

Proposal for Confirmation of Candidature

The professional identities of university tutors working in mass education provision: A phenomenological narrative approach

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CONTENTS

CANDIDATE DETAILS	2
INTRODUCTION	5
Statement of problem.....	5
Research questions	5
Background / Context	6
Literature review: Overview.....	6
Synopsis of methodologies and methods.....	7
Document structure.....	7
1. PRELIMINARY REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	9
Statement of the problem: The changing face of higher education.....	9
Connection to research questions	9
Trend: Massification.....	9
The drivers of massification.....	10
Driver 1: Globalisation.....	11
<i>Globalisation as an imprecise term.....</i>	11
<i>Convergence / divergence theories</i>	11
<i>Network society / Information society</i>	12
<i>Globalisation perspectives in summary.....</i>	12
<i>Globalisation and higher education in New Zealand: a Western example.....</i>	12
Driver 2: Neoliberalism and the education sector	13
<i>A site of struggle and compromise</i>	13
<i>Managerialism: Neoliberalism at the institutional level.....</i>	14
<i>Academic capitalism: Making money from academic work</i>	15
<i>Performativity culture – the dynamics of performativity and fabrication.....</i>	15
Driver 3: Knowledge economy.....	16
<i>Widening participation</i>	16
<i>Lifelong learning.....</i>	17
Connecting the impacts of massification to the changes to academic work	17
General changes to academic work and demographics.....	18
<i>Academic labour is being reconfigured.....</i>	18
<i>Casualisation</i>	18
<i>Increasingly high enrolments in the first year</i>	19
Perceived changes to identity and the taxonomic conundrum: professional versus academic versus teacher identity	22
<i>Identity flux in the academic sphere.....</i>	22
<i>The taxonomic conundrum.....</i>	24

<i>The roles and professional identities of tutors</i>	24
What is a tutor?	24
Imposed pedagogy and tutor identity	27
Clash of the pedagogies	28
Summary: Tutor identity formation in the modern higher education sector.....	29
2. THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORKS	30
Introduction	30
Reiteration of the proposed research questions	30
Researcher positional considerations	30
Ontological and epistemological position	30
Position as an insider.....	31
Theoretical frameworks underpinning the research methodology	32
Phenomenology—philosophical underpinnings.....	32
Iipseity: Self and identity, in brief.....	33
Narrative Inquiry	33
3. RESEARCH DESIGN	35
Introduction	35
Participant recruitment and related considerations.....	35
Purposive sampling: Inclusion criteria.....	35
Selection criteria.....	35
Data storage, access, and destruction considerations.....	39
Dissemination of results.....	39
Summary of ethical considerations.....	39
Partnership.....	39
Participation	39
Protection.....	40
Conflict of interest statement.....	40
Risk minimisation	40
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	41
REFERENCES	42
GLOSSARY	59

INTRODUCTION

Statement of problem

As a New Zealand university lecturer, who previously held the role of a full-time tutor, teaching on a high-enrolment first-year course (1600 enrolled in the first semester), I identified a need for deeper understanding of tutor identity, which is the principal objective of my proposed investigation. Additionally, I also aim to investigate whether phenomena, such as the concept of *imposed pedagogy* (this concept will be explained in detail in the literature review section), impacts tutor identity. A survey of the literature has revealed that there is no universal definition of a *university tutor*, and that roles and titles vary between both countries and between institutions within countries, with much interchanging of nomenclature. However, for the purposes of this research, a tutor is defined as an individual employed to facilitate tutorials / workshops / laboratory classes at tertiary institutions (see Glossary). Employment varies from part-time casual to full-time permanent contracts. In this research, I consider tutors as academic staff (in contrast to professional/allied staff), while recognising they are at a lower level in the academic strata. The literature review to follow will discuss the differences in terminology in greater detail.

The professional identities of teaching staff in higher education requires further exploration in the context of teaching very large courses (see Glossary) where pressures on academics are compounded (McInnis, 2000). This is especially important given that literature on changing academic context often focuses on the relationship between teaching and research requirements or capability. While the literature suggests a growing interest in identity construction as a way for understanding the self (Slay & Smith, 2011), there is a paucity of in-depth research into tutor identity, particularly on those working in the context of high-enrolment undergraduate, first-year courses. In addition, while students are given opportunities to evaluate their courses and learning engagement with teachers, fewer opportunities are afforded to teaching staff, with regard to being heard, especially for teaching assistants or tutors (Wilkinson, 1996). An understanding of one's professional identity is essential as it not only promotes positive outcomes in terms of practice, but also enhances resilience (Becker, 2013).

Facilitating the successful teaching and learning of first-year students requires buy-in from all staff involved, in terms of understanding the complex characteristics of the cohort, and meeting student needs (Kift, Nelson & Clarke, 2010; Johnstone, 2010). It has also been argued that because of these complexities, first-year teaching should be recognised as a specialised academic activity (Johnstone, 2010). A review of the literature has indicated that there is a knowledge gap with respect to research into tutor identities in the aforementioned context, and at this point in time, no narrative-based, in-depth studies have been conducted that focus solely on the lived experience of these particular academic staff and their identity constructs within this specific context. The purpose of the proposed research is to help to fill this gap with new knowledge and understanding and I propose that the following research questions will permit this exploration.

Research questions

Key research question: How can the lived experiences of university tutors provide insight into their professional identities and practice in the context of teaching in large, first-year, undergraduate classes?

Sub-questions:

- a. How do tutors (working within this context) describe their professional identity and articulate their personal pedagogies?
- b. How do tutors from different institutions differ in their narratives of identity and attitudes to their work?
- c. What elements of identity construction emerge as important for this group?
- d. How do tutor narratives help to make sense of the challenges associated with teaching large, diverse cohorts of first-year students?
- e. How do tutors experience 'imposed pedagogy'?

Background / Context

Many university tutors are employed to teach on introductory, compulsory, undergraduate courses that enrol very high numbers of new students comprising diverse cohorts of individuals who have not yet moved into their intended disciplines. In my experience as a previous full-time tutor, large, heterogeneous cohorts often equate to high teaching loads and the requirement to manage classes with high enrolments of new students who arrive with a unique set of educational and personal needs. I recognise, however, that across different institutions that changes to student numbers are viewed across decades, rather than semester by semester. Secondly, I also acknowledge that while 1000 students may be viewed as a large cohort in some institutions, in others 100 may be viewed as thus. Additionally, throughout this document, I refer to an increasing *student diversity* or *heterogeneous cohorts*. While some literature speaks to diversity solely in terms of ethnicity (e.g. Rothman, Lipset, & Nevitte, 2003) when I refer to it, I am speaking of diversity in terms of culture and ethnicity, varying ages and roles across the lifespan, as well as varying socio-economic levels. These are factors that I have observed as demonstrating increasing variety over the past 10 years as a teacher in higher education.

Researchers have established that the first year of tertiary-level study is particularly challenging for undergraduate students (Kift, Nelson & Clarke, 2010; Westberry, 2011; Zepke, Leach & Butler, 2008). Successful management of these students requires the enactment of specially designed curricula that mediate effective teaching, learning and support of heterogeneous groups of students entering university study for the first time; an approach known as transition pedagogy (Kift, Nelson & Clarke, 2010). Transition pedagogy recognises the unique needs of transitioning students; undergraduates who are commencing university study after finishing school, or returning to study as mature students following time in the workforce or at home as parents or caregivers. Studies have shown that these students are particularly vulnerable to destabilising influences (financial, emotional, and social) and given these characteristics are most likely to fail at this time when engagement and retention is critical (Perry, 1999; Krause & Coates, 2008; Zepke et al., 2008; Tinto, 2006–2007). Tinto (1993) observed that these students not only have to learn to adapt academically but also socially to a new and increasingly diverse community hence the need to effectively implement special curricula to ensure transition is successful. It is consequently the complex role of the university tutor to effectively enable these teaching and learning activities (Rodríguez-Gómez & Soledad Ibarra-Sáiz, 2015) and to provide a 'safe space' for students to unpack lecture theory, work through challenges, tensions, and other inevitable anxieties that arise in the quest for undergraduate success. Working alongside tutors who may concurrently be dealing with their transition into an academic role. The tutor plays a critical face-to-face, hands-on role in supporting and scaffolding first-year students through this critical stage; in facilitating learning by providing a platform between learner knowledge and understanding (Joyes, 2008).

Research has reported that an enhanced understanding of the nature of short-term academic work (i.e. for those employed on casual or short-term contracts) needs to be better understood, overall, as little is known about the sessional workforce in Australia in particular in terms of population-level data in which to base findings upon (Bexley, James & Arkoudis, 2011). Similarly, New Zealand researchers Sutherland, Wilson and Williams (2013) identified the importance of managers and heads of schools to know their staff and that early career academics themselves need to know their strengths and needs. They recommended that alongside training and professional development needs that a personal process should be allowed to occur that permits these individuals time to think about their own academic aspirations, goals and strengths. They also determined the importance for all academics, including early-career individuals, to tell their stories of success. In particular they argued for more experienced academics to share their stories with those emergent academics. This argument, in particular, contributes to my rationale for conducting research that illuminates tutors stories, and to contribute new knowledge to this field.

Literature review: Overview

It is argued that some of the factors increasing pressure on the academic profession include the growing demands of massification (the phenomenon of mass higher education), and the drivers that underpin it (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010). In order to provide background to the changing workplace conditions in higher education, the literature review firstly discusses the trend of burgeoning enrolments and the trend of massification with regard to the growth of the higher education sector. Secondly, three selected forces, or drivers that researchers argue have contributed to this trend will be reviewed and discussed in relation to the proposed study. The final sections of the review will examine the perceived impacts that these trends have had on academic staff teaching first-year students. In seeking to define and explain the massification of the higher education sector, scholars generally refer to the diversification and expansion of tertiary education (Johnston, 2010). However, it must be noted that massification has not been shown to be directly causal with respect to high enrolment.

Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2010) referred to the massification of higher education, globalisation and the knowledge economy and the advent of information technology as forces that have impelled what is seen as the modern academic revolution; yet each driver or force does not stand alone. I have elected to include: *globalisation*, *neoliberalism* and the *knowledge economy* as the drivers under discussion in this literature review. Globalisation is a widely-used, imprecise term which varies in definition across academic literature but one that is generally used to describe broad global expansion, effecting change, in a variety of contexts such as economics, knowledge, and education (Office of Royal Literature (Thailand) as cited in Luke & Luke, 2000). Secondly, the notion of neoliberalism is also proposed as a potential driver of massification but it is recognised that like globalisation, distilling the term to a simple definition is challenging given the myriad uses and contexts within which it is used. In seeking a general overview of the concept however; neoliberalism, I have adopted the view of Harvey (2005), who viewed it as a specific economic theory, is generally viewed as a free-market economic ideology that seeks to cut taxes, deregulate industry and seeks increased privatisation of government roles to businesses, reducing government expenditure. In this thesis, this definition has been adopted due to its capturing the many elements that are observed as bringing sweeping changes across all strata of the higher education sector. The third driver that will be discussed in the literature review is the knowledge-based economy which, broadly-speaking, focuses on the role that learning, information and technologies can play with respect to financial performance (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 1996).

The proposed research refers to a suggested connection between the trends of massification running in parallel with burgeoning numbers of student enrolments within first-year courses. Therefore, the final sections of the literature review will discuss the perceived changes to the milieu of academic work with discussion centring around the reconfiguration of modern academic labour, increased casualisation rates, impacts on academics' professional identities and the perceived implications for academics working at the coalface of first-year higher education; in many cases, these academics are tutors.

Synopsis of methodologies and methods

In order to better understand the notion of professional identity of university tutors in the aforementioned context, I have elected to recruit tutor participants from universities in New Zealand, Australia and the United Kingdom; westernised, Anglo-Saxon-derived higher education systems with similar policies and practices relating to higher education provision. However, I am also aware that there are differences, therefore comparing and contrasting findings could add value to the results. A narrative approach is proposed as the most suitable method for gathering data on the lived experiences of these participants in order to help illuminate identity constructs. Participants will be asked to journal their experiences of 'being tutors', over time. Following preliminary analysis of these narratives, a follow-up narrative interview may occur for the purposes of unpacking emerging identity constructs and meta-narratives, to seek clarification where needed, and to determine whether perspectives have changed over time.

In terms of analysis of the written narratives and narrative interview texts detailing tutor's professional experiences over a set time period (such as a set semester/trimester), it is envisaged that interpretative analysis will be guided and informed by Ricoeur's Phenomenological Hermeneutic Interpretative Theory with the objective of developing overarching meta-narratives to help reveal lived experience, identity constructs and the meanings tutors make from their experiences. Narratives reveal lived experiences; the text alone expresses a meaning of its own. The narrative tells about one's being in the world and how that world is perceived. Section four of this document will provide a more detailed description of these proposed methods.

My own experiences as an academic working within the context of high enrolment (>1200 enrolled students in a given, common semester), first-year courses forms a valid and valuable basis for the commencement of this investigation, but has both limitations as well as benefits to the research. These considerations will be discussed in greater detail in the methodology section of this document. As a university lecturer who, in the past has worked as a tutor, and works alongside tutors today, I am situated in my chosen research context and as a result, I hold that my personal preconceptions permit me a greater understanding of the phenomena under study; hence the choice to conduct this proposed research by means of an interpretative (hermeneutic), phenomenological approach.

Document structure

The preceding chapters comprise three sections. Section 1 will introduce the reader to a preliminary review of the corpus of literature associated with the proposed topic and an outline of key themes, and how they were

established. Section 2 comprises the proposed theoretical and methodological framework that will guide the study approaches and section 3 will outline the proposed methods and research design. A map to the proposed study approach is also provided here as an overview (Fig. 1).

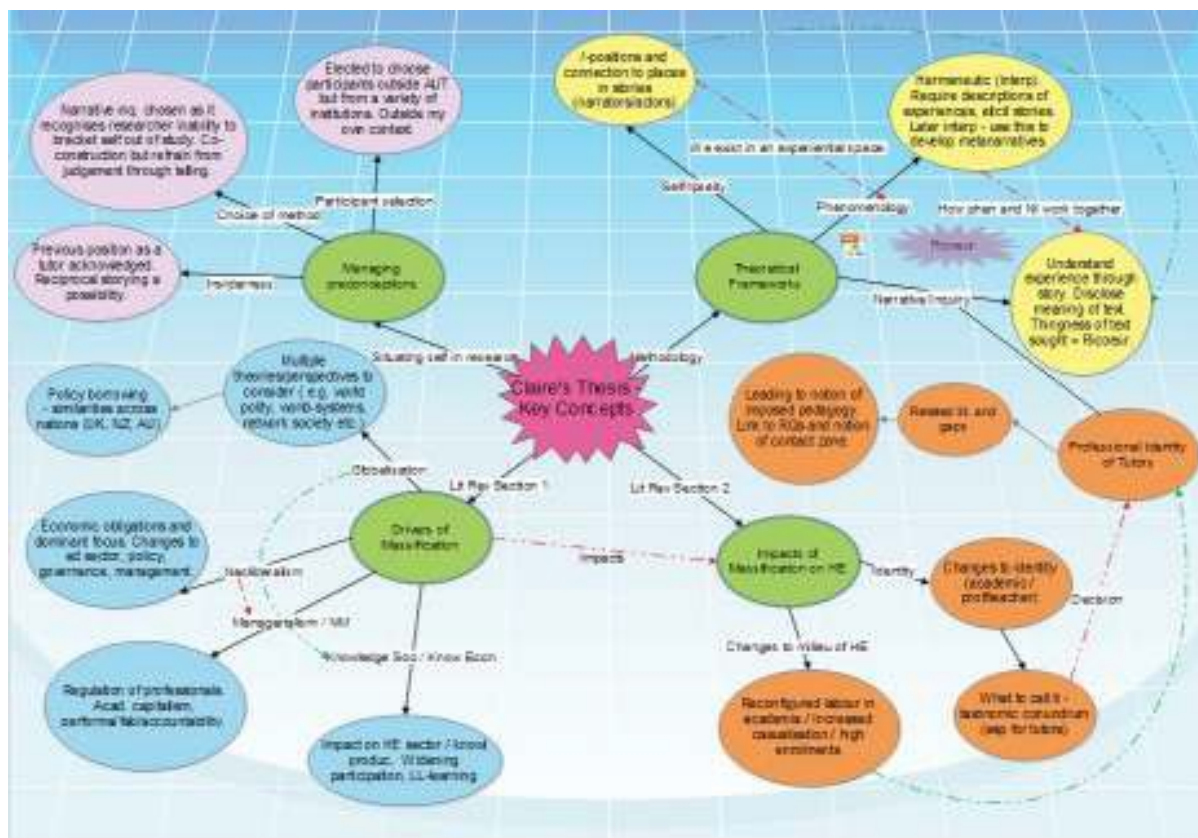


Fig 1: Concept map outlining approach to proposed thesis topic.

1. PRELIMINARY REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Statement of the problem: The changing face of higher education

The quest for the optimal structure for higher education systems, in terms of both equality and diversity, has been a work in progress for the last 50 years (Beerkens-Soo & Vossensteyn, 2009). With respect to the phenomenon of massification of higher education, Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2010) described possible factors that underpin it, including globalisation, the advent of the knowledge society and the importance of research universities within it, and information technology (including distance education)" (p. 30). These factors have each, in various ways and to varying extents impacted the contemporary higher education sector. Taking these forces into consideration, I have elected to review the literature on the trend of massification by summarising these forces into three overarching interrelated drivers within which these factors fit, namely globalisation as mentioned, the inclusion of neoliberalism as an economic driver and discussion around the concept of the knowledge economy. While it is recognised that these drivers are complex, contested and impact society in the broader sense, the following sections of this literature review will highlight some of the characteristics of each driver that have contributed to mass higher education.

