptual change – student-focussed’ (CCSF) positions in the ATI that these studies have found (Stes, et al., 2010). This shift towards focus on students has been found to be particularly marked following a second year of development credits (Postareff, et al., 2008). The ‘legacy effect’ identified in this study offers an explanatory account for this claim that duration is an important factor for the impact of developmental programmes.

In addition to these studies of development programmes, other literatures on teacher development also identify increasing awareness of student learning. The ‘junior colleague’ position identified in studies in the developmental stage literature has the characteristic of focus on the impacts of teaching on student learning (Nyquist & Wulff, 1996). Studies on the PhD journey end with an ‘opening out of awareness’ (Austin, 2010; Rice, et al., 2000). Similarly, ‘expanding awareness’ is also a finding of studies into how conceptions of teaching might relate (Åkerlind, 2003), with less complex understandings of teaching and learning providing foundations for more complex, later conceptions (Carnell, 2007; González, 2011). This longitudinal study contributes to this research by charting the process of accretion of perspectives on teaching and learning.
demonstrated in the 'independent GTA / PGCertHE participant' and 'young academic' identity positions in sections 5.2.4-6 and through the 'legacy effect' in section 5.3.

### 6.3 Implications on the design of the LSE PGCertHE course

There are two clear conclusions that I will apply to the LSE PGCertHE course as a result of conducting this study. The first is to keep the beginning and end of the programme intact. The finding relating to dissonance between pre-service expectations and teaching realities seems to offer support for the initial focus in the LSE PGCertHE course on 'survival' through input on class management and structuring teaching in module 1. While the flow of modules on the LSE PGCertHE was designed to shift tutors' focus from themselves to their students, initial PGCertHE input and efforts should not be trying to shift what is likely to be an inevitable initial focus on self as a new academic teacher (Entwistle & Walker, 2000; Fuller, 1969; Nyquist & Wulff, 1996).

As mentioned, a design principle of the LSE PGCertHE could be summarised as seeking to encourage the emergence of what I have termed 'young academic' identity positions. In line with this aim, the LSE PGCertHE was explicitly designed to encourage tutors to look beyond themselves and consider their students' learning. The assignments are complementary, as best demonstrated by the final assignment being on course design. This assignment is used to encourage participants to draw together their learning on the two years of the course. Many development programmes start with course design as a way of introducing the different aspects of teaching and learning in a coherent way. However, this study shows the value of using course design as a concluding topic, since this encourages the integration of earlier learning.
A change I will make after discovering the ‘legacy effect’ presented in section 5.3, is that I will in future require participants to explicitly reflect on their previous coursework as they go through the course. This seems a way of having participants appreciate the growing complexity and command that their own ‘expanding awareness’ (Åkerlind, 2003) of teaching and learning. The ‘legacy effect’ also seems to be an argument for providing continued access to the course for all those who engage in teaching at LSE (Postareff, et al., 2008).

6.4 Implications on development work with GTAs more generally

As discussed in section 3.2, a case study approach was chosen because of the importance context has on identity formation (Clegg, 2005). In keeping with this approach, it is wise to be careful in offering pronouncements to other contexts. However, there are findings here which relate to experiences common to all graduate teaching assistants. The first is that these GTAs will have pre-service expectations, and these will influence how they start teaching. The second is that the reality of teaching will be new and, in all likelihood, will differ from expectations. Finally, these GTAs will gain experience over time as they teach. This experience is likely to allow them to look beyond their own actions, as their command of their teaching situations improves.

Given the first two points, one observation that seems justified is the importance of induction to graduate teaching roles. This study has found that pre-service expectations often conflicted with the lived experience of teaching on departmental courses (Austin, 2010). This suggests that institutions could usefully place emphasis on an induction process that draws lessons from study in the discipline, but also offers accurate expectations of teaching realities (Park, 2004).
involve mentoring, especially from experienced GTAs (Nettles & Millett, 2006). While it would not be possible to take away the ‘shock’ of starting to teach completely, providing novice GTAs with accurate expectations and a clear plan for how to structure their teaching might limit the extent of dissonance experienced.

After induction, when GTAs are gaining experience as teachers, ongoing developmental opportunities also seem valuable. This may take the form of a recognised award such as the LSE PGCertHE, and this study shows that this would be beneficial. If a recognised qualification is not the preferred option, then it seems valuable to provide a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) within which these GTAs can ‘talk themselves into’ their identities (Davies & Harre, 1990). This community would offer an opportunity to reflect on teaching experiences and would usefully couch these in a positive light to encourage the emergence of the ‘young academic’ identity position in these aspiring academics. Following Coffey & Gibbs (2002), but also studies such as Kugel (1993), these groups would involve further training to build repertoires of teaching and learning activities, address new roles as GTAs encounter them (such as marking) and build teaching observation into their practice. These activities would offer GTAs choices in how they could enact their identities as academic teachers.