Connection to research questions

Key literature will be sequentially discussed to align with the order and key foci of the research questions outlined in the introductory section. Discussion of the literature commences with the trend of massification, the selected forces behind the trend, and its perceived impacts on tutor identities. Selected studies that refer to academic work and academics' (across all hierarchies in academia) professional identities will then be examined, leading to a review of studies specifically relating to university tutors, the key participant group in the proposed research.

Trend: Massification

Higher education in industrialised nations experienced expansion following World War II (Trow, 1972, 1973, 1975, 2000) resulting in a trend of the massification of higher education, a term used by observers to describe the rapid increase in student numbers observed occurring towards the end of the twentieth century (Allais, 2014; Beerkens-Soo & Vossensteyn, 2009; Bryson, 2013; Hil, 2012; Hil, 2014, Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Scott 1995; Teichler, 1998). In non-westernised nations, these trends in increased student numbers have also been observed; for example, in Kenya following the achievement of independence in 1963 (Owuor, 2012) and in China since the 1990s following education reforms associated with marketisation and decentralisation (Liu, 2012; Ngok, 2008).

The 1960s marked an historical, politically-driven transition from one form of higher education (élite – education only for the academically and intellectually superior) to another (mass – education for all people) (after Trow, 1972, 1973) and beyond toward *universal access* (Trow, 1975) and from a "republic of scholars' ideal towards the 'stakeholder university' ideal..." (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2007, p. 477). Bleiklie and Kogan (2007) argued that the latter is where institutional autonomy underpins decision-making by leaders whose objective it is to keep stakeholders happy and where the voice of academics is but one amongst many stakeholders. Stakeholders, in this context, are those whom universities exist to serve, including external parties such as students, funding agencies, society, employers and internal stakeholders including staff, both academic and administrative (Paris, 2003).

During the 1960s, the increase in student numbers in the United Kingdom, in particular, was rapid during the early 1960s but while numbers rose, it is argued that instructional methods and underlying assumptions about these methods did not align with the change (Gibbs & Jenkins, 1992). In response to this, student unrest was reported in many industrialised nations in the late 1960s, due to systematic strain on university administration, finances, instruction, student admission policies and other areas (Beerkens-Soo & Vossensteyn, 2009; Trow, 1972). Trow (1973), following observation of the massification trend, described the issues associated with this transition from élite to mass education in the university sector, noting that such issues were occurring across the world. The crux of this argument was that these problems are due largely to growth and expansion. This is an area that adversely affects all facets of large institution infrastructure, from finances, governance and administration, the selection, recruitment (and these days, retention) of students, class sizes, staff development (and satisfaction) among other activities associated with the manifestation of higher education (Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Trow, 1973). Trow (1973, p. 1) also determined that much of the discussion on the problems within higher education, at the time, were

dealt with in isolation. He argued that instead it needed to be viewed as “different manifestations of a related cluster of problems” arising out of the transition from élite to mass universal education and in some countries, demand-driven participation such as that observed in Australia (p.1). In Australia in 2009, the number cap on undergraduate enrolment was lifted in response to reforms aimed at increasing undergraduate participation. A public (non-academic) report raised concerns about the consistent underestimation of associated costs and increased numbers of low-achieving students with low prior attainment (Norton, 2014) but this is currently under considerable debate. Consideration of this particular case study is timely, given the United Kingdom plans to lift the cap on enrolment numbers in the next two years, to permit an extra 60,000 student enrolments (Her Majesty’s Treasury, 2013; Morgan, 2013). This may be a response to the instability associated with the undergraduate market as identified in 2012 by the British Educational Research Association (Christie et al., 2012).

With growth, therefore, a variety of problems have arisen for the higher education sector, and for their support in terms of finance, administration, student recruitment processes and large-first year classes (Allais, 2014; Trow, 1973). Blackmore (2014) also wrote of the impacts that massification is having on the nature of the student body; an increased cultural and academic diversity that requires the likes of highly personalised teaching, and acts as a distraction from research. This evidently compounds added pressures on a traditional system set up originally to educate the elite, yet it is being stretched to accommodate the masses resulting in strain and pressure across all strata within the higher education system. This phenomenon was summarised by Sidorkin (2012) as “When the masses get something the elites have had for a long time, it always comes in a different form. Some say it becomes adulterated and debased; others say it becomes democratized and more accessible (p. 487).

Altbach’s (2012) view on global higher education was that the driving force behind the current reconfiguration of higher education has been massification itself—

It is problematic in that no country can actually afford quality access for all due to inequality in academic systems...you just cannot have quality, an ambitious research mission, and high standards in your universities; it will not work. (p.187)

Altbach (2012) also reported that this problem, as quoted above, may be due to the inequality of academic systems as universities compete to attempt to reach the top of the university ranking system. Sidorkin (2012) also stated, “To give the masses quality higher education, we need to become more productive by embracing information technology, division of labor, and quality controls. “ (p. 489). However, others argue that access to higher education is a public good and that emphasis should also be placed on the positive aspects of the democratisation of university education as well as an increased access to knowledge (Arvanitakis, 2014). Additionally, in China, massification is perceived as an indicator of progress on the world stage (Ngok, 2008).

The drivers of massification

With these considerations in mind, it is critical to describe some of the key drivers that have contributed, in turn, to massification and the changes to the contemporary higher education sector. The following sub-sections will therefore address three drivers that appear relevant at this point in time: globalisation, the impact of neoliberalist agendas and the effect of changes in managerialism and governance, and finally the notion of the knowledge economy and how this has contributed to the form of massification observed, today.

Driver 1: Globalisation

Introduction to globalisation

The concept of globalisation is proposed as an underlying driver that may have contributed to the massification trend evident in higher education sectors across the world—

Today, higher education in every corner of the globe is being influenced by global economic, cultural, and educational forces, and higher education institutions themselves (as well as units and constituencies within them), are increasingly global actors, extending their influence across the world. (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002, p. 282)

With this in mind, globalisation is therefore proposed as a contributing factor for the reconfiguration of contemporary higher education. With respect to a definition, the singular word implies a universality of processes at the global level; yet as scholars have argued, the true concept of globalisation is complex and multifaceted, heterogeneous in its impacts, non-linear and thus difficult to unequivocally define (Vaira, 2004). Despite the contested nature of its definition, some generally accepted characteristics of globalisation are evident from the literature. These characteristics include discussion about the elimination of great distances (Mbembe, 2003), of world expansion with forces effecting change and effect observed worldwide (Luke & Luke, 2000; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002) and in terms of higher education, claims that tertiary education institutions are now actors on the world stage; their influences extending beyond the limits of their own countries (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002). It is this discourse, therefore, that makes the notion of globalisation a source of anxiety for scholars and other stakeholders alike (Appadurai, 2003). However, despite the contested nature of the term, there is some consensus regarding the many different processes it targets in the world (Shami, 2003) especially with respect to changes to academic work, as Stromquist (2007) claimed.

Given the debate associated with the applied use of the term globalisation, especially in higher education, the following section describes, with brevity, some of the relevant theories of globalisation, and the role they have played in re-shaping higher education sectors across the world. Further to this there will be a brief discussion about the perceived impact of globalisation on higher education in New Zealand.

Globalisation as an imprecise term

As previously stated, the use and definition of the term globalisation is contested and as Deem (2001) stated, there are some issues with its application to education, overall. These include arguments around the claim that globalisation is not a new phenomenon (Docherty, 2013; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002), identification that there are multiple constructions of globalisation, in particular with regard to international higher education (Dixon, 2006), and questioning of the actual existence of the phenomenon (Bradley, Erickson, Stephen & Williams, 2000). Others have pronounced the term imprecise, difficult to define and somewhat abstract (Blackmore, 2000; Deem, 2001), that is a ubiquitous catchphrase used by a variety of stakeholders in a variety of situations (Kellner, 2000), its use often ambiguous (Appadurai (2003). Inquiries as to whether higher education itself should be referred to as a global institution have also been raised along with the claim that the contemporary world is in a state of *globalisation* and that this have had a profound impact on all aspects of social life from culture to politics and social relations among other areas (Vaira, 2004). Marginson & Rhoades (2002) identified that while there is a drive across countries to make the higher education sector more accountable and more efficient, the global forces that drive this pattern are largely under analysed.

Convergence / divergence theories

While there are many theories that attempt to explain globalisation, a significant branch of debate revolves around convergence and divergence theories (Marginson & Mollis, 2001; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Vaira, 2004). Convergence theory, a trend towards homogenisation and first proposed by Kerr during the 1960s, implied that trends of uniformity were a result of common technologies across industrialised societies (Kerr as cited in Pascale & McGuire, 1980) resulting in eventual cultural, political and social erosion as national boundaries are broken down (Vaira, 2004). Convergence theory has its roots in DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) theory of isomorphism and in homogeneity across organisations. Divergence theory, however, is a more heterogeneous approach to globalisation, lending itself to dialogue on continued cultural variety, and emphasising the importance of national culture on impacting management philosophies and not technology/economic ideologies in shaping organisations (Gupta & Wang, 2004; Hofstede, 1984; Laurent 1983). Divergence theory includes the concept of *glocalisation* (Robertson, 2012), described as a more refined way of looking at globalisation; taking a global construct and

refining it for a local market (Robertson, 2012). There have also been attempts to merge the two schools of thought (Vaira, 2004); an example of this being the concept of the *glonacal heuristic* (a portmanteau of global, national and local agency [both organised and human] as a way for framing comparative higher education) (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002), and *vernacular globalisation* (Appadurai, 1996).

Network society / Information society

Another important phenomena that has allegedly contributed to massification is a sub-driver of globalisation referred to as the *network society*; a new society that has resulted, according to Castells (2010) as a result of the 'information age' (Webster, 2014). Popular concepts include 'the digital age' 'the virtual society' and the information society' are used ubiquitously and by their usage imply a state or place that has already been attained (Clegg, 2011). These discourses refer to the broad set of changes that have been observed as a result of the spread of digital information and communication technologies; in particular, the advent of networks, that Castells (2004, 2009, 2010) notably referred to as the new social morphology of societies. All societies are now part of what Webster (2014) refers to as a global information economy. It is also maintained that this is linked to the apparent persistence of the emphasis on face-to-face communication evident in higher education (Castells, 2010). This may also stem from the argument that "What is emerging, however, in good quality universities is the combination of online, distant learning and on-site education." (Castells, 2010, p. 428). The future of higher education, according to Castells (2010) is one that is not strictly online, but one that is networked between the different forms. However, other scholars (Barber cited in Hil, 2012; Barber, 2014) have predicted that physical campuses will eventually be abandoned in favour of fully-online engagement, a practice that Hil (2012) refers to as 'soulless' (p. 67). Questions have also been raised as to the impact such changes are having on the academic identities of the individuals working within these institutions (e.g. Clegg, 2011), a notion which is of particular relevance to the proposed study.

Globalisation perspectives in summary

Morrow and Torres (2000) summarised the current corpus of knowledge on globalisation by providing three stances. The first being that many have argued that globalisation as a concept is ancient, dating back more than five centuries (e.g. Docherty, 2013); the problematic emerging with the advent of monotheism. The second stance they discussed referred to the notion of world-systems theory linking globalisation with the advent of capitalism, resulting in what we now know as a global economy. The third stance discussed considers globalisation to be a contemporary invention, 'globalisation theory' and that which emerged suddenly in the 1990s (Morrow & Torres, 2000). Lingard referred to cultural flows of globalisation and noted that tensions arise between top-down policies and localised practices occurring within the overarching flow of globalisation. His views align with those of Appadurai (2003) who wrote at length of 'grassroots globalisation', or 'globalisation from below' and the subsequent inequalities that can result, both socially and ecologically.

Despite this debate, globalisation, as it is described by Altbach, Reisbach and Rumbley (2010), is often viewed as having played a role in the global academic revolution that has taken place in the last 50 years. This view is strongly supported by Stromquist (2007) who stated that "In the current period of intense economic, technological, and social processes of globalization, the university is emerging as a site that mirrors all three globalizing forces." (p.1). Lingard (2000), however, argued that the changing shape of education both is and is not a consequence of policy convergence resulting from increased interconnectedness between nations. This view was also taken by Blackmore (2014) who discussed the transfer and translation of policies that have led to major reforms impacting on universities in terms of massification, marketisation, internationalisation, commercialisation, privatisation and managerialism. As discussed by Blackmore (2001), universities have had to evolve with the paradigm shift from an industrial economy to one that is centred on knowledge production. This shift, coupled with the impacts of continuing globalisation and technological advancements, has resulted in significant changes to the nature of academic work (Blackmore, 2014; Giroux, 2004).

Globalisation and higher education in New Zealand: a Western example

Commentary has therefore suggested that universities are operating in an increasingly globalised setting with students crossing national borders to seek higher education services (Dixon, 2006; Healey, 2007; Jiang, 2010). Globalising higher education is, therefore, linked to economic rationale with international students bringing in significant economic gain as well as being seen as having important links to international trading relationships (Jiang, 2010) arising from free trade (free-market economics) (Olssen & Peters, 2005). What is now being observed at the international level is a shift from universities as service providers to having a market profile and this has resulted in significant concerns regarding financial intent for policymakers and academics alike (Dixon, 2006)

Universities market to and attract students from all over the world and are increasing the provision of franchised degrees to international partners (Healey, 2007; Jiang, 2010). International students enrolled in Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Social Development (OECD) universities increased by 107% from 1.6 million in 2000 to 3.3 million in 2011 (Ministry of Education, 2014). In a recent interview, however; the New Zealand Tertiary Education Minister, Stephen Joyce said that universities must undergo further overseas expansion, as well as more international student recruitment in order to increase income (Tertiary Education Union, 2014). Within New Zealand, in 2003, in support of the provision of higher education for foreign students, the government implemented a code of practice for the pastoral care of foreign students, under the New Zealand Education Act (1989) (Jiang, 2010). A rapid rise in international student enrolments in New Zealand education institutions was observed between 1998 and 2003 and was driven predominantly by Chinese students (Ministry of Education, 2014). In addition, New Zealand's market share rose from 0.4% in 2000 to 1.7% in 2011 as a consequence of these enrolments and now, as a result, international education is one of New Zealand's dominant export sectors (Ministry of Education, 2014). Comparatively, in Australia in 2011, international students injected \$15.9 billion into Australia's national economy; notably doubling the input seven years prior (Australian Bureau of Statistics in Blass, 2013); yet despite this, since 2006; however, international enrolments have declined (Blass, 2013). A reason for this, Blass (2013) speculated is that the countries from where the international students originate will have developed their higher education sectors in the next two decades, resulting in a reduction in the need for Western partnerships.

In New Zealand, particularly during the Cold War era, educational policy emphasised 'aid' rather than 'trade'; however, after this time, a shift towards economically-focussed perspectives started to become evident, especially notable during the leadership of Robert Muldoon in the 1970s (Jiang, 2010). This deliberate shift intensified in the 1990s in response to further establishment of economically-driven policies with a focus on self-management, the self-management of schools and increased expectations of accountability and governance at the local level (Codd, 2005; Emerson & Mansvelt, 2014; Jiang, 2010). This educational reform has been viewed in a negative light, in New Zealand, underpinned by discourses of educational accountability and economics that have resulted in a focus on outputs and products (Codd, 2005). The shift toward a predominantly economic focus is still strongly evident with higher education in New Zealand, being seen as an economic commodity. This trend is in the main due to New Zealand's commitment to the General Agreement on Trade and Service and the World Trade Organizations' definition of higher education as a service (Jiang, 2010). As a result of this, and coupled with increasingly diminished government support for education and research, the dominant discourse within New Zealand university administration and management now centres around efficiency, competition, accountability and transparency (Liyanage & Andrade, 2012). As a result of these discourses and changing expectations, Emerson & Mansvelt (2014) observed that there is disparity between the actual expectations and perceptions of academic staff, and their organisations and policymakers. This recent observation provides further rationale for the importance of understanding academic staff perceptions, in particular those in the lower echelons of the hierarchy, i.e. the tutors.

Despite the biogeographical isolation of New Zealand, as highlighted by Sutherland, Wilson and Williams (2013), its universities are not immune to the changes that have affected the academic milieu on a global scale. The advent of the Performance-Based Research Fund has resulted in a more intense focus being placed on research and outputs, changing the perceptions and objectives for both institutions and academics as individuals (Sutherland, Wilson & Williams, 2013; Retna, Chong & Cavana, 2009). As a result of these changes, and with the continuing phenomenon of large classes, tutors (often casually-employed) are relied upon in the delivery of teaching and learning activities for undergraduate students (Retna, Chong & Cavana, 2009). Australian researchers have also discussed the impact of globalisation on the academic workforce in Australia, with special reference to the migration of academics both from and to Australia (Bexley, James & Arkoudis, 2011) and the overall sustainability of the university (Blackmore, 2014). Impacts such as an increased mobility of Australian academics has been observed coupled with an influx of academics from other countries (Bexley, James & Arkoudis, 2011). Further discussion as to the impacts of globalisation and other drivers will be addresses in the following sub-sections with reference to New Zealand, Australia and the United Kingdom, where appropriate.

Driver 2: Neoliberalism and the education sector

A site of struggle and compromise

Neoliberalist ideologies that seek to widen existing markets and create new ones have been reported to have had a significant effect on education (Connell, 2013). This aided in the decision to include this factor as a potential

driver of the phenomenon of massification and to further examine the perceived impacts of the changing face of higher education on tutoring staff, today. It is reported that neoliberalism, as a form of political economic agenda, has reoriented equity discourses away from those of social justice towards those focussing on economic obligations (Burke, 2013; Olssen & Peters, 2005) and is now evident in all aspects of life (Zbrog, 2014).

The capitalist lean towards corporatisation, privatisation and commodification of public assets, including universities, has been a key feature of neoliberalism in general (Harvey, 2005). Apple (2000) described neoliberals as “the most powerful element within the conservative restoration” (p.59), that is, the right seeking ‘conservative modernization’ (p. 59) and spoke of their guiding vision, being the notion of the ‘weak state’ and possessing a vision of students as the workers of the future; a form of human capital, which scholars have noted is a problematic concept (Bowles & Gintis, 1975). It should be noted, however; that others believe that neoliberalism is not solely responsible for the economic and political changes observed in education (Rowlands & Rawolle, 2013). In addition, the normative use of the term ‘neoliberalism’ is often problematic and depends largely on the context within which it is being used.

Neoliberalism, a term that has been used since the 1980s, is therefore not simple to define. When examining extant literature Thorsen (2010) and Rowlands and Rawolle (2013) found it offers little in the way of consensus in the provision of a single, definitive approach due to its complexity and applications in different contexts. Thorsen (2010), when describing the widespread use of the word in academic and political debates, noted its usefulness in describing public sector reforms and associated market deregulation. An intuitive definition has been suggested within the word itself, “Neoliberalism’ surely must be some sort of revival of ‘liberalism’.” (Thorsen, 2010, p. 189). One problem with reading critiques on neoliberalism is that few have broached the topic from a neutral standpoint, often choosing to critique neoliberalist ideologies from a pre-existing negative worldview (Thorsen, 2010). I have therefore elected to refer to neoliberalism from the perspective put forth by Harvey (2005), that it is primarily an economic theory—

Neoliberalism is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterised by strong property rights, free markets and free trade. (Harvey, 2005, p. 2).

Harvey’s argument here illustrates the complexities associated with the use of the term *neoliberalism*, and this provides the foundation for its continued meaning throughout this document.

Managerialism: Neoliberalism at the institutional level

The regulation of professionals

Scholars have described managerialism as a new mode of governance that sees the modelling of organisations on private sector business models and that it impacts all facets from practice to management and values (Deem, 2001; Lynch, Grummell & Devine, 2012). It is a form of management that appeals to university managers faced with the challenge of resource cuts (Deem, 1998). This is often problematic, as these business models are repeatedly at odds with the way teachers, in particular, are trained; their practice, and the structure and function of their unions (Lynch, Grummell & Devine, 2012).

Observations in the literature have demonstrated that the neoliberal social forces of managerialism and marketisation have permeated throughout structures and discourses of higher education and its forms of capital (Blackmore, 2014; Hil, 2012). For example, as Archer (2008a) highlighted, a dominant theme in higher education literature is the adverse effects of neoliberalism on the higher education sector and the impacts that the likes of audits and performance measures have had on the culture of higher education. Managerialism, according to Ward (2012) goes beyond the implementation of people-management practices in organisations; it is a principle that asserts that institutions will operate more efficiently if power and control are centralised, and are the responsibility of ‘objective’ managers. A related policy notion of accountability is seen, as a consequence, to mask the complexity of academic work due to the emphasis on output quantities (Blackmore, 2014; Hil, 2012). However, it is interesting to note the view of Klikauer (2013) who indicated that while tradition would have neoliberalism and managerialism as hand in hand, given the shared similarities, they are not entirely synonymous. His rationale for this lies in the fact that unlike neoliberalism, managerialism is not concerned primarily with political issues, “...but with the management of capitalism and society in its image.” (Klikauer, 2013, p. 5). He contrast the two constructs by

highlighting their backgrounds; neoliberalism's being economic and managerialism's being underpinned by an extension of management (Klikaer, 2013). Conversely, other researchers have argued that managerialism is in fact one particular manifestation of neoliberalism (Marginson & Considine, 2000; Ward, 2012).

Structures of governance in modern universities have seen changes whereby the traditional academic structures have been replaced by managerial infra-structures (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2007). This means that the traditional structures of heads of schools and deans are often, to an extent, replaced (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2007). Compounding this issue is the increasing casualisation of academic roles resulting in many staff refusing to join unions, thus reducing union influence (Lynch, Grummell & Devine, 2012). There is also an increased number of women working in the academy, which can challenge male-dominance in leadership positions, culture and management practices (Leathwood & Read, 2008). Today, as universities move beyond massification into full-scale universality in response to continuing economic pressures, an increasing concern with respect to quality and standards has become evident with use of accreditation agencies and peer-review/audit systems in place for quality assurance (Yorke, 1999; Lynch, 2006). It is claimed that much of this surveillance is enacted by men in power positions in universities (Lynch, 2006). In addition, while the benefits of new managerialism are celebrated for their enrichment of economy, efficiency and effectiveness, the concept of equity appears omitted (Morely as cited in Sanderson, 2006), suggesting that social inequalities persist with respect to equal opportunities and the academic identities of women, in particular (Sanderson, 2006).

In the wake of new managerialism, changes to what universities do and how they function are seen as more ideological rather than technical and are underpinned by interests of dominance and power relations (Deem, 1998; Deem & Brehony, 2005). Public sector reforms commencing in the late 1970s that aimed to reduce public expenditure by various means were also observed impacting higher education through the managerialism form known as *new public management* (Hood, 1991; Santiago & Carvalho, 2008). This is observed in the higher education sector, at the organisational level, as impacting the regulation of professionals and subsequently affecting working conditions (Santiago & Carvalho, 2008).

Academic capitalism: Making money from academic work

In addition to the impacts of new managerialism recent changes have also been dominated by other higher education-specific influences that include the concept of *academic capitalism* (Park, 2011; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). Academic capitalism, first posited by Slaughter and Leslie (1997), refers to the nature of change to actual academic work including changes to resourcing, resulting in the need for academics to search beyond the university for funding, such as having to conduct commissioned research for industry (Deem, 2001). The promotion of academic capitalism occurred in universities in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States as a way towards enhancing economic capital and the number of higher-paying jobs (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). The result of this was increased income equality in all but Canada (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). While the notion of new managerialism is conceptually identifiable in certain countries, and is not restricted to higher education, academic capitalism is applicable, in particular, to universities in Western countries (Deem, 2001).

Performativity culture – the dynamics of performativity and fabrication

The notion of performativity, as an emphasis on procedures and performance, is relevant to the focus of this research as it may have a direct impact on tutors who teach in the context of mass, first-year education provision. Could the burdens of following due process result in increased fabrication, or the reporting of favourable performance-related outcomes? Performativity culture is a transference from a culture of ideologies and values to one of economic and systematic efficient performance and products (Ball, 2003; Blackmore & Sachs, 2007; Humberstone, Beard & Clayton, 2011; Todd et al., 2013). It describes an effect that is characteristic of postmodern society with respect to the "condition of knowledge" (Lyotard, 1984, p. xxiii). Ball (2003) described performativity as "...a technology, a culture and a mode of regulation that employs judgements, comparisons and displays as means of incentive, control, attrition and change – based on rewards and sanctions (both material and symbolic) a mechanism that allows for 'advance liberal' governance to occur." (p. 215–216). Performativity, according to Ball (2010), facilitates advanced liberal governance and means that workers must become au fait with targets, performance indicators and other objectives. Ball and others argued that as a result universities are constructing for themselves a fabricated image; a version of the universities that does not actually exist but that which is used for promotional purposes in the face of increased commercialisation and increased governance (Ball, 2003; Todd et al., 2013). These "vehicles for reform" as described by Ball (2003, p. 217) and Ball (2012) are allegedly impacting teachers at a deep social level, affecting professional relationships and personal identity; promoting opacity over the desired transparency and creating pressure (Clegg, 2008), as fabrications are maintained. However, the

opposing argument should also be considered, that some workers, those deemed performative, may strive for excellence, are unrestrained and enterprising, and ultimately successful (Ball, 2012). In addition, Clegg (2008) reported that despite observed pressures, strong identities in academia are in fact being maintained. Zbrog (2014) also argued that the academic (and the student) have also been commoditised, and for staff in particular a dilemma is apparent, to focus on becoming a good teacher or a good researcher? In terms of maintaining resilience in the face of this continuing culture, Zbrog (2014) emphasised the importance of self-reflection on professional activities and recommends the formation of individual narratives to aid in reflective practice in the face of increased accountability and regulation. This is a valuable practice that I believe would be beneficial for my intended participants, given I have chosen to use the power of narrative to gauge their lived experience, an activity that I hope will provide them with an opportunity to reflect and transform.

Driver 3: Knowledge economy

Another driving force that may have impacted the higher education sector is the notion of a knowledge economy. (Hanmer, 2014; Kenway, Bullen, Fahey & Robb, 2006; Neef, 1998; Powell & Snellman, 2004; van Weert, 2005). This expression was broadly defined by Kenway et al. (2006) as a manifestation of capitalism; one that is dominant and contemporary. It is primarily driven by knowledge-intensive activities; the distribution, production of knowledge and the resulting production and services (Kenway et al., 2006; Powell & Snellman, 2004). Kenway et al. (2006) highlighted the dominant discourses evident in knowledge economics including interwoven concepts of learning, society, knowledge and economy. These authors also highlighted the fact that ambiguities exist with respect to the use of the terms. Their investigation showed that many view the importance of knowledge as not limited to a particular moment in time, that knowledge was as important to prehistoric man/woman as it is to people, today. This highlights the diverse ways in which people view the discourses around this topic and why ambiguities exist. Despite such ambiguities, the discourse itself is significant and it is therefore imperative that an understanding of the policy drivers that result in socio-economic change are understood (Kenway et al., 2006).

With reference to knowledge production and higher education, Kenway et al. (2006) discussed the work of Kerr, who, in his 1963 Godkin Lectures at Harvard University, described the changes that universities were facing at that time. These changes, as noted by Kenway et al. (2006), are still evident today and include increases in student numbers, increased collaboration between universities and industries and increased entrepreneurialism. A key driver in the development of this 'knowledge industry', Kerr noted was for more and more people to attain higher skill levels and he emphasised the centrality of knowledge to modern society and how it is conducted (Kenway et al., 2006). In addition, Clegg (2011) noted the role that governments play, ".....the seductions of technology and the need to respond are all part of the governments' dominant framing of higher education as feeding the 'knowledge economy'." (p. 186–187).

It is the commodification of knowledge that Connell (2013) and Zbrog (2014) emphasised as problematic and that it is the access to education that can become the commodity. In addition, Lynch, Grummell and Devine (2012), argued strong inducements exist to "weaken the power of the teaching profession and to casualise labour in education to reduce costs." (p. 14). Apple (2000), however, stated that education itself is in a reactive phase due to the proliferation of issues including high attrition, literacy problems, and a failure to teach the essential skills needed in order to compete in the world. These problems are blamed by many for even bigger ones, including poverty and loss of economic productivity, among others, in particular in the US (Apple, 2000). Fuelling this, is an attack on egalitarianism and education is thus rendered "a site of struggle and compromise." (Apple, 2000, p. 58). Economic trends of the 1980s and 1990s have been attributed, in part, to the changing face of global higher education today (Burke, 2013). This claim is at odds with that of Thorsen (2010) who questioned whether it is still a trend, today, and that it is probably better perceived as a far-reaching set of concepts that have influenced policy and society, to date. Zbrog (2014) argued that the trend towards an economic neoliberal culture remains, resulting in a current academic reality that is one of bureaucracy, an increased gap between humanism and commercialisation and for academics in particular massification of the academic community resulting in a loss of direct interaction between university staff and students.

Widening participation

Another aspect of the knowledge economy is the notion of *widening participation*. Underpinned by meritocratic discourse, widening participation asserts that higher education should be available to all who are likely to benefit from it, notwithstanding social circumstances, and should be a matter of choice (Burke, 2013). In a similar vein, Watson (2005) stated that "The one absolutely iron law about widening participation is that if you want the system to be fairer it has to be allowed to expand" (p. 34). In the UK, this manifestation can be traced back to 1905

when the Vice Chancellor of Liverpool, UK, spoke of the need to remove the 'social barriers' associated with higher education (Leathwood and Francis 2006). Further along, the 1960s and 1970s saw many developed countries reshaping their higher education sectors, resulting in extended systems significantly different in form from those of the pre-war era (Scott, 1995). Education, as a result, is no longer the exclusive domain of social policy but now it straddles both social and economic schemas (Saunderson, 2006). With reference to the evolution of the workfare state, Jessop (2002) described how the responsibility for becoming employable is now in the hands of individuals who must work to acquire the necessary skillsets to be job competitive in both national and global markets. A result of this is the observed increased competition between tertiary institutions and stakeholders in curriculum development, which now includes employers, professional (allied) staff members and practitioners where once that was the sole realm of the academic.

The literature is rich, however, in its critique of widening participation as a social intervention for converting mass involvement into social parity (Burke, 2013; Leathwood & Francis, 2006; Teese, 2007; Thomas, 2001). Notwithstanding its best intentions, and despite heavy investment in education in the last 50 years, marked inequalities in outcomes and opportunities is still being observed (UNICEF, in Teese, 2007). One suggestion is that it is more likely a stratifying technology with disadvantage positioned within underrepresented groups (Burke, 2013). Leathwood and Francis (2006) concurred, referring to the UK system whereby the expansion of higher education has evidently benefitted the middle classes but little change has been observed in those in the working-classes, the latter historically comprising lower percentages of total enrolments than their middle and upper class counterparts with white, middle-class women appearing to benefit the most from these expansion initiatives. Levels of participation still vary today and are rooted in a variety of social and economic inequalities meaning that social justice must be prioritised in widening participation policy (Leathwood & Francis, 2006). Trow also spoke of the issue of experience, with special reference to the UK system, in stating that the more people are permitted access, effectively, the less ambition society must have about the experience they will have (Trow as cited in Watson, 2005) and Thomas (2001) expressed concerns around the 'one size fits all' approach, essentially that all students would benefit from equal participation in the same activities, proposed by the UK government.

Lifelong learning

The principle of 'lifelong learning', according to Jarvis (2007), has featured in global political and economic discourses since the 1990s. However, Blackmore (2006) noted that the concept was derived even earlier, in the 1960s, with reference to the intersection between work and formal education and later in the 1970s between work and community-based non-formal education initiatives. The concept recognises that adults are also learners (self-managing learners) is strongly linked to mass higher education through the notion of societies' requirement to become 'learning societies' – the transformation needed to avoid comparative decline (Blackmore, 2006; McNay, 2006; van Weert, 2005; Yorke, 1999). Lifelong learning is also connected to the notion of reflective practice (Plack & Greenberg (2005). As discussed by Plack & Greenberg (2005), reflection nurtures lifelong learning as it helps learners to identify gaps in their knowledge bases and skill sets and encourages them to fill these gaps and ultimately improve their own practice. Emphasis on lifelong learning is becoming increasingly prevalent in higher education (Leathwood & Francis, 2006). It is reported to have its roots in American neoliberalism especially that which originated from the Chicago School of Economics and has emphasised links between various aspects of social life and economic logic (Kopecky, 2011). Debate surrounding this principle critiques the fact that lifelong learning is now so pervasive in society that knowledge itself is now deemed a commodity to be packaged up and sold to the consumer, that is, knowledge now appears to be defined as commercial (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007). This principle connects with the aforementioned concept of the knowledge society, as linked by van Weert (2005), whereby, "...application and creation of new knowledge are normal part [sic] of the work of modern professionals: lifelong working implies *lifelong learning*." (van Weert, 2005, p. 15).

Connecting the impacts of massification to the changes to academic work

In surveying the literature on the topic of massification of higher education, and the perceived effects that it, and its drivers, may have on academics and their work, I feel it is important to highlight that it is a complex phenomenon, that is unlikely to be a direct causative agent of the problems and challenges faced by today's academics but that there are many interdependent factors at play in a dynamic environment of policy, reform, culture, and context. I have consequently identified what I believe to be important considerations when reflecting on the role of massification in higher education and will endeavour to discuss these in the following section while moving towards a discussion of how the changes observed may influence those in the lower echelons of the academic hierarchy, i.e. the tutors.

General changes to academic work and demographics

Academic labour is being reconfigured

Higher educational spaces are always sites of struggle in which shifting, complex and discursively produced power relations are at play in the formation of gendered subjectivities, and in the privileging of particular epistemological and ontological perspectives and frameworks. (Burke, 2013, p. 109)

As discussed in the previous section, and as the quote above by Burke (2013) suggests, the milieu of academic work has undergone significant change in the face of changing higher education contexts, massification and its drivers (Blackmore, 2014; Burke, 2013; Courtney, 2013; Hil, 2012; Hil, 2014; Rowland, Byron, Furedi, Padfield & Smyth, 1998; Zbrog, 2014). In my proposed research, I am essentially investigating one of these higher education spaces in detail, the realm of the tutor teaching in the context of mass provision. I also intend to investigate perceived of power relations, in one of my sub-questions, with respect to tutors and their requirement to enact the pedagogy of others.