### 6.5 Further research

The introduction of psychological theory and discourse analysis complements existing theory underpinning research into academic identities. I published an article introducing this theory and method in the International Journal for Academic Development (IJAD) special edition on academic identities (McLean, 2012) and
presented at the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (ISSOTL) conference in Liverpool. With more developed findings, I am presenting at the Academic Identities Conference in Durham in July 2014. I also plan two new articles from this thesis. The first would be to present findings on the impact on identity formation of the dissonance between pre-service expectations and early teaching experiences. This seems to complement findings in the academic identities literature related to the experiences of aspiring academics (Austin, 2010; McAlpine & Lucas, 2011). A second article would be a discussion of whether positions in the conceptions of teaching studies are relational. This case study, and in particular the ‘legacy effect’ I have identified, seem to be a contribution to this debate.

I would also like to develop my research further to explore the impacts of taking on the GTA role and of PGCertHE participation. Mine is a small scale, longitudinal study. Number of tutors is traded against the detailed analysis of each tutor’s writing over the course of their first two years in-service. That these 5 tutors had broadly similar shifts in their identity positioning begs the question of how generalisable such a finding can be. While generalisation was not the purpose of this study, it is also the case that the experiences that seem influential in these tutors’ development are general across those taking on the GTA role. These experiences are the dissonance between expectations and lived experiences of teaching. Also, the difference between first and second year perspectives on teaching as greater experience informs practice.

Given these commonalities in learning to teach, taking a broader view with more participants and different PGCertHE course experiences within different institutions is an intriguing prospect. I have 11 more portfolios from more recent LSE PGCertHE graduates that meet my selection criteria. I will conduct the same analysis with them.
as a next step. This will allow me to expand the claims made in this thesis. After this, I would like to work with another researcher with access to PGCertHE coursework from another course. The analysis I have conducted is labour intensive and detailed, offering as it does individualised findings for tutors that are consistent with their teaching contexts. Still, it would be interesting to offer wider reference to this approach, while remaining aware of the difficulties associated with trying to do this at too high a level of analysis (Wulff, et al., 2004).


Valsiner, J. (2002). Forms of dialogical relations and semiotic autoregulation within the self. Theory & Psychology, 12(2), 251-265.


Appendix

This appendix offers a brief illustration of the paper-based coding used during stage 2 of the research, as well as the thematic analysis used during stage 3. These stages are summarised in Table 3 in section 4.6. Stage 4 coding is presented in the appropriate figures and tables in the main text.

This appendix contains four items:

*Appendix item 1 – illustrative example of initial coding for Kate’s TP1 text*

*Appendix item 2 – illustrative example of summarising the initial coding for Kate’s TP1 text*

*Appendix item 3 – illustrative example of thematic analysis of explicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1*

*Appendix item 4 – illustrative example of thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1*

**Appendix items 1 and 2 – initial coding for Kate’s TP1 text**

This illustrative example shows the implementation of the coding frame discussed in section 4.6.1. Appendix item 1 is the first page of Kate’s TP1 text. It reflects the instructions discussed in section 4.2.1. This example shows how the discursive practices outlined in section 4.6.1 were implemented in analysing the text. The numbers on the right-hand margin and the highlighting are from an earlier exploratory
approach to discourse analysis. This experience highlighted the need to combine discourse and thematic analyses. This is discussed in section 3.5.

Appendix item 2 then shows how I summarised the coded items for this text. At the top of the page are the instances of self-labelling (coded with ‘L’ plus number), as well as instances of ‘othering’ (coded with an ‘O’ plus number). For these instances of explicit identity positioning, I also captured the frames of reference used with each in the text (coded as ‘F’ plus number and then linked to identity positions at the top of the page.) The frames are both the noun phrase used and detail, as presented in Table 5 in section 4.6.3.1 for the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position that Kate explicitly claimed.

In the lower half of the page beneath the coding for explicit identity claims, is the coding of causal reasoning statements that make implicit identity claims, as discussed in section 4.6.1.2. In this text, I identified 37 causal statements and captured these for later thematic analysis. These statements were separated into the sections of the TP1 document from which they came. This division is then reflected in the thematic analysis for this document presented in appendix item 4.
Developing Teaching Practice

Higher education in general encourages the pursuit of knowledge and personal development. In my opinion, the discipline of International Relations (IR) is unique in its approach to inspiring the pursuit of knowledge because undertaking the discipline's subject matter at a higher education level may also result in a further development of IR theory through individual contributions. The advancement of IR theory as well as widening the scope of empirical IR studies may consequently affect the way that others (in academia and outside of it) view the world in which we live. Having an influence in changing macro-structure paradigms about how the world works through lecture series, research, publications, conference presentations, etc., can be a product of pursuing IR at the higher education level.