One of the changes observed is a reported shift in authority from the academic body to that of predominantly-male bureaucrats and managers has had a significant bearing on education both in the school system, as highlighted by Casey (2013), and of the milieu of university in its entirety (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010; Zbrog, 2014). Authors have discussed the impacts of up-skilling and the blurring of boundaries in academic work, with specific reference to academic versus non-academic roles and the increasing involvement the latter group are having on student education (e.g. Courtney, 2013; McInnis, 1998; Zbrog, 2014) while others have drawn attention to the increased feminisation of the academy with research showing that women are undertaking significantly more of the emotional workload, such as taking care of the needs of high numbers of first-year students; roles deemed junior in many instances (Blackmore, 2014, Bryson, 2004; Gallant, 2014). Also evident is acknowledgement that emotional work, as a result of the intensification of work, is evident in all hierarchies and power levels (Dowling, 2008; Ogonna & Harris, 2004). In addition to these impacts, as described by Rowland et al. (1998), is the increasing pressure on academics to be more productive in terms of research outputs while maintaining student throughput by means of effective teaching. Following the publication of Rowland et al. (1998), came significant backlash from fellow academics such as Andreson (2000), who countered that such a divide is not the case and that teaching and research, while discrete, should have been spoken of as equal and complementary. However, despite their differences, both authors agree that in order to flourish, "...academic life needs every bit of inner strength it can muster to survive the onslaughts it is receiving from the culture of corporate managerialism and the valueless pursuit of instrumental technicism." (Andreson, 2000, p. 30). An understanding, therefore, of what it means to be part of contemporary academic life is imperative, especially for those in the lower academic ranks whose opinions are often not sought.

Casualisation

In response to market pressures and the subsequent reconfiguration of higher education, part-time employment levels are increasing in this sector, as summarise by Giroux (2004)—

As higher education is reduced to the sovereignty of the market, academic labor is being reconfigured in ways that not only remove faculty from issues of governance, but increasingly replace faculty with part-time workers and full-time careers with fixed term appointments." (p. 139–140)

With respect to this new trend that Giroux (2004) described above, Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2010) later called attention to the situation in Latin America where up to 80% of academics are employed on a part-time basis. Bexley, James and Arkoudis (2013) also observed this in stating that over the last 20 years, the most significant change to the academic workforce may be the increased teaching loads of sessional staff. Brown, Goodman and Yasukawa (2010) reported that in 1990 close to one tenth of all university teaching was conducted by casual staff. In Australian universities by 2008 casuals accounted for between a third to a half of all teaching staff (Brown, Goodman & Yasukawa, 2010). In addition, research has shown an increasing number of recruits, mostly female, as previously discussed, are being relegated to junior and/or casual appointments in the UK higher education sector (Saunderson, 2006). This finding has rendered higher education one of the most casualised sectors in the UK (Bryson, 2004; Saunderson, 2006). This phenomenon is, according to Dowling (2008), a consequence of the neoliberal university. However, casualisation benefits have been highlighted by Bexley, James and Arkoudis (2011) and include the likes of increased workforce flexibility. Similarly, Barber (2014) drew attention to the Australian position of employing casual staff when citing they are relatively inexpensive to employ and are not entitled to research time. Other Australian academics have reported that this increased casualisation needs to be reversed

with casual and sessional staff moved to longer-term contracts and/or ongoing employment arrangements (Bexley, James & Arkoudis, 2011). In the UK, Saunderson (2006) highlighted the quandary of part-time (and full-time lecturing staff, also) university staff who are enduring low pay, an increased amount of time spent on unpaid work (hidden hours, or time spent working with no equal show of productivity), lack of facilities and support networks and academic status. Along with these challenges, adjunct academics face a loss of job security and limited involvement with the university (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010); the result of which appears to be discontent for many of these employees. Hil's (2012) research revealed Australian academics growing discontent as a consequence of casualisation—

What's it like being a casual? I can't put it into words. 'Outrageous' comes into mind. Firstly, I made more money years ago when I was doing menial jobs than I do now at a regional University. Secondly, the university is actively anti-intellectual. One of the main things I will remember about my experience is that I had to read books behind closed doors because reading books was seen by administrators and management alike as being inefficient. Being busy is what counted. What counted as work was box ticking and trying not to f---k up. I was told by academics and administrators to do the minimum needed. (p. 107–108)

The participant's quote is not particular to Hil's findings; a further Australian study determined casual staff experienced stress over the unstable nature of their employment and a feeling of being on the intellectual margins (Brown, Goodman and Yasukawa, 2010). They were also shown as being enthusiastic about teaching. This, however, may alter with the increasing numbers and diversity of students enrolling at universities as this brings increased teaching demands (Allais, 2014; Blackmore, 2014; Chapman & Ludlow, 2010; Exeter et al., 2010; Jiang, 2010; Trow, 1973).

As a result of the increase in student numbers, a greater emphasis on online pedagogy has resulted, requiring rapid up-skilling by academic staff (Allais, 2014; Blackmore, 2014). This up-skilling, in particular, is critical to the provision of efficient feedback to high numbers of students where traditional paper-based grading was once used, yet is now no longer feasible due to the costs associated with paper-based grading and handling for burgeoning numbers of students. (C. Phipps pers. obs). Due to increasing student numbers, the growing economic crisis, and the worldview that higher education is a private good for the benefit of all, resources are becoming more constrained; and in attempting to accommodate these changes, student to staff ratios have increased (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2010). Academic work is now more collectivist with the advent of teamwork in teaching and researching (Scott, 2003). Beyond the traditional academic job description of teaching and research, academic staff must also contend with the pressures of quality assurance, research outputs, securing grants and tenure, the creation of links with industry and the school sector, all in conjunction with lower remuneration (Blackmore, 2014). The day to day management of high student numbers, subsequent administrative pressures, and the associated management of what is now a very academically and culturally diverse student body compounds the issue (Blackmore, 2014; Zbrog, 2014). In addition, Evans and Cosnefroy (2013) considered the notion of the "dawn of a new professionalism" in the French academy, with respect to academics facing change (p. 1201). These authors described the unique French context where mass higher education is running in parallel with continuing elitism in *les grandes écoles* (synonymous with Ivy League institutions). However, as with other countries, the French academy has also observed an increasingly diverse student body that academics must engage with, describing the changing nature of the new cohorts as, "These nouveaux étudiants generally have different kinds of learning and acculturation needs from those of what was hitherto the 'traditional' French university student." (Evans & Cosnefroy, 2013, p.1204). The authors specified that the factor of importance here is the increased diversification, rather than the enrolment numbers, given the unstable nature of the latter.

Increasingly high enrolments in the first year

Researchers have observed that large classes are now commonplace at learning institutions across the world (Allais, 2014; Zbrog, 2014). According to Allais (2014), large classes are ineffective, and expecting acceptance of them is unrealistic given the moral burden they place upon teaching staff. As Allais (2014) states, the 'essence' of what makes a lecture or class valuable, is lost when delivering to mass numbers. This raises the question of how this is impacting tutors identities, both personally and professionally.

Class size, according to Kranenburg (2009), plays a central role in influencing the overall learning climate; the space that should be conducive to learning. As highlighted by Biggs and Tang (2007) larger classes require more careful preparation than smaller classes. This is because spontaneous changes are harder to implement, given

that it is more challenging to direct a larger group of people than a smaller group (Biggs & Tang, 2007). Exeter et al. (2010) added to this by stating that the skills and commitment required to teach large classes, are the same as those required for small classes, but are more difficult to effectively implement. While many researchers discussed the impacts of large class sizes on students, both in the school and tertiary sectors, few studies have focussed on the impact this phenomenon has had on staff. One such study was conducted by Hemmer, Ibrahim & Durning (2008), which examined the impact of increasing class sizes in medical schools. While this study did not seek to describe staff experience as its key focus, it did determine that high student numbers can increase the burden on faculty and can adversely affect staff morale. Their work also indicates the importance of determining the effects these pressures on teaching and learning activities (Chapman & Ludlow, 2010), especially from the perspective of the staff dealing with these pressures on the pedagogical front line, whilst having to facilitate a supportive learning environment for students in their first year in higher education. In many classroom instances, these staff are the tutors.

This issue of overcrowded classrooms, however, is considered problematic, as contended by Smagorinski (2011), who stated that this problem itself can often lead to superficial learning resulting from what is in essence, and by necessity, superficial teaching. This raises the question as to whether tutors feel that they need to resort to this type of teaching under pressure and whether this has a bearing on their identities as educators. Research conducted by Krueger & Whitmore (2001) determined that the smaller the class size, the higher the grades, overall, when compared to students who were part of larger classes. They also concluded that tutors can move more efficiently through course material when dealing with smaller numbers, increasing productivity. O'Connell and Hall (2008) found similar problems relating to increasing class sizes with tutors reporting that they were unable to fully interact with students as much as they would like to, consequently finding themselves avoiding being too available and thus expressing concerns that student needs were not being addressed. They felt, however, that they were doing their best in the face of everyday pressures. Other research (Stephen, O'Connell & Hall, 2008) has reported students as perceiving tutors as too busy to take an interest in their well-being, or having experienced guilt at taking up a tutor's time. A root cause of this is partly due to the changing demographics of the student body, which Cameron, George & Henley (2012) argued is a symptom partly drawn from the increase in enrolments. This means that tutors are expected to work with an increasingly wide range of student abilities, language proficiencies, cultural dynamics, and levels of abilities and self-directedness in what is now a large-class situation. This finding connects with the notion of personalisation, as discussed by Ross, Milliken and Darling-Hammond (2006) – a characteristic of teaching that can also be lost when class sizes are increased. It has been argued by Wood and Tanner (2012) that rapport and empathy is also difficult to establish when teaching large, diverse groups as opposed to smaller, more intimate ones, especially when such teaching environments lend themselves to didactic teaching styles (Hornsby & Osman, 2014). Researchers therefore agree that the larger the class, the greater the pressure on the class teacher with regard to meeting teaching objectives and ensuring student engagement (Allais, 2014; Arvanitakis, 2014; Chapman & Ludlow, 2010; Exeter et al., 2010; Hornsby & Osman, 2014; Johnson, 2012). In addition to creating the right atmosphere conducive to effective learning, what works for small groups does not always work for larger ones if constraints such as room bookings, timetabling, limited resources (Taylor, 2008) and effective support mechanisms are considered. As a result, a sense of disconnection between staff and students is often evident (Nicol, 2010, Stephen, O'Connell & Hall, 2008), with researchers noting that the compromising of standards often appearing to be a frequent solution and that less education for higher numbers of students is not effective (Allais, 2014; Teichler, 1998). These issues raise the question as to whether a tutor's identity is directly connected with the student learning environment; the latter being dynamic. Does this suggest that a tutor's identity is also in upheaval, or in a state of flux? In conjunction with managing the needs of new students, and increased enrolments, an emphasis on students as customers has become evident in higher education. Wilkinson (1996) questioned whether this cultural shift is being achieved at the expense of those delivering the courses. While students are given more and more opportunities to evaluate their courses, their teachers and to voice their opinions, fewer opportunities are afforded to teaching staff, especially those in tutor-type roles (Wilkinson, 1996).

First year students

As previously discussed in the introductory section of this document, first-year students have a variety of unique needs in comparison with students who have attended university for some time. Students commencing their first year of university study are particularly vulnerable to destabilising financial, emotional and social effects and as a result of these are most likely to fail or leave at this point in their time at university Perry, 1999; Krause & Coates, 2008; Zepke et al., 2008; Tinto, 2006–2007). It is, in part, the responsibility of the tutor to support the new, first-year student through this critical transitional stage in their learning. With regard to burgeoning student enrolments, Gilbert's (2013) observed, "As student numbers have increased, the student-tutor ratio has also increased and, in

some courses, tutors may have responsibility for 20–25 students at a time.”(p. 8). In my experience, many tutorials are capped at 40–100 students at my institution (depending on the structure of the paper) and despite attrition; numbers generally still remain high across all the core, first-year papers (see Glossary) within which I teach.

Tutors play an important role in mediating the learning of students, providing a scaffold between learner knowledge and understanding (Joyes, 2008), taking the theory presented by lecturers and helping students to unpack, understand and apply it, usually in a smaller-class environment than the traditional lecture theatre. How tutors enact their pedagogy is one of the factors that may affect the learning outcomes of their students (Joyes, 2008; Wood & Wood, 1996). They must be able to transform subject knowledge to engage their students and facilitate effective learning (Roscoe & Chi, 2007). Tutoring is, therefore, a complex task that requires a combination of tactics such as questioning, feedback provision and explaining and is thus demanding in the cognitive sense (Roscoe & Chi, 2007), and none more so than when teaching large classes and when enacting the pedagogy of course designers or more senior staff.

McInnis (2000) stated that “it may be reasonable to suggest that many (but again, not all) academics have reached the limits of tolerance for change and lack the energy to pursue quality in teaching, the situation is not as intractable as it might appear.”(p. 151). In addition, Courtney (2013) posed the question whether an interprofessional approach to teaching and learning can provide a useful alternative for the tertiary sector to deal with the challenges it is currently facing. This community approach encourages academics to learn with and from each other and simultaneously levels the playing field with regard to status (Courtney, 2013), an issue that I have observed as significant especially with regard to tutors and their position in the academic hierarchy. Research conducted by McInnis (2000) found that most academics (including tutors) are spending their time helping students, not only in the academic sense but also pastorally. McInnis (2000) also found that academics are also spending more time engaging with new technologies that require time to learn and effectively use. This research also highlighted that a major challenge to effective teaching of large cohorts was the requirement to engage with larger classes, comprising a significantly more diverse student body and inadequate time for assessment and preparation activities (McInnis, 2000) resulting in more distractions from research (Blackmore, 2014). Academic work is, therefore, now more complex with an emphasis on outputs underpinned by a doxa (beliefs) of accountability (Blackmore, 2014). In order for universities to continue to contribute to society and function effectively, McInnis (1998) maintained that it is critical that traditional goals are balanced against modern pressures. Academic identity, in the interprofessional practice arena, therefore requires further exploration, especially in the context of teaching very large courses where pressures on academics (lecturers and tutors) are compounded, as highlighted by McInnis (2000) and where, perhaps, integrity may be compromised. This is especially important given that literature on changing academic context often focusses on the relationship between teaching and research (Brew, 1999).

Courtney (2013) considered the types of changes that have occurred and described the emerging trends of *direct-response* and *indirect-response* changes to academic work. She described a *direct-response* change as one that arises from an alteration to the environment, such as the addition of new technologies. In contrast, Courtney (2013) also discussed in-direct response changes, such as the increasing casualisation of academic work (such as the employment of more casual tutors); changes that are generic and largely due to responses to financial pressures. As this casualisation increases, McInnis (2000) predicted that the tradition of many academics being socialised into their positions from when they were postgraduate students is likely to decrease with the increase of fixed-term and casual contracts. Given too that academic staff numbers have increased at a slower rate than student numbers, a phenomenon, which Court (2006) argued is having detrimental effects on student to staff ratios, resulting in an intensification of academic work (see Blackmore, 2014). Universities throughout the world have addressed these challenges by employing a greater number of part-time staff to fulfil certain teaching roles (Mukaka, 2009) and this is certainly evident in the teaching of first-year university courses where enrolment numbers are the highest (C. Phipps, pers. obs). In my experience, fewer tutors are being employed on a permanent basis and many therefore do not have the desired job security and stability. Even those employed on a permanent basis appear disgruntled about their roles in terms of the lack of succession, that is, their lack of ability to ‘climb the ranks’. This, by my observation, is generating a culture of uncertainty and disenchantment with these particular individuals. Yet in some institutions, casual employment is the norm, and has been for many years — especially when postgraduate students are employed in tutor roles whilst completing their own studies and thus seek part-time work in order to support themselves. This raises the question whether tutor identities differ between these part-time postgraduate tutors and their permanent counterparts.

As highlighted by Courtney (2013) central to all these issues, and to the proposed research, lies the question of what it now means to be an academic and how important such identities are to the landscape of higher education today. One of the reasons this is important lies in the supposition that individual teacher identities could form a "...critical starting point for constructing new corporate 'imaging' of the collective identities of departments, faculties, research centres and their respective university institutions." (Saunderson, 2006, p. 192). Saunderson also noted that research is lacking with respect to the impact of new managerialism on academics' teacher identities and related institutional structures and found, through her own research in particular (see Saunderson, 2006) such structures are impacting female academics' identities in particular, resulting in identities that were deemed vulnerable in some individuals.

Perceived changes to identity and the taxonomic conundrum: professional versus academic versus teacher identity

Identity flux in the academic sphere

Literature suggests that there is a growing interest in researching *professional identity* construction (Slay & Smith, 2011 and in the higher education sector of the UK, the education sector, in particular, has tended to focus on the impact of neoliberalism and academics' experiences of this (Archer, 2008; Clegg, 2008; Hockings et al., 2009). The notion of identity, in response to the current challenges faced in higher education, was summarised by Saunderson (2006)—

The level of vulnerabilities in their identities – and the 'extreme' identity positions they had adopted as coping responses – stand as a clear indictment of the current system, and holds potentially serious implications for HEI's [higher education institutions] duty of care and statutory responsibility to uphold the psychosocial well-being of their employees. (Saunderson, 2006, p.193–194)

Saunderson's (2006) argument present above captures the notion of vulnerability in identity and related coping responses that I wish to explore in the proposed research, if it emerges as a feature of tutor identity.

In seeking to define professional identity, a review of research conducted on school teachers' professional identity, Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) found that across the 11 studies they reviewed, only five of the studies gave an explicit definition of professional identity. Others defined it in terms of "teachers sense or perceptions of their roles or relevant features of their profession, or in terms of their perceptions of themselves as an occupational group" (p. 118). The authors then contrasted this with the view of Nixon (as cited in Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, 2004) who "...concluded that university teachers ' profess and practice values as an occupational group with a coherent professional perspective of teaching and learning" (p. 119). While this demonstrates that it is not necessarily accurate to extrapolate the findings for school teachers to their counterparts in the tertiary sector, the recommendations of Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) contain useful directions for future research in either sector—

It is argued that, in future research on teachers' professional identity, more attention needs to be paid to the relationship between relevant concepts like 'self' and 'identity', the role of the context in professional identity formation, what counts as 'professional' in professional identity, and research perspectives other than the cognitive one that may also play a role in designing research on teachers' professional identity. (p. 107)

Bearing the above argument in mind, the proposed research will also consider the concepts of self and identity, especially with respect to tutor identity formation and the dynamic context (mass education provision) in which it must occur. This raises the question of whether identity is a stable entity or a dynamic one. Professional identity, according to Ibarra (1999) who drew on the definition published of Schein (1978), is "...the relatively stable and enduring constellation of attributes, beliefs, values, motives and experiences, in terms of which people define themselves in a professional role." (Ibarra, 1999, p. 764—765). Research by Clegg (2008, 2011), however, may suggest that professional identity is not as stable as Ibarra (1999) and more recently Clarke, Hyde and Drennan (2013) previously inferred, given its highly personal, complex and highly contextualised nature and, as noted by Wenger (1998), the fact that the identity of academics is always evolving. Formation of professional identities is also related to how individuals feel about themselves, and how they feel about their students (Day, Kington, Stobart & Sammons, 2006; Hockings et al., 2009). The evolution concept was built upon by Boyd and Bloxham (2014) who emphasised, with respect to the identity of academics that, "Their identity as an academic within their subject

discipline or professional field includes interrelated trajectories as a scholar or researcher and as a university teacher.” (p. 341).

A study by Clegg (2008) sought to explore the lived experience of academics in response to the question of *academic identity*, a form of professional identity. The overarching aim of the study was to theorise some of the ways in which the world of academics is currently being experienced with special emphasis on whether academic identity can be maintained under the constant pressure of change. Clegg’s (2008) study involved participants from a range of tertiary academic backgrounds and varying levels of experience. The findings of this study centred on the complexity of what professional identities are and that they are shaped dynamically, in accordance with change, and as academic projects of the self. Gender, too, was found to resonate deeply with Clegg’s (2008) respondents both male and female with some male respondents noting the notion of normative masculinity as problematic with respect to their identities. Clegg (2008) makes a few recommendations for future research, in particular that researchers realise that identities are not under threat but that they are changing constantly—

Paying attention to how changes are being experienced is an important element in theorising what is happening inside the university sector, and the need to resist over-simple derivations from what might be seen as global trends. (Clegg, 2008, p. 343)

Clegg’s (2008) comment above regarding how changes are being experienced will be adhered to by ensuring that individual context is considered. Seeking to understand how tutors make meaning from their day to day work in their university may not only shed light on their identity, but also a way in which change is manifesting itself, via this particular group, in this sector. In highlighting the need for cognizance, Becker’s (2013) argument is premised on identity being sufficiently important that it requires increased understanding across the entire academy; at all levels. Research by Slay and Smith (2011) also looked specifically at professional identities but in the context of stigmas, or “professional identity construction under conditions of stigmatized cultural identity...” (p. 63). They recognised that stigmatised individuals can suffer tainted identities and can consequently be afforded less esteem than their non-stigmatised counterparts. This finding may be useful when investigating tutors with varying roles and identities. Are those tutors who only teach stigmatised in some way? While Becker’s (2013) research was looking more specifically at stigmatised cultural identities, it could also be applied to ‘lower-ranking’ staff in the academic hierarchy, that is, the tutors. In seeking an answer to this, it is helpful to refer to Ibarra (1999) who discussed the importance of the “socialization of newcomers to firms and roles” (p. 764), and conducted a study of junior consultants and investment bankers and how they adapt to their new positions “...by experimenting with provisional selves that serve as trials for possible but not yet elaborated professional identities (p. 764). While not all tutors are neophytes, with many having been in their position for some time, and, in my experience do not always desire to ascend the ranks, it is important to consider that this may apply to some participants in the proposed research.

What it means to be an academic is therefore not static and it is, like the higher education sector, always in a state of flux (Archer, 2008b). In response to calls to further investigate the lived experiences of those working in contemporary academia, Archer (2008a, 2008b) conducted investigations into the experiences and constructed identities of ‘younger’ academic staff (yet still ranked lecturer or higher) in the UK, that is, those whose childhood spanned the 1980s (Margaret Thatcher era) Archer’s (2008a) sought to investigate how the participants handled the pressures of the modern academic climate, impacted by the broader effects of massification and associated market pressures. This study concluded that younger academics appeared to be open to reflection, on both their identities and practices and that this may be a way forward with respect to challenging what is deemed to be the more malevolent influences of neoliberalism in higher education, by the creation of new discourses. With this in mind, my research seeks to provide tertiary institutions with a deeper understanding of their tutoring staff by exploring their notions and constructions of identity and delving into their lived experiences of teaching at the chalkface. While tutor experience has been described using primarily quantitative methods, my research is unique in that it will provide richer, deeper detail as to the identities (developing or reasonably established), and practices of a group of academic staff who are rarely given the opportunity to do so. A study conducted by Scheffknecht (1975), although dated, sheds light on the status of tutors at that time period, and is this an interesting consideration to make when considering tutors in contemporary university settings and the new working environment. Scheffknecht determined that tutors, in the 1970s, held little professional status given their often part-time status, lack of training, and challenges relating to administration. He predicted that changes would occur rapidly with respect to tutoring and that it would emerge from that of an underdeveloped profession to one that was highly developed. With this in mind, and from experience, I accept that tutor status may not have changed over the years.

Differences across institutions may materialise and this is something that may emerge during the analysis phase of the proposed research.

The taxonomic conundrum

The question of how to describe professional identity with respect to tutors is critical in my proposed research. Is it described as academic identity, professional identity, teacher identity, or even tutor identity? The range of literature focussing on the professional identity of educators shows that there are many different ways to determine what identity it is and how it manifests itself in individuals. Castañeda (2014) described the concept of *teacher identity* to label the unique professional identity of pre-service school teachers. He approached their identity through the consideration of two unified spheres; what teachers know and what they do (Castañeda, 2014). He also drew experiential parallels in arguing that teachers will develop their professional identities during their teacher training as a result of the new experience they have attained. Participation in a community of practice and the development of new skills is critical in the development of professional identity, a process that evolves and changes and is thus not fixed (Castañeda, 2014). In order to understand this particular form of identity, the researcher argued that teachers' own knowledge systems and beliefs must be understood first (Castañeda, 2014). Deem (2006) wrote of the notion of *academic identity*, linking it directly to discipline or subject as a defining characteristic of this identity form. This description was acknowledged by Clarke, Hyde and Drennan (2013) and used in conjunction with 'professional identity' in their discussion of the issues and complexity of identity development in higher education. It was also noted by Clarke, Hyde and Drennan (2013) that changes in identity have been observed to occur between early and mid-career stages. They also identified that this area is largely under-researched and that one's early experiences of socialisation as well as personal attributes have an influence on identity. Since considering the literature, and from my own experience as a past tutor, I recognised that aspects of both professional and academic identity, as set out in the literature, apply to tutors at different stages of their roles, in time. However, given the use of *professional identity* in the literature, the need to clearly differentiate between school teachers and those working in higher education, as well as the fact the definition is broad and can apply to individuals at different stages of their career (regardless of discipline connections) I have therefore elected to use the phrase *the professional identity of tutors* (shortened to *tutor identity* for ease of reading) in my research.

The roles and professional identities of tutors

What is a tutor?

An analysis of the literature has shown that there is no one set definition of a university tutor. The variations in role and name vary both within and between countries. Bright (2010) wrote about *professional tutors* who were trained at a community college and *graduate teaching assistants* who were prepared for their roles in the university environment. Hockings, Cooke, Yamashita, McGinty and Bowl (2009) used the term university teacher to refer to all teaching staff, including tutors, lecturers and demonstrators. Krieg (2010) referred to part-time casual staff who run tutorials, as *tutors*. A recent British study on tutor learning spoke of *university tutors* as synonymous with *university teachers*, specifically as graders and moderators of student coursework (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014). A New Zealand study by Retna, Chong and Cavana (2009) referred initially to *casual teaching assistants* (thereafter referring to these as *tutors*, in their article); those who taught undergraduate courses, in an instructional role, and spoke of them separately from academics; the latter needed devoted research time (made possible by the delegation of instruction). Another New Zealand study (Sutherland & Gilbert, 2013), referred to *sessional assistants* and *tutors* synonymously and Bryson (2013) referred to *sessional staff* as possessing many titles including *visiting lecturer*, *teaching assistant*, *hourly-paid lecturer* as well as *graduate teaching assistant*. An Australian study conducted by Bexley, James and Arkoudis (2011) referred to *sessionals* as *casual staff* but also as *sessional academics*, citing the fact that 79.9% of their role is tutoring and 55% lecturing with 19.1% in teaching coordination roles. Other researchers have referred to these individuals as *academic tutors* (Li & Barnard, 2011; McKeon & Harrison, 2010). In a recent study, Gilbert (2013) helpfully summarised the diversity of nomenclature as follows: *Sessional* (used in Australian universities to denote short-term, usually hourly-paid contracts), *Casual* (a term more commonly used in the UK and New Zealand and is similar to sessional), *Part-time* (usually applied to those in longer-term positions but on a part-time basis. Often used interchangeably with *sessional* and *casual* but it should be noted that 'part-time implies a degree of permanence that the others do not), *Graduate Teaching Assistant* (used in US universities and some UK universities to describe postgraduate students who have a teaching role), *Tutor* can be academic, pastoral or both. In some UK, NZ and Australian universities, these academics can be tenured and teach in the small-class context or part-time teaching staff such as post-graduate students who are charged with the role of running tutorials/workshops (adapted from Gilbert, 2013). It is also critical to note that tutors are not always young post-graduate students, as highlighted by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004)—

Many short-term and sessional academics are already PhD-qualified, and many work in roles that are ongoing in all but name. Nor are they predominantly young people, who may expect a period of insecure employment before moving into more permanent positions. Over half are aged over 40, and are therefore likely to have families and other adult responsibilities” (p. 43).

Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop’s (2004) distinction here highlights an important consideration when attempting to understand what it means to be a tutor, today. Like the increased diversification evident in first-year student cohorts, no longer are all tutors young and in the same phase of life or study. Variety is also evident, here, hence an investigation into what it means to be a contemporary university tutor is, in part, justified and important and must take into account the multiple trajectories that their lives take on a daily basis as they potentially juggle numerous identities.

Why study tutor identity?

Bourdieu (2001), while referring to the prevalence of new disciplines (notably sociology) and the resulting effects that an increasing student population has on higher education institutions, stated that—

.. as we have seen, these disciplines had to respond to a very rapid growth in the student population by appointing a considerable number of junior teachers weakly integrated into the university institution and liable to resentment because of the (more or less) undreamed of access to higher education and the disappointment of these expectations entailed by their maintenance in the lowest ranks of the university hierarchy (p. 170).

This resentment that Bourdieu (2001) wrote of is a common feature in the literature, especially with regard to casualised staff, “I feel largely invisible and unacknowledged, much as a plumber coming in to change a washer and leave.” (Bexley, James & Arkoudis, p. 40). Questions arise as to whether this is a universal feeling across all part-time tutors, or even full-time ones with regard to their perceived status and should be further explored in a study regarding tutor identity. In support of understanding identity at all levels, Becker (2013), while discussing nursing faculty in particular, highlighted the need to understanding professional identity across the academic ranks, stating that—

[institutions must be] ...cognizant of needs of novice to expert nursing faculty, as supporting the development of professional identity benefits the practitioner, the organisation and the students. (p.iii)

Similar to Becker’s rationale here for understanding those at all ranks was also noted by Bright (2010). She identified the need to explore and understand graduate teaching assistant and tutor identities in the context of teacher education at university, especially given the amount of teaching and student support these individuals have. Bright also identified that the preparation programmes for these roles would benefit from an enhanced understanding of their professional identities (Bright, 2010). Bright (2010) also found that identity construction was consistent with the set goals of their training programmes with a small minority not aligned with the programmes, i.e. not best practices in the field. Playing the role of teacher, rather than developing an actual teacher identity can be problematic for both students and teachers due to the artificial construct and a subsequent lack of commitment to the required characteristics (Bright, 2010). Anderson (1989) conducted a study that investigated what it means to be a distance education tutor, their relationships, values, reasons for choosing this vocation, among other factors. The dominant themes that emerged centred on tutors: shaping and defining their own roles in relation to their students; role security; peripheral socialisation. Conclusions were drawn around the need to increase understanding around the function of tutor roles, feedback on tutor function in the distance learning context, and the lack of tutor understanding with respect to the provision of distance education. This further supports the rationale for my research, as despite the length of time between Anderson’s (1989) study and the present day, the understanding of what it means to be a tutor, especially in the current academic milieu, is still lacking in the corpus of literature.

Barriers to describing tutor identity

Scholars have also written of the difficulty tutors can encounter in attempting to articulate a teaching style, or personal-professional identity (Ewing, 2011). However, more often than not, in addition to the difficulty in describing professional identity, many are not even given the chance to attempt this or to reflect on it. As Joyce (2008) and Wilkinson (1996) highlighted, tutors and adjunct teaching assistants are not often given the chance to voice their own pedagogic concerns, especially when such concerns may challenge the status quo and could result in

alterations to current policies. Their observation was supported by Coughlan and Swift (2011) who determined that while consultations with students has proven successful, little research has focussed on describing the true, lived experiences of staff in depth. Quantitative, survey-based studies that have considered the views of staff have clearly demonstrated the importance of this information in course evaluation (Coughlan & Swift, 2011; Wilkinson, 1996)

This may be a central consideration given the importance of the link between identity and practice (Boyd & Bloxham, 2014; Wenger, 1997, 1998). Boyd & Bloxham (2014) provided an example of this from their situated learning theory study of tutors as graders whereby tutors identified themselves as generous, fair or harsh markers of student work, showing conciliation between their identities (being) and practice (doing) and resulting in what the researchers referred to as 'assessment identity'. Boyd & Bloxham went on to state that a tutor's expression of his or her assessment identity is established "...within the horizontal domain of practical wisdom but suggests an interplay with the power held within the vertical knowledge in the sense that this tutor is positioning herself as a 'defender of academic standards' in relation to subject discipline and pedagogy." (p. 348).

Identity dynamics

Others have described the authority of tutors as dynamic and contextual, given the need to move and adapt to the challenges provided by students (McCarthy & O'Brien, 2008). Other research on tutors has indicated that the role is seen as somewhat transitional by both tutors and students (e.g. Muzaka, 2009). This may be an interesting paradox given the students in their first year are, themselves, transitioning. One study that explored the tutor perception of self (and the perception of tutors by students) involved a survey of graduate teaching assistants by Muzaka (2009). The results of this study suggested that students view tutors (in particular, graduate teaching assistants) to be part way between students and academics. Graduate teaching assistants in the same study appeared to perceive themselves as doctoral students with some teaching responsibilities and other staff viewed them as both research students and academic apprentices (Muzaka, 2009). This trend in tutors as being in a transition phase was also evident in the work of Sutherland & Gilbert (2013), who tracked the experiences of New Zealand tutors over decade and determined that tutors see the role of tutoring as preparatory for a career in academia. Ardizzone and Rivoltella (2006) determined that transformations occurring in our information society are changing teaching roles in schools and universities. Special references made to tutors in online education that speak of tutors as scaffolders, but an emotional form of scaffolding with the objective of stimulating and motivating by using activities (Ardizzone & Rivoltella (2006). The changing roles of e-tutors and their subsequent shift of identity has also been described in the literature noting that it can often be seen moving from a role to a function and that the tutors are essentially wearers of 'many hats' (Ardizzone and Rivoltella, 2006; McCarthy & O'Brien, 2008). A particular observation in this research was the perceptions of students regarding tutors; as semi- subordinate (McCarthy & O'Brien, 2008); this appears to align with Musaka's (2009) work (previously discussed).

Quantitative and qualitative approaches to determining tutor identity

With regard to research into tutor identity, several scholars have reported the results of larger-scale quantitative surveys (e.g. Fresko & Chen, 1989; Sutherland & Gilbert, 2013) on tutor satisfaction. These studies are very useful in the identification of trends over time but do not provide in-depth understanding regarding lived experience nor identity constructs.

A review of the literature indicated that in many cases, when a qualitative approach is used, a mix of student and tutor perceptions are sought with heavier emphasis on student perceptions, which I deem an unbalanced approach, and in very specific circumstances. An example of such specific circumstances include the teaching of a specific course or the application of a particular curriculum model, e.g. a tutor's approach to problem-based learning (Silén, 2006) and an assessment of student and tutor perceptions with respect to the teaching of epidemiology (Moffatt, Sinclair, Cleland, Smith & Taylor, 2004). While the latter study did not examine the notion of identity, specifically, one tutor participant was quoted as saying "We are the window to the world from the ivory tower of academia" (Moffatt, Sinclair, Cleland, Smith & Taylor, 2004, p. 693). This perception of identity is worthy of further exploration, given the changing contexts in which tutors often find themselves in.

Another example of qualitative research into tutor experience reportedly used narrative inquiry (DeFeo & Caparas, 2014). These researchers recognised the need to understand the experiences of writing centre support tutors. Like my planned approach, the study utilised reflective narratives and hermeneutical phenomenology. They did this in order to shed light on the commonalities in their participant's experiences and the gains characteristic in the art of tutoring for the tutors themselves. This study, however, did not explicitly discuss identity, and while the researchers stated that they employed the use of reflective narrative, they referred to this method as a 'written survey instrument'– language that lends a quantitative angle to the research. Secondly, their 'narrative' instrument

comprised a series of open-ended questions which appears problematic regarding how and where the chronology and story might develop from.