The classes I will teach this year form a part of the course in International Security. They act as a bridge between the lectures (in which there is no time for open discussion) and students' independent study. The classes are a forum to express ideas and to clarify any grey areas that have come out of the topics raised in the lectures. By the end of the year students should be able to build supported arguments and use key concepts and terms related to the subject. Students should also be able to identify broader linkages in the subject and be able to connect it back to the broader IR literature on theory and security. In doing so, students will have built on the ability to contribute both criticisms as well as fresh ideas to the discipline.

In helping to achieve these goals, I will act as a discussion facilitator as well as a point of guidance and support. In guiding the students through the often complex topics in a discussion-oriented, problem-based environment, I will try to encourage independent thinking as well as the development of broader links. In doing so I seek to support deep learning as well as to give students confidence in expressing their ideas.

Although I am not an experienced teacher, I am very passionate about higher education in general. My principal motivation for becoming a tutor (and some day a University professor) is the prospect of instilling the type of passion in students that some of my professors have instilled in me. Being immersed in an academic environment helps to satisfy a curiosity about the world that has thus far played an important role in my daily undertakings. It is this curiosity that I seek to cultivate in others.

My time doing my PhD is my first experience in a British higher education institution (I did my Undergraduate degree in Canada and my Masters in Austria). From my experiences, I find the British and Canadian systems quite similar. Two main reasons for this similarity are:

Firstly, they both encourage self-directed learning. Classes are seminar format, and the onus is on the student to keep up with their daily student-related duties as well as to keep track of their overall progress in their pursuit of their degree. Secondly, student-tutor relationships are relatively informal; students are encouraged to feel comfortable in exploring different ideas, with their tutors rather than just soaking up their tutors' points of views.

For me, good teaching involves being passionate about the subject so as to inspire students to keep up with their readings and contribute to discussion. This includes interaction with students, from mere eye-contact to having an open-door policy in your office. The bad teaching that I have come across involves tutors who are out of touch with their students. Their lectures are dry (some even involved reading directly from completed lecture scripts) and do not allow for class discussion (some did not even look up from aforementioned scripts).

My goal in this programme is to become a confident teacher. I am a confident person to begin with, and I want to translate this quality to my teaching. I want to explore different methods of teaching that will help me bring out the interesting parts of subjects that can otherwise be cumbersome and tedious.
Appendix item 2 – illustrative example of summarising the initial coding of Kate’s TP1 text
Appendix item 3 – thematic analysis of explicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1

This illustrative example shows how I grouped the frames of reference identified in appendix item 2 with the identity positions explicitly adopted by Kate in this text. This grouping was iterative and this example is the result of intermediate attempts to identify themes. This iterative process is discussed in section 4.6.3.

In appendix item 3, all the identity positions Kate claimed are included, since some frames of reference were associated with more than one position. An example of this is the theme of ‘advancing the discipline’ which appeared with claims to be both a successful IR ‘student’ and an IR ‘GTA’. The dotted line captures this shared reference, however I grouped ‘advancing the discipline’ with the ‘GTA’ identity position as this was the predominant association in the text.

In stage 4 of the analysis, the themes identified in this example were then combined with those found for the other tutors. How I did this is discussed in section 4.6.4. The findings for this next stage of analysis are presented in Figure 4 in section 5.2.3 on the ‘academic insider’ identity position, and in Figure 5 in section 5.2.4 on the ‘GTA’ identity position. Figure 6 in section 5.2.5 presents this stage 4 analysis for the ‘PGCertHE participant’ identity position.
Appendix item 3 – illustrative example of thematic analysis of explicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1
Appendix item 4 – thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1

This illustrative example shows how I grouped causal reasoning statements for this text by section and established organising themes for these sections for Kate. As with analysis for explicit cues, this thematic analysis was iterative. The example in item 4 is the result of intermediate attempts to capture basic themes into distinct but inclusive organising themes. This analytical process is discussed in section 4.6.3.2.

In stage 4 of the research process, the organising themes established here were then combined with those of other tutors for TP1. How I did this is discussed in section 4.6.4. The combined thematic analysis is presented in Figure 9 in section 5.3.3, which discusses the themes identified across tutors for this text.
Appendix item 4 – illustrative example of thematic analysis of implicit positioning cues in Kate’s TP1

self-directed learning: (15) use of闲暇 hours

(8) classes are 'busy' enough, but guide sth: (12) use self-directed learning

(2) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(9) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(5) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(7) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(1) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(2) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(1) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(1) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(1) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(1) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(1) classes as 'busy' but also (7) should

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(1) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

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(1) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(9) classes: Are there enough challenges?

(2) classes: Are there enough difficulties?

(1) classes: Are there enough difficulties?