In another example of qualitative research that specifically looked at tutor identity, a study by Harootunian & Quinn (2008) observed mathematics tutors and anecdotally identified three tutor archetypes, in order to illuminate beliefs regarding pedagogical and philosophical approaches to tutoring. Using observations, interviews and journals of three mathematics tutors, they determined that those tutors fell into three categories: the pragmatist, the architect and the surveyor. The researchers identified that continued research on tutoring and individual teaching styles is needed but that this anecdotal archetype research provides a useful stepping stone. While I am not comparing teaching styles for my proposed research, I believe it may be of value to revisit this particular study, following analysis of my participants' narratives, to see whether these published archetypes are also evident in my data and whether they link to potential identity construction within the context of teaching in the first year. In another qualitative study, Krieg (2010) took a different approach after identifying a need to understand identity dynamics in tutorials and within those involved (tutors and students). She used critical discourse analysis methods to linguistically analyse tutorial planning notes in order to translate them into concepts of pedagogical practice and social identity construction. In terms of pedagogical practice, in the next section of this document I will be discussing a proposed concept called *imposed pedagogy* to see whether this is actually occurring and whether it is having an impact on tutor identity construction.

Imposed pedagogy and tutor identity

I propose the use of a phrase, used in a particular way that is not apparent in the literature, namely *imposed pedagogy*, to describe when a tutor is required to enact the pedagogy (predetermined course materials, delivery instructions, meeting set objectives, links to learning outcomes and the quest for consistency) set by (*c.f.* imposed upon them; provision of set instructions, materials, delivery methods) by paper leaders/lecturers/course designers. This phrase, used this way, was, to the best of my knowledge coined by a colleague (Westberry, 2013, pers. comm.) and came about during a corridor discussion between us about tutors and academic freedom. The concept of '*imposed pedagogy*' could perhaps be underpinned by the work of Freire (1970), who spoke of teacher-imposed pedagogies and criticised their lack of effectiveness in eliciting student participation. In the school context, Hargreaves (1994) described the intensification of teaching based on state-based mandates—externally-imposed pedagogies implemented with the sole objective of reform. Hargreaves's concept was further referred to by Costigan (2008) who described the pressures on newly graduated school teachers teaching in low-funded urban areas and who were mandated to teach set phonics instruction—pedagogy at odds with their student-centred approaches and the theory they had learned. Similar reference to imposed pedagogy in the school system was made by Hu (2005). He (2005) described *centrally imposed pedagogy* (such as curricular objectives and set instructional strategies) having occurred as a result of policy-makers' homogenisation resulting from lack of acknowledgement of different teaching contexts and cultural factors, among other confounding variables. From another critical theory perspective, the Association of Raza Educators (2010), referred to the existence of hegemonic imposed pedagogy, which oppresses the intellectual development of particular Latino groups such as women and workers and sought for the creation of liberating educational practices to counter this phenomenon. Similarly, Mejía (2002) spoke critically of the problem of knowledge imposition (with students as the victims of the imposition, in this case) in pedagogy and how this can hinder the encouragement of autonomous thinking. Bexley (2013), too, referred to the impact of conditions imposed on teachers and spoke of the desirability to have teachers who can morph and change to optimally teach classrooms of diverse students with varying needs. With this in mind it is useful to consider the work of Dixon and Senior (2007) who asked the question of pedagogical ownership in light of educational reforms (school) in Australia. Luke (2006, p3) called for "pedagogy to be under 'continual reconsideration and reinterpretation by teachers and teacher educators, policy makers and researchers alike.'" (Dixon & Senior, 2007, p.2). Interestingly, they posited that pedagogy should not be viewed as a subset of pedagogical content knowledge and is thus not discipline-owned; "We reclaim pedagogy and (re)locate it as the distinctive professional knowledge of teaching." (Dixon & Senior, 2007, p. 16).

In contrast to the student-centric and school-oriented approaches, Lane (2009) and West, Waddoups and Graham (2007) focussed specifically on what they referred to as 'instructor pedagogy' and the impacts in higher education with reference to technology. Lane (2009) questioned the impact of *insidious pedagogy* with respect to how course management systems (CMS), common in universities, today, affect teaching. West, Waddoups and Graham (2007) determined that further research is needed to understand the relationship between instructor identities and how tools are adopted, and the adjustment to practice. Lane (2009) elaborated on this, discussing how CMS guide course designers to build courses in prescribed formats, thus impacting their pedagogy directly. It is also assumed

that if course designer pedagogy is controlled and impacts in this way that those using the technology (lecturers, tutors, graders) would also be restricted.

Imposed pedagogy: Personal pedagogies

In order to create new understanding of the professions, Shulman (2005) cited the works of the psychoanalyst Erikson who observed "...that if you wish to understand a culture, study its nurseries." (p. 52). Shulman (2005) used the metaphor of nurseries to describe the forms of professional preparation that we can investigate in order to identify the specific forms of teaching and learning, or as Shulman named them, *signature pedagogies* of the culture of a particular discipline rather than that of an individual. Shulman (2005) rationalised that these signatures can inform us a great deal about the characteristics of professional fields. While an understanding of *signature pedagogy* may provide the broader understanding of professions and/or the culture within them, it is essential to examine individuals that form part of these professions – the professionals, and specifically their own constructions of personal pedagogy and thus, in part, professional identity, consequently future research requires investigating tutors. Kerr-Berry, Clemente and Risner (2008) published a series of essays that looked at how the identity of teachers impacts the student-teacher paradigm. They defined personal pedagogy by "...the ways in which teacher identities interface with power, authority, expectations, roles and assumptions in relation to students, or the relational power of politics in teaching (Kerr-Berry, Clemente and Risner, 2008, p. 94). This leads to some questions to consider: Can an individual articulate a personal pedagogy of their own? Will an understanding of how they articulate their individual personal pedagogy add to the knowledge of professional identity construction in tutors? Can the knowledge of a tutor's personal pedagogy be compared with that of an imposer of another form of signature pedagogy, i.e. a course designer / leader?

With these questions in mind, I therefore plan to investigate course-designer-mandated pedagogy's impact on tutors' professional pedagogies and if it has a bearing on their personal identities as tutors. I aim to capture this indirectly by obtaining the perceived imposed pedagogy (if it is occurring) from the perspectives of the tutors. I argue that imposed pedagogy could be applied at different levels, to different stakeholders. For the purposes of this proposed research, imposed pedagogy will, from this point forward, be defined as the requirement to enact the teaching and/or curricula of others. In short, in imposing *your* pedagogy on me, you are suppressing *my* personal pedagogy and consequently how I interact with my students. The impact of this (and whether it is true or false) may depend on the experience levels and confidence of a tutor but it may be that a more experienced tutor may feel resistant to a particular pedagogy being enforced. One might argue that a less experienced tutor (perhaps one who is still developing a professional identity) needs more instruction and guidance and therefore the negative connotations around my use of imposed pedagogy may be tenuous, in certain situations. It is hoped that this will be revealed or clarified as the narratives are analysed in accordance with known participant experience levels.

Clash of the pedagogies

Universities as institutions and the social sub-groups within them, such as faculties and schools, usually have an overarching view or mission statement beneath which all members are expected to work towards achieving, yet, as Smagorinsky (2007) discussed, this mission or objective is not necessarily viewed by the collective and in reality, goals are often conflicting. Such differences in worldviews have also been problematic in the school sector. While building on previous research, Smagorinsky (2010) discussed the issues associated with educational reforms, with particular reference to American school teachers whereby a reward-system was proposed based on student test scores. He described how talented teachers were fervently opposed to the idea of testing mandates as method of identifying teaching effectiveness, a system that meritoriously removes the dynamics that made these teachers effective at the outset (Smagorinsky, 2010).

While contextually bound within the school setting it is worthwhile to consider the earlier work of Smagorinsky, Lakley and Johnson (2002). These authors reported the results of an exploration into the perceptions of a secondary school teacher, 'Andrea', whose identity was reportedly affected when enacting a particular pedagogical approach. Smagorinsky, Lakley and Johnson, (2002) studied the tensions experienced by this teacher during her transition from her teacher education course into her first engagement as a school teacher which required her to teach within the bounds of a prescribed district curriculum. Three themes became evident in this research; acquiescence, accommodation and resistance. "The frustration that Andrea felt was that the curriculum took over the role of planning and did not let her work enough. As a result she did not like the person who was teaching her classes, feeling distant from the teacher she had become and fearful of the teacher she might become." (Smagorinsky, Lakley & Johnson, 2002, p. 210). This research suggested that teacher identity and practice are inextricably linked; a concept that I aim to explore as I address my research questions. Smagorinsky, Jakubiak and

Moore (2008) built on the previous research developing a case study investigating the decision-making processes of another emerging school teacher, 'Joni' and her views of the application of the student-centred curriculum advocated by her superiors. This exploration determined that Joni's teaching was adversely affected by the varying views of the associated stakeholders. Both of these studies illustrated a concept postulated by Pratt (1999), called *contact zone*, whereby the worldviews and values of multiple stakeholders can clash – a phenomenon common in areas where power differentials are evident (Pratt, 1999) such as in the relationships between tutors and more senior academics. While Pratt's (1999) examples might be viewed as fairly extreme, Smagorinsky, Jakubiak and Moore (2008) identified a more subtle version evident in schools. It is this notion of having to enact the pedagogy of others that will be explored in the proposed research with respect to tutors working within the context of very large, first-year papers in higher education. McCarthy & O'Brien (2008), as university writing centre tutors also situated themselves in Pratt's contact zone as it permitted their expression of tutor values (when autoethnographic about their identities) "...rough cross-commentary, subversion of definitions, dependence on simultaneous systems of authority, questioning of identity, and recognition of the multiple forms of epistemology and literacy present in the environments in which we and other writing center tutors are situated." (p. 28).

Muzaka (2009) described the niche of graduate tutors, who are the 'junior teachers' that Bourdieu (2001) referred to, as indistinct and dynamic where they move between the roles of teacher, researcher, student and employee. These conflicting rights and responsibilities can often result in tensions – especially when the tutors role transverses several other roles (Muzaka, 2009). Schwartz and Webb (1993) reported the case of Samuel Groves, an enthusiastic junior staff member employed to teach a third-year pre-clinical course. Groves enjoyed the stimulus of teaching and the content he taught aligned well with his personal research interests. Groves was invited by a senior colleague (a professor) to present a series of seminars to final year clinical students who he had taught in their previous year. The professor attended Groves' first seminar and was appalled to see that Groves had stimulated discussion over what the professor deemed to be issues of a sensitive nature and discussion that challenged the doctrine that the professor had fought hard to convey. Groves encouraged the students to challenge the 'facts' and in response to this, during the session, the professor made it very clear to the students that Groves was merely a junior staff member and that the facts were the facts – and that knowledge of these facts would be required for the examination. Immediately, Groves' credibility began to disintegrate in the eyes of the students and attrition was evident in the second and subsequent seminars, to Groves' dismay. Schwartz and Webb (1993) when analysing this chain of events and found key issues arose. While Groves was certainly interested in his material and passionate about getting students to critically engage with it (while questioning the status quo), was his approach too far aligned with his own interests rather than those of his students, thus impacting the paper's (subject's) integrity? His preparation for the seminars appeared to have been conducted in isolation from the professor's course, with Groves' objective appearing to be that the students benefited from his own experience through a critical analysis of the standard facts. Conversely, the professor appeared to fervently reject any challenge to what he believed what should be taught – this is evident when the professor emphasises the importance of the facts as they are stated in the textbook. An incompatibility of pedagogies is likely evident, here. However, in invoking his seniority and power, the professor effectively undermined that of Groves, who, in the eyes of the students, lost significant credibility.

Summary: Tutor identity formation in the modern higher education sector

It appears that given the aforementioned market pressures on academia, in this world influenced by neoliberalist ideologies and new managerialist controls, ostensibly impact academic freedom and the autonomy of the institution. Academic freedom, as discussed by Berdahl (1990) is a privilege, "the freedom of the individual scholar in his/her teaching and research to pursue truth wherever it seems to lead without fear of punishment or termination of employment for having offended some political, religious or social orthodoxy." (p. 171). With all of this in mind, one must ask what impact is this having on the professional identities of these individuals, which aligns with my proposed approach.

2. THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORKS

Introduction

This section provides a brief description of the chosen methodologies underpinning this study. A brief historical overview of phenomenology both as a method and a philosophical standpoint will be discussed. Specific reference will be made to hermeneutic phenomenology as both a theory and a methodology and the narrative inquiry of Ricoeur also as both theory and methodology and to enhance the interpretation of the data that will be collected using narrative inquiry methods (after Creswell, 2006; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riley & Hawe, 2005). This section will demonstrate the connections between phenomenology and narrative and will show how they align in terms of guiding philosophies, methods and analysis lenses. Special reference will then be made to my own epistemological and ontological positions and discussion will also cover the notion of insiderness and the validity of my own experiences in relation to the proposed research. I will then proceed to describe the steps I will take to identify and recruit participants, collect and analyse data whilst ensuring rigor and trustworthiness. Ethical considerations will also be summarised.

Reiteration of the proposed research questions

Key research question: How can the lived experiences of university tutors provide insight into their professional identities and practice in the context of teaching in large, first-year, undergraduate classes?

Sub-questions:

- a. How do tutors working within this context describe their professional identity and articulate their personal pedagogies?
- b. How do tutors from different institutions differ in their narratives of identity and attitudes to their work?
- c. What elements of identity construction emerge as important for this group?
- d. How do tutor narratives help to make sense of the challenges associated with teaching large, diverse cohorts of first-year students?
- e. How do tutors experience 'imposed pedagogy'?

Researcher positional considerations

Ontological and epistemological position

Prior to embarking on any research, it is critical to articulate one's philosophical worldview in order to pursue alignment between that, the methods proposed and the research objective. My relativistic, constructivist epistemological and ontological position, at this point in time, can be summarised as having multiple perceptions of what reality is. This governs my interpretation of knowledge (my epistemology), of what I hold to be true, and what is real and known (my ontology). This perspective contrasts from that of the conventional realist view that holds that there exists a reality and that it is driven and governed by undisputable natural laws (Lee, 2012). Relativism, according to Lincoln and Guba (2013), is the fundamental ontological assumption that underpins constructivism while epistemologically, "transactional subjectivism is the basic presupposition of constructivism" (p. 40). What is real and what is known is a personal construct and therefore, "...the relationship between the knower and the knowable (to-be-known) is highly person- and context-specific." (Lincoln & Guba, 2013, p. 40). For Guba, construction is the mechanism that underpins knowledge and reality; indicating that the line between ontology and epistemology is blurred (in Lee, 2012)—

Given that the ontological presupposition of relativism and the epistemological presupposition of transactional subjectivism have been accepted, it follows that the methodology appropriate to constructivism must be one that delves into the minds and meaning-making, sense-making activities of the several knowers involved. (Lincoln & Guba, 2013, p. 40)

With this methodology in mind, Lincoln & Guba (2013) also described two processes that are critical in uncovering these meanings and constructs; firstly, the revelation of constructions held by the knowers involved. Secondly, the constructs determined must be actively compared and contrasted in an “encounter situation” (p. 40). The former is appropriately determined using hermeneutics (interpretive/explanatory) and the latter using “...the well-known dialogue/argumentation method of dialectics...” (Lincoln & Guba, 2013, p. 40).

My elected stance is to use a hermeneutic phenomenological approach, inspired by the theory of interpretation (Ricoeur), using data collected in the form of written and spoken narratives and analysed in accordance with narrative inquiry methods and the aforementioned philosophical lenses. Phenomenological hermeneutics involves the interpretation and study of texts in order to gauge essential meaning (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). Utilising Ricoeur’s theory of interpretation acknowledges the link between interpretation and the interpreter and helps researchers towards the development of intersubjective knowledge (Geanellos, 2000). Data will be contained in the form of participants’ narratives and later interpreted to determine the key themes emerging from these narratives (meta-narratives). The participants will be academic university tutors (full-time permanent, part-time permanent, or casual) who teach on high-enrolment courses. I will engage with these participants, using their written accounts, and follow-up narrative interviews, in order to capture these data. The interviews and the written narratives constitute the units of analysis. The qualitative paradigm guides the exploration into the intersubjective social realities of the participant group.

Position as an insider

My own experience, as both a past tutor and a current lecturer working within the context of high enrolment, first-year courses forms a valid and valuable basis for the commencement of this investigation, but has both limitations as well as benefits to the research. I am embedded in my chosen research context and as a result, I hold that my personal preconceptions and insiderness permit me a greater understanding of the phenomena under study; hence the choice to conduct this proposed research by means of an interpretative (hermeneutic), phenomenological approach. This stance is supported by Clandinin (2006) who described how narrative inquirers (my proposed method and phenomena under study) are not able to bracket themselves out of the inquiry under study as they must seek ways to inquire into the individual experiences of their participants, their own personal experiences, in addition to those experiences co-constructed with their participants during the inquiry process (Clandinin, 2006). “[Narrative inquirers]...live on the landscape and are complicit in the world they study.” (Clandinin, 2006, p. 47).

I am, however, also acutely aware that in addition to its value, the concept of ‘insiderness’ has limitations, as reported in the literature (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Labaree, 2002; Paechter, 2012; Westberry, 2011; Wilkinson & Kitzinger, 2013). Limitations include expectations that researchers will be sympathetic towards their participants in both analysis and representation, and that relationships can be compromised when participants may also be friends (Paechter, 2012). While I will not be recruiting participants who are known to me, I am aware that as a former tutor, and as I currently work alongside tutors in my place of work, I am aware that my preconceptions and personal assumptions could be at risk of colouring my judgement as I perform interpretations. In order to minimise the effects of these particular limitations, and others that may arise, I will utilise the power of narrative to “... [refrain] from judgement through telling” (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004, p. 147), in order to participate in the stories. Pseudonyms will be used for de-identification purposes in conjunction with the judicious use of any data that may inadvertently identify participants and their employing institutions, and I have elected not to recruit participants from my own institution. Managing insiderness can thus be accomplished in a variety of ways. Wilkinson and Kitzinger (2013), emphasised that the researcher must manage their own insider experience and described four ways in which this can occur: by minimising the experience (whereby the researcher strives for objectivity), or by maximising it (auto-ethnography), by the incorporation of the experience (the researcher includes his or herself as a participant and has control over the extent to which her voice is heard) or the utilisation of the experience (similar to incorporation but it is not always clear as to how the researcher is placed in relation to participants and false assumptions of cohesion can result) (Wilkinson & Kitzinger, 2013).

In the last thirty years, social research has observed a trend in studying groups from which the researcher has been or is currently part of and several advantages, and disadvantages, have been identified (Paechter, 2012). Therefore, in recognising that my experiences of an occurrence, or thing, could also be *your* experiences of the same, personal experience is a useful place to begin from when instigating phenomenological enquiry (Van Manen, 1990). When the researcher is embedded within the context of the research, and consequently shares experiences with the members of the social group, insider research is a feasible approach. The researcher possesses *a priori* knowledge of the context and its complexities and of the social group within it (Wilkinson & Kitzinger, 2013) as I do

within the context of this proposed research. However, where standard insider/outsider approaches are simpler to enact, ethically and methodologically it does pose dilemmas for the insider conducting the research (Paechter, 2012; Westberry, 2011). I am also aware that my position as an insider or a co-participant may result in me as the researcher being “storied” by my participants; that while I am storying them, they may also be storying me as a form of co-participant (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 177). While this initially may sound favourable, a drawback to this was reported by Paechter (2012) who found that some researchers reported that their insiderness resulted in participants ‘reading’ them in a particular way, thus limiting researcher access as opposed to extending it. Labaree (2002) described the challenges he faced when confronting his *insiderness* and its relationship to its antithesis, *outsiderness*. Such questions included whether his insider status permitted him a unique perspective that could never be experienced by an outsider and whether insiderness removes the neutrality that an outsider would bring with them. My own experiences as a past tutor provide me with what Craig (2009) describes as a sense of knowing (facilitated often by relationships); and it is through this knowing, in narrative inquiry, I will be permitted unique insight into the research texts collected.

Theoretical frameworks underpinning the research methodology

Phenomenology—philosophical underpinnings

Phenomenology seeks to understand how humans comprehend phenomena positioned in everyday social contexts (Baker, Wuest & Stern, 1992; Moran, 2005; Starks & Trinidad, 2007; Titchen & Hobson, 2011; van Manen & Adams, 2010). As this research focuses on tutors in context this is suitable methodological and analytical lens for exploring, interpreting and understanding tutor experiences in order to make known their identity constructs. Husserl intended phenomenology to be viewed as “...the descriptive, non-reductive science of whatever appears, in the manner of its appearing, in the *subjective* and *intersubjective* life consciousness.” (Moran, 2005, p. 2). He viewed it as a way to discovering true meaning through delving deeper into reality (Lavery, 2003) using a descriptive, or eidetic (of essences) approach as opposed to an interpretative (hermeneutic) approach. Phenomenology (Husserlian), as a methodology, is slightly different from hermeneutic phenomenology, (Heidegger and Gadamer), and consequently confusion exists between the two as evident from interchangeable use in the literature (Lavery, 2003). Both schools of thought concern the notion of lived experience, but the ways in which lived experience occurs forms the basis for the disagreement between Husserl and Heidegger. Heidegger subsequently developed his indirect approach to phenomenology – hermeneutic phenomenology, a more interpretative form (Baker, Wuest & Stern, 1992; Titchen & Hobson, 2011). One important difference was ontological and centred around opposing views of the concept of ‘being’. Heidegger described this as ‘Dasein’, or being there, in the world (Robinson & Groves, 1998). This stance differed to Husserl’s view of human existence seen as objective presence that is, being conscious (Carman, 2006).

Given this way of viewing human experience, I have elected that the research be guided by a hermeneutic, interpretative approach in order to understand the lifeworlds of tutors. I will be, following a similar reasoning to Smith, cited in Lopez and Wills (2004) who described key differences in methodological approaches between the descriptive phenomenologist and the hermeneutic counterpart—

A question that interpretive inquiry asks is How does the lifeworld inhabited by any particular individual in this group of participants contribute to the commonalities in and differences between their subjective experiences? For example, a descriptive phenomenologist studying what it is like to be a working wife and mother would ask the general question “Tell me what it is like to be a working wife and mother” and follow up with questions to arrive at common concepts integral to the experience. The interpretive phenomenologist, on the other hand, would be sure to obtain the participant’s description of a typical day in detail as a working wife and mother, and would encourage the participant to describe interactions, workload, relations to others, experiences of the body, and experiences of time to place the lived experience in the context of daily work practices and socialization. (Smith cited in Lopez & Wills, 2004, p. 729)

My own approach will be similar to the example, quoted above, essentially substituting *wife and mother* for *tutor*. Phenomenology, in my research, therefore, asks what it is that tutors are experiencing *when* they experience something to do with being a tutor (marking, teaching, coming to work, tensions, etc.) and it aims to do this by analysing how things appear to the human consciousness (Berry, 2008; Robinson & Groves, 1998). For this reason, it has been applied to researching that focuses on human experience in the world, and how meaning is created from it, by those experiencing it (Starks & Trinidad, 2007; Wimpenny & Gass, 2000) and in my research,

how the tutors, as participants, are experiencing their world and making meaning. Do they already actively reflect upon and interpret their own experiences? A phenomenological approach views human beings as embodied—experiencing life through the physical body as it immediately experiences it (Connelly, 2010; van Manen & Adams, 2010), which is why I have selected to include phenomenology as an underlying ethos—I want to know what the experience of my participants is, as and when they experience it, and how temporality makes transparent the impact of working in mass higher education. This notion of temporality is one place where I can connect hermeneutic phenomenology with narrative inquiry and why I have subsequently selected the works of Ricoeur (1976), Clandinin & Connelly (2000) to guide my methodology and to enrich my analysis and subsequent interpretation.

Iipseity: Self and identity, in brief

“The self functions as a space where *I* observes the *Me* and orders the movements of the *Me* in a storylike fashion” (Hermans, 2002, p. 77).

In any study about human experience and identity, it is critical to examine and understand the notion of the self, especially the concept of the dialogical self as the quote above describes. Hermans (2002) conceptualised the dialogical self, that is the existence of a non-static array of *I*-positions (*I*, being the self as knower, a sense of sameness, a sense of personal identity, what Ricoeur (1991) referred to as *ipseity* [*selfhood*]); a heterogeneous process, he stated, that occurs daily in the lives of most human beings who interact with others. This aligns with Smith-Lovin’s (2002) notion that meanings are derived and interpreted primarily by actors in social situations. Hermans (2002) went on to discuss the work of James who, in 1890, spoke of the *I* as the author of a narrative and the *Me* as an actor in said narrative, describing what is essentially the original concept of what narrative is (James as cited in Hermans, 2002). Bearing in mind the multiplicity of *I*-positions, Hermans (2002) suggested that that the self is consequently comprised of multiple narrators or authors in a narrative. He also argued that the well-known *self: other* concept is too simplistic (Hermans, 2002).

Hermans (2002) also linked self-identity concepts to phenomenology, citing the work of Minkowski who “...introduced the concept of original space in order to emphasise that we live our lives in an ‘experiential space’ in which not only our bodies move but also our thoughts (Hermans, 2002, p. 77). This links to the concept of imaginal space, wherein the multiple *I*-positions move, across an imaginal landscape, resulting in different stories emerging from different positions (Hermans, 2002). The identity of the characters in a story are, according to Ricoeur (1991) brought about by the identity of the story itself. In the narrative interview scenario, the self is also not static, but emergent, and co-constructions of narrative are thus formed between the interviewee and the interviewer during the interview process (Braathe & Solomon, 2014).

Narrative Inquiry

I have chosen to use the power of narrative; a method that reveals the objectives of human actors, aiding in the understanding of whole cultures, societies; puts a face to time, and permits reflection and transformation (Clandinin, 2006; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Polkinghorne, 1988; Richardson, 1990; Ricoeur, 1991). Polkinghorne (1988) described how people tend to arrange their experiences into what he referred to as ‘meaningful episodes’, meaning that experience events are connected by stories. Another reason I feel narrative aligns with my intended research questions is that experience, according to Clandinin and Connelly (2000) is temporal, but happens narratively. “Narrative inquiry is a form of narrative experience. Therefore educational experience should be studied narratively.” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 19). It is my hope that by revealing their experiences over time, in the form of stories of their responses to events, my participants will be able to reflect upon and make meaning from these experiences perhaps offering a unique view of the self and therefore permitting a greater understanding of their professional identities and practice.

Like Heidegger, Ricoeur also believed in the philosophy of interpretative hermeneutics and also explored the notions of authenticity and being, although their approaches to hermeneutics were not the same (Doyle, 2010). “For Ricoeur, the task of hermeneutics within narrative inquiry is to discern or disclose the ‘matter’ and meaning of the text. This is sought rather than focusing on understanding the psychology of the author or “teller” of the narrative...” (Doyle, 2010, p. 131). Although the two, phenomenology and phenomenological psychology, are parallel and separated by reduction (Ricoeur, 1975). This means that the thingness of the text is sought, rather than the underlying psychology of its author (Ricoeur, 1975) and that interpretation is governed by the dialectic of both explanation and understanding (Ricoeur, 1976).

Therefore, Ricoeur's (1976) interpretative theory is the most appropriate approach to guide the phenomenological analysis of the narratives that will be collected in this investigation. According to Doyle (2010), it complements Heidegger's interpretative hermeneutic phenomenological perspective—

As Heidegger's work enables a focus on understanding the everyday lived experiences of the person and the meanings of these experiences, Ricoeur's hermeneutics enables this interpretation to be further enriched. (Doyle, 2010, p. 127)

This enhancement of interpretation, as discussed by Doyle (2010) is carried out by exploring narratives for contextual meaning. This may mean, as argued by Ricoeur, that the notion of self is most effectively understood by way of narrative (Ferguson, 2009). Horsdal (2012) described narratives as being courses of events that possess both a start and end point and are bound by temporality. The act of narrating is not merely for telling stories but are, as Hermans (2002) described them, critical characteristics of human daily activities. Lived experience can be organised in narratives and as a reader reads a narrative they will often identify with the storyteller if personal experience is the subject of narration thus permitting the reader to engage and learn vicariously (Craig, 2007; Horsdal, 2012). One of the objectives of narrative inquiry is to use interpretive analysis to describe the way individuals use stories/narratives in order to describe or create meaning out of experience (Doyle, 2010; Horsdal, 2012). Narrative inquiry, as summarised by Thomas (2012) "...investigates what happened, the significance or meaning of that, and how it is told or shared." (p. 210). Polkinghorne (1988) argued language potentially is a medium, or lens, that reveals reality from experience.

With respect to theory and conducting narrative inquiry, and taking a Deweyan stance, Clandinin and Connelly (2000) stated that "theoretically, the main issue is for inquirers to sort out a narrative view of experience." (p. 127). They wrote of researchers becoming lost in theory and noting the differences between narrative inquiry and other formalistic inquiries. For narrative inquirers however, "...it is more productive to begin with explorations of the phenomena of experience rather than in comparative analysis of various theoretical methodological frames" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 128). According to Riley and Hawe (2005), understanding the complexity of practice contexts, attaining insights and gaining understanding of them, is achievable through narrative inquiry, in short, narrative facilitates the understanding of how people make sense of the world they live in. There is, therefore, more to narrative than simple provision of a list of happenings, given that it permits the creation or revelation of experiences or connections between events (Meretoja, 2014).

Narrative as a method is also compatible when seeking to understand identity as, according to Horsdal (2012), identity itself is a narrative construction, or a story—

It is the story of who you are in relation to the life you have lived and the wishes you have for the future. Identity is about creating coherence and making sense of what is separated by time. Identity is individual but also cultural as the human being enters into social and historical contexts. When something fatal happens that collides with your expectations, the vulnerability of the self appears and meaninglessness can occur. (Horsdal, 2012, p. 9.)

Bearing this argument by Horsdal (2012) in mind, narrative identity, therefore refers to the stories constructed and told by people, about themselves, in order to clearly define themselves to themselves and to others. "We are all storytellers, and we are the stories we tell." (McAdams, Josselson & Lieblich, 2006, p.3). Additionally, in a study on the role of narrative in the learning processes of language tutors by Polansky et al. (2010), narratives were found to provide a vector for structured reflection to transpire, that is reflection around the learning processes but also permitted the development of insight into other social, personal and institutional issues that are known to have an effect on educational systems.

Narrative inquiry has also been shown to be useful when attempting to unpack identity construction (Becker, 2013; Slay & Smith, 2011). Narrative inquiry and analysis provides a strong methodological platform upon which interdisciplinary conversations on the construction of professional identity can occur (Slay & Smith, 2011). An example of such a study was that conducted by Becker (2013) who sought to understand the phenomenon of professional identity in expert nursing academics. Hermeneutic analyses were used to analyse written narratives and narrative interviews to elicit the essence of professional identity in this very specific group of respondents. Becker (2013) found that professional identity is a very individual construct with themes emerging around the

workplace acting as a formative agent, the teacher as a lifelong learner, relationships, focus of the students and reconstruction of the identity over time.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This section of the document describes the methods that will be used to collect data. The proposed study is qualitative and thus incorporates sociological methods for collecting and describing the lived human experience. Participants will be university tutors, actively employed at a university in New Zealand, Australia, or the United Kingdom, working within the context of high enrolment, undergraduate first-year courses. A cross-national approach is sought, engaging participants from these three countries due to parallels in terms of educational and political policies (as discussed in the preliminary literature review) and to seek richness in the data from variety.

For the proposed research, narrative inquiry, as both method and phenomena under study (Craig, 2010a; Clandinin, 2006; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) will be used to guide the collection of narratives (from written and/or audio reflections and narrative interviews). Clandinin and Connelly (2000) described three considerations that must be deliberated when considering the method in narrative inquiry. These are theoretical considerations, practical/field considerations and considerations that focus on the analysis and interpretation of data (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Additionally, the collection methods and analysis of these data as proposed will permit me to “burrow” (after Craig, 2010a, 2010b) into the experiences of my participants. Interpretation of the narratives will be conducted using Ricoeur’s phenomenological interpretation theory as a lens.

Participant recruitment and related considerations

Narrative data collection will involve contacting suitable participants who have expressed interest in participating (i.e. criterion sampling, a form of purposive sampling) in accordance with the stipulated inclusion criteria. Becker (2013) described the suitability of criterion sampling for methods underpinned by hermeneutic phenomenology due to the critical nature of having information-rich cases to permit the extraction of detail of the phenomenon under study.

It is envisaged that university tutors will be recruited as participants from one New Zealand university (except AUT University given it is my place of employment), one university in Australia and one in the United Kingdom, as previously indicated. Initially, four participants from each institution will be contacted, following an expression of interest call-out, to form a pool of 12 participants, with the aim of having a sufficient pool of participants to attempt to reach data saturation. Dworkin (2012) defines saturation as “...the point at which the data collection process no longer offers any new or relevant data.” (p. 1319). However, Dworkin (2012) also points out that there are factors that can affect when and how saturation can be reached. These include, but are not limited to, the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population under study, the nature of the selection criteria, the study budget and conceptual and demographic factors that must be considered to permit understanding of the topic under study (Dworkin, 2012). Researcher experience was also identified as a potential limiting factor by Charmaz (2006); that is, how does the researcher know when she has reached saturation? The question of ‘how many?’ to interview has been debated across the corpus of qualitative research literature (Dworkin (2012). Dworkin (2012) reported that studies that use in-depth interviews should adhere to 25–30 participants as a minimum sample size in order to reach saturation. However, given that I intend to collect written or audio narratives in addition to a single in-depth interview per participant that 25–30 would be excessive. According to Clandinin & Connelly (2000) and Creswell (2006), narrative research is suited to studying the lives of a small number of participants. Participants will be recruited in accordance with the following criteria:

Purposive sampling: Inclusion criteria

Selection criteria

- a) University Tutors – those individuals whose role it is to teach tutorials/workshops to undergraduate students. They may be part-time fixed term or full-time permanent. It is recognised that across the world, the name for this position varies and may include, but is not limited to: tutor (NZ, UK, Australia, sessional assistant, graduate teaching assistant (US, UK, NZ), teaching assistant (NZ, UK), tutorial facilitator, teaching fellow, senior teacher, teacher and demonstrator (see Glossary)

- b) University Tutors who teach on high-enrolment first-year courses at a university but not a Mass Open Online Course. The subject matter that participants teach will be noted and considered should it have a bearing on their stories. This may not arise until the analysis phase so will not be ruled out as a potential consideration.
- c) University Tutors who can answer yes to criteria a) and b) and have been teaching consistently for at least a year in order to develop some degree of professional identity. I acknowledge that a newly- appointed tutor takes time to adjust to what is required to teach and I am aware that tutors with a variety of competencies may apply to be participants. With this in mind, I have considered Berliner's five stages of teaching competency (Berliner, 1988). Consideration of these stages may offer a way to provide insights or seek patterns in tutor narratives to ascertain how tutor teaching experience might affect their identity and how they make meaning of their work within their contexts. However, I am not interested, at this time, in establishing which stage each tutor could be classified within on the novice-expert continuum but rather this is one factor among many that may arise during analysis.

Phenomenology permits multiple research possibilities, and throughout literature, phenomenological methods differ depending on the philosophical foundations (Wimpenny & Gass, 2000). Methods may include conversations, interviews, focus group scenarios, action research and the analysis of personal documents (Connelly, 2010). However, in this research, I have chosen to use written or audio-recorded reflections and narrative interviews as my units of analysis. These methods are often used when the objective is to obtain knowledge of the meaning of lived experience, to improve understanding of a particular phenomenon (Lykkegaard & Delmar, 2013). Creswell (2006) also recommended using multiple types of information in narrative research. The stories, or 'field-texts', as they were called by Clandinin and Connelly (2000) will be constructed over a time-period in order to preserve the temporality that is important to consider in the plot development of narratives, i.e. the development of the meaning that people make as they experience.

Step 1: Provision of study information to potential participants

Interested individuals will be sent a Plain Language Statement and Consent Form (PLSC) detailing the particulars of the research, any risks, and other important information prior to agreeing to continue to take part. The PLSC will contain full disclosure of the intended research and researcher contact details. Individuals will be given a two- week period to consider the invitation to participate.

Step 2: Confirmed participant briefing and commencement of data collection

Confirmed participants will be contacted and briefed to explain the study in more depth, as needed, and to answer any questions they may have. This may also be the time to identify any potential vulnerabilities or cultural considerations. Instructions will be provided to participants with respect to the expected periodicity of the recording of the details of their teaching, interactions in the workplace, situations encountered and any associated thoughts, emotions and experiences.

Participants will be asked to record their experiences for the duration of their busiest semester and for this, journaling guidance will be provided. Each participant will be encouraged to keep a journal for the duration of their 'main' semester/trimester (that which has the highest student intake) in which to document their experiences, feelings and reflections of events that they have encountered in their teaching and being in the world as a tutor, during the semester. A template may be provided to help to capture their responses and to maintain some consistency and focus (see Fig. 2, overleaf).

Journal Elements			
Date	Memorable event (concrete experience)	Reflective observation	Additional notes / details you feel are relevant
	<i>This is the place for you to record events that happened during your teaching day. They can be positive, negative, or neutral. Be objective, detailing the who, what, when, where and how. Then feel free to be subjective; how did you feel during the event?</i>	<i>What did you observe during this experience/event and what possible meanings could these observations have? How do you feel about the event after having had some time to reflect?</i>	
Monday 21 February	Today, I attended a weekly staff meeting whereby the topic of tutors came up. In the conversation, we were referred to (by a senior lecturer) as non-academics. Apart from glaring in disbelief at the lecturer, I didn't say anything as I felt too embarrassed to. Like it wasn't my place, which was pretty frustrating.	In hindsight, perhaps I should have questioned what she said. I believe we are academic staff. We're not allied staff, after all, and we do most of the teaching. It was one of those moments when you wish you could go back in time and deliver a good (collegial, of course) comeback. Next time, if this happens, I might speak up. For now I think I'll bring this up in the next TA meeting, for peer discussion, to see what the others think.	The Head of School was in the room at the time – this might have put the brakes on me responding. I want to keep my job and I've heard some rumours lately that are making me nervous.

Figure 2: Example of a journaling template

Participants will be asked to enter these event responses into a Microsoft Word document, as per the example in Fig 2., above, (or record an audio file using, for example, the in-built Voice Memo software in an iPhone) for a minimum of once per week (as the ideal), or as often as they would like within any given week. Participants will be asked to upload their templates to an online Dropbox, on a weekly or fortnightly basis. Riley and Hawe (2005) described the need for flexibility around the way journal data should be recorded by participants and this will be taken into consideration in the proposed project with participants being offered a choice of journaling method at no monetary expense to them (e.g. emails, hand-written notes, private on-line wikis or audio files). Given this, each participant and the researcher will attempt to reach an agreement as to the periodicity of journaling and the preferred method for doing so.

Step 3: Collection of written narratives and transcription

Following completion of the narratives, participants will be asked to submit them to me, via an online Dropbox. Ideally, this will be on a weekly to fortnightly basis but some flexibility will be allowed to accommodate workloads. I intend to conduct all transcription myself in order to immerse myself in the narratives. Transcriptions will be uploaded into *nVivo* for ease of analysis and storage. Narrative data analysis of the journals can then be commenced.

Step 4: Narrative data analysis

Narrative analysis differs from formalistic thematic analysis, largely due to the temporal consideration present in narrative – that experiences can change over time and thus narrative analysis is theoretically time-aware and context sensitive (Riley & Hawe, 2005). Preliminary data analysis (using the steps outlined below) will begin upon receiving the first narratives and analysis of written accounts will occur consistently as they are provided to me by the participants.

As data is collected, analysis may begin following the steps outlined by Riley and Hawe (2005, p.231):

1. An examination of sentences and paragraphs (narrative segments) to decide whether they are descriptive, consequential, evaluative or transformative.
2. Focus on why the story is being told in the way it is, how participants describe certain actions or events that took place.
3. Examine the *storytelling occasion* and locate myself as a researcher in the process of narrative construction. Are some stories hidden from me? Why is this?

4. Examine how the process of making meaning interacts with broader cultural or institutional norms/events. Are some stories difficult to tell?
5. What is the point of the story? The direction and form of the plot are identified by identifying the sequence of events/evaluations.

The stories will then be constructed, including the actors, plot, scenes, characters with direct reference made to the raw transcripts. This will essentially form the basis of what will become *narrative summaries* (Entin, 1959). Following construction of these, participants will be invited to review the raw transcripts and summaries. If changes are to be made, re-coding and rewriting will occur as needed. Following this, the final step in analysis will be conducted; the generation of the overarching themes, or meta-narratives. At this point, I will return to my chosen analytical lenses, specifically phenomenology (hermeneutic) and the narrative identity work of Ricoeur (1991) to ensure alignment and focus is maintained.

Step 5: Narrative interview as follow-up – interpersonal process recall

Following the completion of the work around the written/audio narratives, a narrative interview may be conducted with each participant to further unpack the meta-narratives that have been brought to the surface through the inquiry process (verification of existing data), to seek clarity where needed and to see whether time has had an impact on the perceptions recorded (new data may be created if changes are evident). These will be independent of journaling. It is envisaged that this would occur approximately six months following the completion of all journaling. Narrative interviews will later be transcribed and as for the written/audio narratives summarised and member-checked for authenticity. Re-writing and re-coding will occur as needed and final meta-narratives will be developed.

Step 6: Ensuring replicability, rigor, trustworthiness, and minimising bias

In this research, meaning and knowledge will be co-created resulting in a mutual, new reality. “In this shared and co-created reality, the values of the inquirer, the various value systems of research participants, the values which inhere in the context all must be uncovered and made transparent.” (Lincoln & Guba, 2013, p. 41). These are axiological (value-based) considerations that must be upheld when interpreting the lived experiences of participants as co-constructors of the resulting new knowledge and deciding which new knowledge is the most valuable and trustworthy. These are critical considerations in qualitative research, as highlighted by Graneheim and Lundeman (2003), especially where the notion of trustworthiness is concerned. Graneheim and Lundeman (2003) also noted that the literature often refers to a variety of aspects of trustworthiness that researchers should uphold: including credibility, dependability and transferability and validity/reliability. They suggested that these aspects are viewed as interwoven with respect to ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. In addition, a selection of transcripts will be cross-coded with the primary supervisor to ensure replicability and to check for instances of unintended bias.

With respect to trustworthiness in the use of narrative, the notion of narrative truth was discussed by Craig (2009) with reference to conducting narrative inquiry. Craig (2009) highlighted that in the concept of truth in reflective inquiry such as that of narrative, trustworthiness is sought and it is different from that sought in quantitative research (whereby reference to a single vision of ‘T’ Truth is often evident)—

In short, narrative inquiry’s exemplars, like those of the reflective practice variety, exude a ‘true for now’ (Bruner, 1986) quality in its storied accounts, whether in a deliberate or taken-for-granted form. This is because studies involving narrative – and reflection, for that matter – are inevitably ‘unfinished and unfinishable business’ (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2006). Put differently, stories involving human lives are never finished products. They are constantly ‘in the making’ and, therefore, incomplete and incompletable. (Craig, 2009, p. 112).

Stories thus remain unfinished and multiple narrative truths are part of any narrative inquiry (Craig, 2009). This is an important consideration in any narrative analysis and will be considered as part of the analysis that will occur in this project.

Data storage, access, and destruction considerations

Participant contact details will be collected and stored once Consent Forms are received by the primary researcher. Contact details will be used to arrange mutually suitable times for interviews to occur and for the dissemination of research transcripts at the cessation of the study.

I, the student researcher and primary supervisor, XXX, will have access to the data during the collection and analysis phases of the study.

The student researcher and primary supervisor will have access to the findings after they have been produced at the cessation of the study.

The student researcher will have the only access to the database which will be stored locally on the researcher's AUT University (Auckland, New Zealand) computer and backed up in accordance with Deakin University (Melbourne, Australia) requirements.

Contact details will be stored for six years following cessation of the study and will be destroyed using AUT/Deakin data destruction methods thereafter. Only the student researcher and primary supervisor will have access to this information.

The data will be securely stored (in a locked cupboard) on AUT premises, in electronic form, on an external hard drive. A duplicate of this data will be lodged with the primary supervisor on site at Deakin University (Burwood Campus).

Data will be destroyed after six years in accordance with Deakin data destruction protocols.

Dissemination of results

I intend to publish selected findings in relevant scholarly journals and by way of presentation at national and international conferences. An electronic copy of the completed dissertation will be provided to all participants, by request.

Summary of ethical considerations

“For those of us wanting to learn to engage in narrative inquiry, we need to imagine ethics as being about negotiation, respect, mutuality and openness to multiple voices. We need to learn how to make these studies of what it means to engage in narrative inquiry dependable and steady. We must do more than fill out required forms for institutional research ethics boards.” (Clandinin, 2006, p. 52)

The above quote from Clandinin (2006) specifically provides guidance around ethics and the use of the narrative method. It aligns with the New Zealand-based approach to conducting research with human participants. While I will be conducting the proposed research as a student of Deakin University, I am a New Zealand citizen conducting this research from New Zealand and with some New Zealand-based participants. Therefore, in accordance with the Treaty of Waitangi (Māori: Tiriti o Waitangi), in the design of this study and as tangata titiri, myself, (someone who belongs to the land by right of the Treaty, a Pakeha), I am obligated to consider the Treaty's three guiding principles, as pronounced by the Royal Commission of Social Policy (New Zealand). These are Partnership, Protection and Participation and I believe that they align with the ethical concerns that arise when conducting narrative inquiry as discussed by Clandinin (2006) and as summarised in the above quote.

Partnership

The study centres on the co-construction of knowledge. The researcher will give the participants an opportunity to voice their experiences and in doing this, the participants will provide information for the researcher to use to generate new understanding. It is hoped that the research will allow busy tutors the chance to pause and consider why they do what they do and what this means for their practice. The researcher will ensure that the identities are protected to elicit honest dialogue. Further partnership will evolve as participants from several universities will be recruited.

Participation

The role of the participants in the proposed research is to share their views, perceptions and experiences. They will not be asked to directly inform the methodology. However, as the preliminary analysis is conducted, the proposed theoretical lens that will be used to guide the final analysis may change or alter depending on the themes that arise and whether further research, such as supplementary observational studies, are needed. Participants

will be asked whether they would like to review their transcripts and narrative summaries (member-checking) and will be offered the opportunity to comment or amend content as required.

Protection

Participants will be assured of confidentiality and will be deidentified using pseudonyms on the transcripts and in research outputs (see *Risk Minimisation*, below). It is not envisaged that cultural/diversity issues will be significant in this research but should such issues arise, the necessary steps to accommodate participant needs will be considered. If a New Zealand participant is of Māori or Pacific Island ethnicity, respect for whanau/fono support will be factored in to the interview process if required. If a participant is of another ethnicity (e.g. of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent), consultation with Deakin University will be undertaken to ensure that the appropriate cultural considerations and expectations are met.

In order to maintain confidentiality, in published and unpublished works resulting from this research, participants will only be identifiable by their unique pseudonyms as discussed below when specific references is made to excerpts of dialogue or reference made to themes or outcomes. Participants will give consent by completing the Consent Form.

I believe that my research will satisfy the requirements for low-risk research in accordance with the policies and procedures of the Deakin University Human Ethics Advisory Group. I will therefore need to include the Low Risk Research Application Form in order to apply for an Expedited Review.

Conflict of interest statement

I do not foresee any conflict of interest arising as a result of conducting and disseminating this research.

Risk minimisation

Discomforts

Participants may feel concerned that their comments might appear critical of their colleagues, the course designers and their managers, management structure or policies at any level. Some participants may feel that in describing their teaching experiences that they will be identifiable by colleagues or managers and that this may have repercussions. To minimise this potential risk, I will ensure that all participants are referred to by pseudonyms.

Rigor is an important consideration in phenomenological research and as Connelly (2010), argued phenomenological research should involve the reflection upon and identification of potential researcher bias. Reflection, in particular, should focus on whether the findings accurately reflect the communicated perceptions of the participants (Connelly, 2010). It is critical that the reader of the published work should be able to clearly understand the experiences of the participants as if they had experienced the phenomenon/phenomena themselves (Connelly, 2010).

Overview of key research activities and approximate timeline

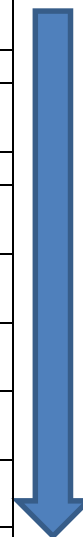
Two sets of data generation phases are proposed.

- Phase 1: Journaling experience over a semester
- Phase 2: Follow-up interview (ideally within following 6 months of Phase 1)

I have only included one round of each phase but some flexibility will be in place to add an additional recruitment and data collection round should attrition occur.

Proposed timeline (overleaf):

Timeline/ period	Research Activity	Notes / additional activity
February 2015	Colloquium	Confirmation of candidature
Feb – March 2015	Ethics application	
Apr – May 2015	Recruitment NZ	
June 2015 – Dec 2015	Phase 1: NZ data collection	For the duration of one teaching semester Prelim data analysis during the teaching period.
August –Sept 2015	Recruitment UK	
Sept 2015 – January 2016	Phase 1 in UK data collection	For the duration of one teaching semester
Jan – Feb 2016	Recruitment AU	
June 2016	Phase 2 in NZ narrative interviews	To occur 6 months following completion of journals
March 2016 – September 2016	Phase 1 in AU data collection	For the duration of one teaching semester
July 2016– August 2016	Phase 2 in UK narrative interview	To occur 6 months following completion of journals
March 2017– April 2017	Phase 2 in AU narrative interview	To occur 6 months following completion of journals
May 2017 – October 2017	Ongoing data analysis	
December 2017 – January 2018	First drafts completed and submitted	Drafts of chapters 1 – 3 including methodology will be submitted to supervisors for feedback
February 2018 – April 2018	Second set of drafts submitted	Drafts of chapters 4 – 6 will be submitted to supervisors for feedback
May 2018 – November 2018	Revisions and reworking. Finalising.	Completion of discussion and conclusion chapters. Reworking of previous chapters as needed.
December 2018		Submission of thesis



Continual analysis as data is collected.

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GLOSSARY

Graduate Teaching Assistant	A student, usually recently graduated with an undergraduate degree or completing a postgraduate qualification who fulfils the roll of a tutor (as above).
Large classes/courses/papers	<p>Definitions vary considerably depending on who you talk to or what literature you read. There is no set definition for 'large courses' or 'large papers' in the literature.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Example 1</u>: The University of Sydney, Australia, define a large 'class' as having at least 80 students but note that the definition varies across teaching contexts and disciplines. They cite numbers of "over 1000" in their introductory undergraduate courses (University of Sydney, 2014). • <u>Example 2</u>: At AUT University, New Zealand, a large paper is considered by many to be one that enrolls approximately 500–1700 students in any given semester. Class sizes in the undergraduate papers vary from 40–100 depending on the discipline and method of teaching (tutorial versus 'lectorial'-style). Undergraduate papers at Otago University, New Zealand, enrol upwards of 2500 students. • <u>Example 3</u>: Griffith University, Australia, define a large class as having 100 or more students but they recognise that there is no set definition, citing that some may consider 50-70 to be large and that in a single cohort, 1500 is considered large. (Burnett & Krause, date unknown).
Paper	The terminology used at AUT University, New Zealand, to describe a single unit, course, or module that a student enrolls in as part of their pathway within their qualification. E.g., "I teach on a paper called Health and Environment." The smallest unit of a programme of study.
Paper Coordinator	The terminology used at AUT University, New Zealand, to describe the academic staff member responsible for the academic quality and results of a paper. Answerable to the Board of Studies and Examination Board of the Faculty in which they are employed.
Semester	A term of the academic year; a half-year course.
Sessional Assistant	Synonym for tutor. Usually employed on a part-time casual basis. Differs from a sessional lecturer in that they fulfil a tutoring role rather than that of a lecturer in most cases.
Teaching Assistant	Synonym for tutor. The name of the role of a tutor at AUT University. This is also a synonym for a teacher's aide in the school context.
Teaching Fellow	Definition of role varies between institutions but usually involves lecturing and pedagogic research.
Tutor / University Tutor	An individual employed to facilitate tutorials / workshops / laboratory classes at tertiary institutions. Employment varies from part-time casual to full-time permanent contracts.
Third-stream activities	Revenue-generating activities that academics are expected to undertake in addition to their extant teaching and research roles.

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